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ERRATA.

Page 13, col. iii., line ... For "Mamberton" read "Mam...

Page 49, col. ii., line ... from bottom. For "Mr. ... read "Miss Helene Bonfo... and change the sex of the follo... pronouns accordingly.

Page 204, col. iii., paragraph ... for "Ecclesiastes" read "Ecclesiasticus" passim.

Page 359, col. i. After ... insert "picturesqueness and ... is on the."

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 7, 1897.

The Week.

THE restoration of the reciprocity treaties is positively announced as a part of the McKinley programme. Like some other parts, this serenely disregards the fact that changed times command changed policies. It also forgets that the very corner-stone of the reciprocity treaties was free sugar. Without it the first treaties—those with Brazil and Spain (for Cuba)—would never have been written, and but for these the others would not have followed. But it is now agreed on all hands that the new tariff bill is to tax sugar. The only question is how much, and this is a matter for nice adjustment between the Sugar Trust, the Louisiana cane-growers, and the makers, or would-be makers, of beet sugar all over the country. With sugar taxed, what is there left to base reciprocity upon? Free hides, some one may say. But hides may not continue free, in the first place, and, in the second, they had no coercive power in the hands of President Harrison. He threatened to tax Argentine hides if no reciprocity treaty was forthcoming, but thought better of it; and the tax he actually laid on Venezuelan hides had no result except to restrict our supply. Free sugar is, in short, absolutely essential to reciprocity. The former we are not to have, but the latter we are certain to get. You ask how, and the only answer you get is, that this is going to be the greatest administration ever known for harmonizing fire and water and achieving impossibilities.

The tariff hearings have at least succeeded in disposing of one false pretence, and that is that the new bill must be had for the sake of revenue. Who of the men heard by the committee have thought or cared or spoken about revenue—except the revenue that is to flow into their own pockets? There has been some fatuous talk, it is true, about the larger receipts of the Government under the higher rates of duty, provided importations kept up to their present figure. But as, in the same breath, the aim is avowed of shutting out all importations, and the claim made that by a little more protection the domestic manufacturer will be able to supply the home market entirely, these allusions to revenue are transparent humbug. The fact has been made clear that the protectionists have simply found a new form of dishonesty on which to base their impudent demands. They now want special favors and law-made profits only for the sake of making good the Government deficit. If the deficient revenues were really the thing to be cured, a bill of three lines would do it. As it is, no one can guess within $20,000,000 what the new tariff will produce. Behind all rises the question, Are the national revenues really deficient? The Treasury report for December shows a surplus of $2,000,000 for the month. This looks like a dastardly attempt to discredit in advance the new prohibitory protectionist tariff for revenue only.

Senator Sherman delivers himself of some senile maunderings about taking the tariff "out of politics." It is not a political question at all, he gravely argues, but a business question. If you doubt it, just look at the men who appear at the tariff hearings. Are there any politicians among them? Are they not all business men? Yes, they are business men who have bought and paid for protection, and who go to Washington to demand it from the politicians whom they have put in power for that very purpose. Chairman Dingley feebly begs them to take half they ask and be satisfied, but the spirit of blind and greedy protectionism has evidently broken loose as never before in this country. The committee itself is clearly aghast at the impudence and extravagance of some of the haughty demands made upon it. Taking the tariff out of politics! As long as more money can be made by buying Congressmen than by buying wool or cotton and manufacturing it, as long as there is greater profit in selling votes on the tariff than in selling merchandise, protection will stay in politics. It will stay there, too, as it always has been in the past, a corrupting power, the responsible cause of Populism and Bryanism; in the end, as destructive to free government as it is to free competition.

If anything were needed to show the utter folly of supposing a tariff can be framed in a way to "stay put," it would be furnished by the hearing on the cotton schedules. The cotton schedules of the Wilson bill now in effect were publicly accepted by the manufacturers as perfectly satisfactory. Their spokesman in the Senate, Senator Aldrich, declared those schedules the most "scientific" ever drawn, and said that the New England manufacturers had nothing to complain of in that particular. Yet they were present in force at Washington on Tuesday week to claim their share of the national largess with the rest of the public mendicants. Protection which was ample and thorough two years ago is now good for nothing. So it always has been. Let the manufacturers write their own rates in a new bill, and in two years' time they would be just as angrily clamorous for better protection. Yet simple-minded old Senator Sherman is going to take the tariff out of politics!

A correspondent writes to us in a querulous tone to say that we have made a "misstatement" in saying that chlorate of potash has always been on the free list of the tariff. We have to acknowledge that this was an error. What we should have said was that chlorate of potash was put on the free list by the McKinley tariff, and that it was dutiable previously at the rate of 3 cents per pound. We assume that McKinley was a good authority on this subject. Probably he reasoned that an article which entered largely into other manufacturing industries, and was not produced in this country, ought to be on the free list on protectionist grounds. We can remember a time when the doctrine prevailed extensively that the object of protection was to build up manufactures. It has since suffered a change into something rich and strange. The prevailing notion now is a distribution of the national income by a log-rolling bill, according to the number of votes that can be mustered for this, that, and the other interest. On this basis we see very little reason to expect a duty on chlorate of potash in the forthcoming bill, although there is just as good a claim for it as for a duty on chromate of potash, or on raw wool, or on anything which is taxed for private rather than for public revenue.

The sticking-place of any new tariff bill is certain to be the Senate. This the protectionist manipulators well know, and they are already busy with plans to "fix" the Senate. One evidence of their scheming is seen in North Carolina, where they are favoring the reëlection of Senator Pritchard. He has been an out-and-out silver man, and is even now supported by some Populists on the ground that he is "as good a silver man as there is in the country." But he appears to have promised Mr. Hanna not to insist upon a free-silver rider to a tariff bill, and that, of course, is enough. Once get the tariff through and the currency may lie a-bleeding, for all the Republican managers care. They mean to "fix" some more silver Senators as they have fixed Pritchard. They will make them promises to do something for silver, which they hope afterwards to find some convenient way of lying out of, or will help them to get a re-election, or in some way coax or bribe them into voting for a tariff bill without silver. Watchful Wharton Barker has several columns of "alarums and excursions" on this very subject in his *American* of last week. He exhorts the Silver Republicans to be unyielding —"Let There Be No Surrender!" Let them give no credit to the gay deceivers

of the protectionist cause. If they stand their ground firmly, they can defy the whole host, and make it again "free silver or no protection." All told, the new tariff bill promises to be a great success at least in developing legislative scandals and the prosperity of senatorial intriguers. But that is a venerable infant industry which always fares best at the hands of a tariff bill.

The House committee on banking and currency is going to have some "hearings" of its own, beginning on January 6. It will listen to the advocates of different bills for reforming the currency. Chairman Walker and some of the most influential members of the committee are thoroughly convinced of the need of doing something. Doubtless they are also convinced, as is the country, that nothing will be done by the present Congress. Still, their invitation to business men to come on and explain their views is to be commended. It may help to keep people mindful that there was an election turning on the currency issue only two months ago. Even a few gentlemen going to Washington to ask for a measure in the public interest, would furnish a pleasing contrast to the hordes who are besieging the ways and means committee for private favors. But the Indianapolis convention a week hence is likely to be of more importance to the question of currency reform than any hearings at Washington.

More cheer for silver came from Canton last week. Mr. McKinley had requested Senator Wolcott to undertake an "unofficial mission" to Europe. He is to "sound" European bimetallists, and see what can be done about another international conference. Major McKinley is said to be indignant at the "disquieting reports" put out in the Silver States that he would do nothing for silver. He wants it to be understood that he means to live squarely up to the platform. That precious document mentioned international bimetallism in a furtive and sheepish way, and thereafter it immediately dropped out of sight in the canvass except as a laughing-stock. But McKinley is fond of laughing-stocks of that kind, and is determined to associate himself with this one as closely as possible. Senator Wolcott explained that his trip became "prematurely public," which he "deplored." He had hoped that it would be "kept quiet." Secrecy, nocturnal meetings, cipher dispatches, are an essential part of the new international bimetallism. Nor would the Senator give the names of the eminent English bimetallists whom he goes to sound. There is no shyer bird than your eminent bimetallist, and he might refuse to stand and be sounded if public notice were drawn to him. Finally, announced the Colorado Senator, "I have, for my own part, little hope of any international agreement that will carry out our views." In other words, the whole thing is simply one more belated attempt to sprinkle international salt on the tail of the Silver Republican vote.

Sending agents abroad to sound foreign governments on the subject of bimetallism is simply to prolong the doubt as to what is the real meaning of the word dollar. It does not help the matter any to bring into doubt also the meaning of the pound sterling, the franc, and the mark. In a supposable case all four of them might be brought into discredit, but that would mean more disturbance rather than less. It would give us partners in confusion, but would not lessen our own share of it. Even if we take a more hopeful view of it, if we suppose that another international conference would succeed where three have failed miserably, much time must elapse before any result whatever can be reached. The period of gestation would carry us beyond the next congressional elections, if not to the next Presidential election. But, as has been said, the advance agent of prosperity becomes the full agent within two months' time, and he will then be held responsible for his title. What effect will his failure have on the elections two years hence?

Mr. Bryan points a finger of scorn at the successive bank failures. What is the "advance agent of prosperity" doing, he inquires, to let such things occur? We do not see that Mr. McKinley has any answer—certainly he will have none after March 4. For every broken bank, every passed dividend, every closed mill he will be, after that date, personally responsible. If Bryan had been elected, he would have been, he admits, responsible. But what a humiliating position for a free people to have got itself into! All eyes are turned to Washington, whence help must come or we perish. Once we kept our eyes on our business and said to Government, "Hands off!" Now it must be governmental hands on all the time, or we are lost. The big Chicago bank failure, which caused several others, was due to most scandalous banking methods, bad loans to sons-in-law of the President, loading up with speculative stock, and all that. Reckless loans on real estate explain a bank failure in Minneapolis. Yet we wring our hands and cry to Heaven and McKinley, and say there must be something rotten in the government if such terrible things can happen.

The Senators and Representatives who have been home during the recess of Congress have had a chance to find out how little sympathy with Jingoism there really is among the people. The Chandlers and Camerons and Morgans will have no evidence to offer that the people are with them in their proposal to go to war with Spain over Cuba. So far as the press indicates the sentiment of the public, the country stands in support of the President by an overwhelming majority. Bill Chandler had a chance during the holidays to read in the Manchester *American*, one of the most prominent Republican newspapers in his State, the declaration that, while nine-tenths of the voters of the United States believe that Grover Cleveland is "a wrong-headed, opinionated, bigoted, obstinate man, whose election to the Presidency four years ago was little less than a national calamity," yet "their opinion is or will be that his recent course in dealing with the complications growing out of the Cuban insurrection is vastly more to the credit and material well-being of the country than is that of the fire-eating Senators and members of Congress who demand the instantaneous obliteration of Spain from the map of nations." So, too, Senator Frye of Maine was notified by the Portland *Press* that, if he is in favor of interference, the great majority of Maine people are not with him. We are not aware that a single journal of character and standing in the whole country supports the policy championed by the Senate committee on foreign relations.

The Republican machine in Illinois is loath to abandon the idea of giving the United States senatorship to a "boodle Alderman" of Chicago, and the decent element in the party does not expect to make it back down without a hard struggle. The scheme was cooked up months ago. The Governor-elect, the Illinois member of the Republican national committee, the Chicago Congressman who is the most of a boss in the delegation, and the other members of the "combine," both in Chicago and elsewhere in the State, treated the office as absolutely belonging to them when they decided last summer how various places in the public service should be apportioned, and assigned it to Alderman Madden. They treat the mayoralty of Chicago, which will fall vacant next April, in the same way now. But the very impudence of this Illinois machine may prove its destruction. Even Tweed in his palmiest days would not have thought of giving the United States senatorship from New York, if its disposition had been in his hands, to a Tammany Alderman. He would at least have made a pretence to decency by picking out a respectable figurehead, like John T. Hoffman, who had not been openly connected with notorious steals. It marks the downward tendency of party machines that in both New York and Illinois the "organization" of the party which has always prided itself upon its high character, is now committed to the support for the senatorship of men who are known to levy upon corporations for money of which they make no account. The only differ-

ence between them is that the Illinois machine is rather the more shameless of the two. But there is a great difference in the reception of the machine programme in New York and in Illinois. Here almost everybody "deprecates personalities," is opposed to telling the truth about Platt for fear of "flinging mud," and is afraid to be "anti-Platt." There, prominent Republicans are ready to declare themselves anti-Madden, to make "intensely personal" speeches, to cite date and place of Madden's dishonesty.

Some light is cast upon the modern interpretation of "legitimate expenditures" in politics by the revelations that are being made in the Pennsylvania senatorial contest. It recently came out that a fortnight before the November election the chairman of the Republican State committee, "by request of Senator Quay," enclosed sums of $250 and $500 to various candidates for the Legislature "to help defray your campaign expenses." Frank Willing Leach, who has had a political experience of fifteen years as the lieutenant of Senator Quay, says that the campaign for the chairmanship of the Republican State committee in 1895 cost a sum estimated by Quay himself at $200,000. Leach expended a considerable portion of this amount, but he certifies that all the funds disbursed by him were spent in aiding the election of delegates friendly to Mr. Quay, "and it was a perfectly proper expenditure." This last, it must be remembered, was simply a factional fight in the Republican party for control of its State convention, and yet an expert testifies that the expenditure of $200,000 by the winning side is "perfectly proper"!

The name of Seth Low is signed to the draft of the new charter which contains the bi-partisan police provision, but it is not possible that he has given it his approval. The plea which the committee who drafted the charter makes in defence of the bi-partisan principle is that it is necessary because the Bureau of Elections is included in the Police Department. This, as we have pointed out already, is the old machine dodge of refusing to make the Bureau of Elections separate, in order that this very excuse might be advanced. Mr. Low condemned both the bi-partisan principle and this excuse for it in his speech before the Mayor, on May 1, 1895, when, in opposing the Platt bi-partisan bill of that year, he said:

> "The great objection to the bill is in its fundamental defects. It is not altogether what it does, but what it does not do. It has not taken the Bureau of Elections out of the hands of the Police Department, and has not separated them. This is the fundamental defect of the bill."

A month earlier, in opposing the same bill at Albany, Mr. Low said that the separation of the Bureau of Elections from the Police Department had worked well in Brooklyn and should be adopted in New York. At the hearing before the Mayor, Mr. Low read extracts from the Lexow investigation, showing the appalling corruption in the police force, in consequence of the politicians' grip on the department, and said:

> "In view of these, I should like to ask whether any one believes that bi-partisanship will take partisanship out of the department. We cannot believe it. Are we to say that we have discovered the panacea for all municipal evils in bi-partisanship? Mr. Mayor, let us return to the platform of the fathers of the Republic. They put aside the idea of bi-partisanship and adopted the idea of individual responsibility. They put one man at the head of the Treasury, one man at the head of the State, and one man at the head of the Post-office Department. We have had good results from that policy. Surely, under these ideas, we should have greater results than from any bi-partisan bill."

The daily sessions of our Police Board constitute the strongest possible argument against the bi-partisan provision of the proposed Greater New York charter. It is impossible for the honest and capable members of the board to attend to the business of the department, because the presence of one tricky spoils politician among them makes it so. He compels them, by his open and secret manœuvres in the interest of the Platt machine, to spend the greater part of their time in bickering with him in the only partially successful task of exposing his schemes and cornering him in his falsehoods. He has had no other function in the board, since he entered it as the "representative of the Jimmy O'Brien Democracy," than to impede the public business, block all efforts for the thorough reform of the force, and give provocation for incessant wrangling. He is the very incarnation of the bi-partisan idea, and he works as other incarnations of it who preceded him—Johny McClave, Jimmy Martin, Mike Kerwin, Charlie Murray, and Johnny Sheehan—worked for so many years, to prevent the Police Department from becoming a thoroughly honest and efficient body. If Parker were out of the Police Board to day, and an honest, capable man were in his place, or if Mr. Roosevelt or Mr. Andrews were sole head, there would be no further bickerings, the members of the force would realize that the last stronghold of the old demoralizing "pull" system had been carried, and the task of reform could be accomplished without bickering and without delay.

The Southern press gives more space than ever before to the advantages which their section offers to settlers. It would be hard to exaggerate the claims that may be truthfully made as to the climate, the fertility of the soil, the opportunities for developing material resources of various sorts. But there is one drawback which will make nine out of ten Northern people who think of making the change at first hesitate and finally decide against it. It is the appalling record of crime, as given in the very newspapers that appeal for settlers. Take Georgia, for example, "the Empire State of the South," as it likes to be called. Ex-Gov. Northen is diligently engaged in setting forth its advantages as a place for homes, but the Savannah *News* is forced to confess that "the criminal record for Christmas week in Georgia is very, very bad." The reports published in the *News* on Christmas and the two following days show no less than twenty homicides, many of them being cold-blooded murders, and the great majority growing out of the drinking of whiskey, while there were also numerous bloody fights. In the expressive language of the *News*, "whiskey-drinking went along with pistol-toting, and when the liquor had got in its work, pistols were whipped out and lives sacrificed," with the result that "it was a sad Christmas to hundreds of Georgians, because of whiskey and pistols."

The renewal of the charter of the Bank of France, now pending before the French Chamber, has given rise to some curious ideas about banking, comparable to those of our expertest Populist financiers. The great thing in the minds of the Deputies is to get a bank that will cheerfully discount "agricultural paper." They know that the existing Bank of France has a horrid and heartless way of asking for collateral, and they fear that the managers under the new charter will go on in the same bad fashion unless the law compels them to be more considerate of unsecured notes. Accordingly they proposed to amend the charter in such a way as to compel the Bank to discount nine months' agricultural bills with two signatures. But the committee voted this down, eleven to five, after the Minister of Finance had said the charter would not be accepted by the Bank on those terms. Still, something must be done for agricultural paper. The Premier, M. Méline, the French McKinley, and as paternal and benevolent as he, insists upon some kind of bank for the farmers. His idea is to have a Central Bank, especially for agriculture, intermediary between the Bank of France and the farmers. Excellent, said the Deputies; put that in the charter and compel the Bank of France to pay out of its profits the losses from the discount of agricultural bills. It was taken for granted on all sides that there would be losses. If the bills had to be met when due, what would be the advantage of a Government bank to discount them? But M. Méline did not quite want to put it in the charter. It might frighten the stockholders. If the Chamber would first extend the charter and get that safely out of the way, he would pledge himself to bring in a separate bill for a nice, grandmotherly sort of bank for the farmers. There the matter hung at last accounts.

SENATORS OF NEW YORK.

THERE seems to be no doubt that the remarkable hold which Platt has upon the Republican party of this State will be shaken off when an opportune time for doing so shall arrive. The trouble is to find a really opportune time. Several disappointments have been experienced in the search for one. It was thought in December and January, a year ago, that precisely this kind of time had arrived. Cornelius Bliss, Elihu Root, John Sabine Smith, and twenty-two other Republicans of unimpeachable standing collected evidence to show that Platt had got possession of the party machinery through an enrolment which was thoroughly rotten with fraud and forgery. They proved their case, and were going ahead to repudiate Platt and put him outside what Sheehan calls the "pale of the organization." Just as they had become thoroughly indignant and irresistibly belligerent, somebody said to them: "See here, are you quite sure that this is not an inopportune time for your movement? Platt is a bad man, and this enrolment is undoubtedly rotten, but is this the time to make a row about such things?" When Elihu Root heard this he paused and allowed his mind to dwell upon the time. Cornelius Bliss and John Sabine Smith did the same.

What was the result? To their unspeakable chagrin, they found that the time *was* inopportune. Mr. Root at once stated the case to the public. The movement must be held back till after the Presidential election, for nothing could be more inopportune than party dissension on the eve of a great struggle for the salvation of the nation. As soon as that crisis was passed, Mr. Platt and his rotten organization would get their deserts. Well, the crisis passed, and when it was over, the discovery was made that, during the anxiety about the country's honor, Mr. Platt had been busying himself with collecting a Legislature which would make him a United States Senator. Mr. Choate was put forward as a man more worthy of Republican support for the place. It was very difficult to say that you preferred Choate to Platt without saying why; but the minute you began to say why, you saw that the whole movement was inopportune. How so? Because we were on the eve of a Republican national administration, and any real antagonism to Platt at this time would arouse partisan feeling, create party discord, and disturb that harmony without which the new President could not hope to grapple successfully with the great problems which confronted him. When the Republican Club was asked to favor Choate, it declined to allow the subject to be discussed, or to have any unpleasant allusions made to Platt, because to do so now was so clearly inopportune. Cornelius Bliss, John Sabine Smith, and Elihu Root would convince you within two seconds of this if you had any doubt.

But we did not need to rely on our local experts in inopportunity. A good Platt man went post-haste to Canton, and talked with Major McKinley and Mr. Hanna about it. They were both of the same mind. Major McKinley deprecated anything which should disturb the existing harmony in New York, or deprive his administration of the full benefit of it. Mr. Hanna held that, since Mr. Platt was certain to be elected, the opposition to him was clearly inopportune. Why, it might result in preventing the passage of a new tariff bill unless called off. When these opinions reached this city, all the anti-Platt Republicans who had been looking for a good excuse for postponing their movement again, threw up their hands, saying as loyal Republicans they could not do anything to endanger McKinley's administration. So Platt will be elected to the Senate with very little opposition except from confirmed Mugwumps, who are never so happy as when they are thoroughly inopportune. They fairly dote on inopportunity, and think that the best time in which to fight a political rascal is when he is engaged most openly in his deviltry.

When shall we have the blessed sight of the opportune time in which to fight Platt? There can be no hope for it this winter, for the McKinley administration will not begin till March, and its problems will remain unsolved for a long time afterwards, so that any disturbance of party harmony will be inopportune. Everything that goes on at Albany in the Platt Legislature, including the "jamming through" of a new charter for Greater New York, will have to be accepted meekly for this reason. Is there any hope for next fall? We fear not. It will be necessary then to save the city from Tammany; and a fight with Platt, on the eve of election, will be most inopportune. After that our next chance will come in the winter of 1897 and 1898, but you see we shall then be on the eve of a new State election and of a congressional election, and harmony will be as essential as ever. In fact, there seems to be no time when you can fight a corrupt boss without disturbing the harmony of the party, and there is never a disturbance of harmony which is so entirely opportune as to please all the conservative minds of the party.

There appears to be no way out of it except for Republicans who do not enjoy Platt's government to become perfectly reckless and say that, after all, common honesty is of more importance than party harmony, and that it is better to be inopportune than to acquiesce in the destruction of popular government. Signs of so violent an upheaval in party ethics as this would be are not plentiful just now, but there is no telling what the future may bring forth. In addition to the all-powerful dread of being inopportune, there is the scarcely less potent fear that too reckless devotion to mere honesty in politics may lead to classification with Mugwumps, and they are such a very lonesome and powerless lot, you know. They never get any offices, and the candidates whom they advocate are seldom elected. What could be more forlorn, for example, than the position in which Mr. Choate is to be left when the present contest closes? He will get very few votes in the Legislature, while Platt will have a great majority, and Choate will be pointed to as a warning to all ambitious men against the deadly support of Mugwumps.

GOVERNORS OF NEW YORK.

MR. MORTON closed his term of office on Friday with a well-written review of the political affairs of the State during his term of office. He went over the legislation in which he has concurred, and gave each measure its due proportion of importance. He might, however, have said more about the working of the civil-service amendment to the Constitution, because this has occupied more of the attention of political men than anything else. In fact, the government may be said to turn on this. Every measure at Albany, like the Raines bill, is considered rather with reference to its effect in creating offices or controlling modes of appointment than to any other. Gov. Morton might, therefore, without impropriety have discussed more fully the consequences it is likely to have as regards the institutions of the State. But we confess we do not see how he could do so with freedom after appointing to a high office in Brooklyn one of the oldest and most notorious friends of the spoils system and of political corruption generally. The amendment to the Constitution was really intended to make men like Worth harmless, and the Governor might very well have told us something about the extent to which this intent will, in his opinion, be carried out.

When Gov. Morton took office in 1895, there was a very general expectation that he might, in virtue of his high character and his financial soundness, become the Republican candidate for the Presidency. He failed in this, mainly owing to too great reliance on the support of the New York machine, which, as has often been illustrated, really is much less powerful and important outside the State than in it. It has not succeeded in imposing a single candidate on the convention except Van Buren, and the machine in 1836 was a very different thing from what it is now. Its composition was better and its aims were higher. Almost ever since, New York delegations have arrived in the conventions discredited by faction fights and charges of corruption. Cleveland revealed to the world in 1892 the real weakness of our State machinery on both sides, by getting the nomination in spite of the

hostility of the delegation of his own State. There was warning in this as to the temper of the public mind, which was more than confirmed by the nomination of both McKinley and Bryan. They were both the product of something deeper and more important than machinery. We had hopes in the beginning that Mr. Morton would take this to heart and "go to the country," to use the ancient Saxon phrase, on his own merits, over Platt's head, as the champion of sound currency, of a reformed civil service, and of purity and efficiency in office—no "armor but his honest thought, and simple truth his highest skill." Our opinion was that, had he chosen to put himself at the head of the reform movement which was so powerful in 1894, and availed himself of the conspicuity which New York always gives to its high officials, as a Governor who stood for the country more than for party, not only would he have given a completely new turn to the politics of this State, both in city and country, but he would have imposed himself on the convention without Platt, in spite of Platt, as the man to win under. But he chose the other part. He appointed Aldridge when he came in, and has appointed Worth as he goes out, and has generally taken instructions (in spite of some good acts of rebellion) from the boss throughout his administration; and the recording angel drops a tear on the story as he writes it down.

Of Mr. Black, the incoming Governor, we say but little, for we know next to nothing. His nomination and Bryan's, both being completely unknown men, are conspicuous instances of the breakdown of our nominating system. Of neither of them did the general public know anything until one great party chose one of them for the Presidency because he invented a taking metaphor, and another great party chose the other for a governorship because he had successfully prosecuted a murderer. The result is curiously paradoxical, a sort of realization of the fable, for two mountains have brought forth two mice. All that has been said about Mr. Black hitherto is mere rumor. We shall this time next year be able to tell what kind of Governor he is. He has begun in the worst possible manner by reappointing to an office Jake Worth, probably one of the chief political rascals in the State. Maybe he will appoint more of the same; maybe he will not—all is a mystery. His expression in his inaugural address that "no intolerant clamor or irresponsible assault will force or prevent a single executive act," was generally held by the politicians to mean that he would certainly appoint Lou Payn. Possibly it did; but it may have been only a bit of rhetoric, intended to give notice that he will be firm as a rock. It can hardly have been intended as plain prose, because of course no man yields confessedly to "intolerant clamor or irresponsible assault." Mr. Black's English has probably been neglected. It may be, too, that, like the Philadelphia machine, which nominated two men just out of the penitentiary as police magistrates and elected them as "a dose for the high-toners," he is merely giving notice to the wretched public that their palaver about honesty and efficiency in office will not disturb him.

THE TREATMENT OF ENVY.

The crisis through which this country has lately passed has afforded great opportunities to moralists of various schools. They have generally agreed as to the gravity of the case and the alarming character of the symptoms, however divergent their opinions have been concerning the nature of the malady and the appropriate remedies. It is quite natural that the clergy should take a prominent part in these diagnoses and prognostications. The near prospect of a social cataclysm mightily arouses prophetic ardor by making it once more possible to disturb the complacent and alarm the supine. Hopeful suggestions are well enough in a way; but really to move men to action there is nothing like arousing their fears.

In prophecy of this kind, however, the clergy possess no natural monopoly. There is nothing in the education of a clergyman, nothing in the "atmosphere" which surrounds him, to give him any exceptional power of foreseeing the stages of social development. No one questions that the animus of the unsuccessful party at the recent election was to a great extent envy. The conditions were such as to unite the envious; but it is a mistake to suppose, as some clergymen appear to do, that men's hearts have not been heretofore equally prone to evil passions. "That feeling of hostility which is the only abasement of the poor in the presence of the rich"—to repeat what Hawthorne said fifty years ago—has been recognized by all observers, from Aristotle to De Tocqueville, as peculiarly manifest in a democracy. Those clerical observers who are now proclaiming that they know the hearts of the poor, and that they find them filled with hatred of the rich, doubtless report their observations correctly, but they have discovered only a well-known phenomenon. The managers of our sensational press think it pays to snap and snarl at the rich, and are, of course, utterly unbridled in the licentiousness of their speech; but if they were altogether silenced, envy would not be suppressed, and perhaps it is less venomous for not being bottled up.

For dealing with the envious there is what may be called the rational method, whereof we saw many admirable illustrations during the recent campaign. Poor people may be convinced that their interests are bound up in the general prosperity; that the property of the rich cannot be confiscated without such a disturbance of industry as will throw vast numbers of workmen out of employment. Accumulated wealth is, after all, the source of wages, and, if the springs are dried up, the streams will cease to flow. We cannot throw down the superstructure of property without undermining the foundations; and however detestable the possessors of great fortunes may be, the gratification of our hatred may seem too costly if it involves our own ruin. The part of Samson is a great part. "The People" may exult in the thought that their hands are on the pillars that uphold the social structure, and that if they bow themselves they can bring down the whole temple. But envy is a selfish and calculating passion, and however agreeable the destruction of those whom we envy may seem, the prospect of being hoist with our own petard is so unpleasant as to cause most of us to shrink from the indiscriminate use of dynamite.

What we have called the rational method, however, is only to a limited extent available to the clergy. It may fall within their province, as instructors in general, to show their people that certain acts are contrary to their interests; but no religious sanction attends such calm and utilitarian counsels as these. A man may be a better citizen for reasoning that as repudiation of debts would cause hard times wherein he would suffer, therefore he will have none of it. He may be in some ways a better man for going through this process of reasoning; but he has attained no such pitch of perfection as to make him a good Christian. He may abstain from overt acts of malignity, but his heart may be just as full of envy as ever, and he may be only nursing hatred until the time comes when he can injure others without injuring himself.

It is a painful observation, but we cannot help saying that some of the clergy have adopted what may fairly be termed the irrational method of dealing with envy. They seem to think that the people who are envied are to blame for arousing the evil passions of their neighbors, and that the envious are quite justified in their indulgence in hatred. The only advice they have to offer is that the envious must be propitiated; advice which they offer in a way that irresistibly suggests Lear's verse—

> There was an Old Man who said: "How
> Shall I flee from this horrible Cow?
> I will sit on this stile and continue to smile,
> Which may soften the heart of that Cow."

No doubt if the envied would turn over to the envious all those possessions which are coveted, the problem might be temporarily solved. But if any one imagines that condescension and beneficence are going to disarm hostility, he understands neither the present situation nor human nature. The poor whose envy is dangerous will take such condescension and beneficence at their true value, as the evidences of terror, the promptings of cowardice, the proofs that the rich have no just claim to their fortunes. As was

shown in the last campaign, they will take their employers' money and wear the McKinley buttons; but they will vote for Bryan just the same. What they want is to pull their betters down and get up themselves, and while they will snatch whatever the fears of the wealthy prompt them to disgorge, it will only whet and not satiate their appetites. Even if we concede that the envious may be propitiated by humbling ourselves before them, we do not understand how clergymen can consider that there is any merit in sacrifices extorted under such conditions and made from such motives.

For our own part, we are satisfied that the old way of regarding envy was the true one. It is, and always will be, a mean and odious passion, deserving nothing but condemnation and only thriving on sympathy. As the irascible man needs to keep a constant guard on his temper, as the lustful man must incessantly repress his appetites, so he that is tempted to envy should fight against it with all his strength. The passion is an evil one; twice cursed, injuring him that is envied and him that envies. It is no more to be tolerated in the poor than in the rich; whatever their grievances they are not to be cured in that way. Once let a poor man give himself up to envy, and his lot becomes hopeless. Every one's hand is instinctively raised against him, and he repels the kindly aid that is sure to be offered to all those who show a kindly disposition. No genuine social reform can come from pandering to envy; its malignant spirit will corrupt every measure devised for the purpose of appeasing it. The abuses of our government are due to the bad character of the rulers chosen by the people; if they complain of these abuses, let them insist on having men of stern integrity to make their laws. Doubtless those clergymen who are encouraging the poor in their envy have good motives. They hope that in some way good may come out of evil; that a better condition of affairs will result from placating the envious. But they would be wiser if they saw that true reforms can come only from reformed men; that if men will first seek righteousness, a better social system shall be added unto them.

THE ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION AT BALTIMORE.

BALTIMORE, January 1, 1897.

The ninth annual meeting of the American Economic Association was held at the Johns Hopkins University in this city on December 28 31. In many respects the meeting was one of the most interesting and noteworthy in the history of the Association. Attendance was large and distinguished. Harvard, Yale, Columbia, Cornell, the University of Pennsylvania, University of Michigan, University of Wisconsin, University of Minnesota, University of Illinois, University of Nebraska, Princeton, Brown, Amherst, Vanderbilt, Syracuse, Haverford, Smith, Hamilton, Bryn Mawr, Wellesley, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and the College of the City of New York were among the institutions represented. The academic contingent naturally predominated; but interest and piquancy were added by the presence and frequent participation in discussion of such well-known non-professorial economists as Mr. Horace White, Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, Mr. Sheppard Homans, of New York; Mr. Thomas G. Shearman of Brooklyn; Mr. Stuart Wood of Philadelphia; Mr. Lester F. Ward, Mr. W. F. Willoughby, Mr. G. K. Holmes of Washington.

The programme of the meeting was an essential departure from the ordinary practice of the Association, and in line with the tentative procedure of last year's meeting at Indianapolis. Of the six regular sessions held, but two were devoted to the presentation and criticism of formal papers. The introductory session was given to the president's address, and each of the remaining three to the discussion of a particular economic question of current interest, led by designated persons and thereafter open to general argument. The formulated theses of the first speaker appeared on the programme and shaped the course of subsequent discussion.

The association was pleasantly welcomed at the opening session on Monday evening (December 28), by President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University. The annual address of the President of the Association, Prof. Henry C. Adams of the University of Michigan, was an acute and suggestive paper on "The Relation of Economics to Jurisprudence." Its fundamental proposition was that much of the confusion in economic theory and of the discord in industrial life is due to inadequate expression by formal law of fundamental industrial rights. This maladjustment has been caused by the extraordinary industrial development of the past one hundred years. The individualism of the eighteenth century fails to express the moral necessities of the present industrial order. Further, the principle of responsibility, which is the cornerstone of English jurisprudence, is incapable of industrial application under existing industrial conditions. The remarkable contributions of President Adams's address were involved in the consideration of the essentials of industrial liberty, and of the proposition that there is no industrial liberty without industrial property. He assented to the latter assertion, but of the nature and quality of this property right the economist could not as yet, he thought, speak with precision. In all likelihood, it will rest upon a more perfect analysis of the productive process than the one which leads to the assertion that a man's possessions are the measure of what he or his ancestors added to the world's stock of wealth. It will recognize distinctly and formally the fact of social and associated production. Its clarification will take place through the evolution of collective bargaining and the formal labor contract. Finally, a characteristic of this evolution will be that increased stress will be laid upon the theory of industrial agency.

The discussion on Tuesday morning of the question, "Is there a Distinct Agricultural Question?" from which much had been expected, was perhaps the one disappointing feature of the meeting. This was due in large part to the enforced absence of all the proposed leaders of the discussion, namely, Prof. Bailey of Cornell University, Hon. George T. Powell, Director of Agricultural Institutes of Pennsylvania, and Hon. L. G. Powers of the Minnesota Bureau of Labor Statistics. It had also been hoped that Mr. Morton, Secretary of Agriculture, or Assistant Secretary Dabney might be present, but neither was able to attend.

The theses formulated by Prof. Bailey were to the effect that the transition from small to large holdings, the common system of unvaried cropping, the efflux of young people from the farms, are characteristics of a period of general industrial change, and that it is reasonable to anticipate, through the continued activities of new social, educational, and industrial forces, a radical improvement in the status of the agriculturist in the not remote future. The tenor of subsequent discussion was less optimistic. Substantial agreement was expressed that the extent of territory in the United States, and the corresponding variety of conditions, render impossible any broad generalization as to the actual status of the farmer. Yet the existence was freely admitted of acute agricultural distress in many sections of the country, remediable only by the slow process of economic readjustment. This was well set forth by Prof. E. R. A. Seligman of Columbia University, who emphasized the fact that this country is no longer the granary of the world. Depression of agricultural interests, he thought, must continue until our population has again caught up with subsistence, and we have possibly become, like England, a wheat-importing instead of a wheat-exporting nation.

The most important discussions of the meeting occurred on Wednesday. The topic of the morning session was: "What is the Present Direction of Acquisitive Investments, and what are the Economic Effects of such Investments?" Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, ex-Secretary of the Treasury, led the discussion, and called attention to the advantages and disadvantages of the savings bank as a place of such investments, and to the changes in savings-banks deposits since 1860. The system obviously makes saving easy, and accumulates capital for the benefit of the community. The word "deposits," and not "investments," in savings banks, however, indicates a serious evil of the system. In times of financial disturbance there is wont to be an unwarranted and premature withdrawal from the savings banks of deposited funds. Securities come on the market when it is not ready to take them, and thus funds, meritoriously accumulated and of considerable benefit to the community, become at such times a menace to all business interests. Mr. Fairchild raised the question whether it might not be better for deposits to be invested directly instead of through the savings banks, and discussed building and loan associations, life insurance, real-estate mortgages, stocks and securities of business enterprises as forms of such investments.

The discussion which followed dwelt on the need in this country of institutions in which persons of moderate means, depositing periodically certain sums, could find a safe investment, and yet could not withdraw at will. Productive enterprises organized in corporate form might reasonably be expected to satisfy this need; but the results of corporate mismanagement have been so disastrous to the small investor as to cause widespread hostility to such forms of investment, and to render savings banks almost the only "havens for frightened investors and shipwrecked entrepreneurs."

The afternoon discussion, on "The Duty of the Government toward the Investor," formed a natural sequel to the morning topic. Professor Arthur T. Hadley of Yale Univer-

sity led the discussion, and advanced the general proposition that the application to modern corporate business of legal traditions established in days of smaller industrial operations results in practices which, while not technically fraudulent, have an effect on the investor analogous to that of commercial frauds. Some of these practices can be prevented by statutes providing for publicity of accounts. Others can be prevented by the prohibition of directors' contracts. Neither of these interferences in behalf of the investor, Professor Hadley contended, would be likely to do any harm at all proportionate to the good to be expected from it. Still other evils can be prevented by imposing on the promoters of new enterprises a special liability, civil and criminal, for the correctness of their representations; and in this case also the balance of good over evil which might be expected from a change, though less clear than in the two former instances, seems sufficient to warrant a movement in its favor.

Doubt was expressed in the ensuing discussion as to the wisdom of governmental inspection, in that it served as a false guarantee to the investor, and in general undertook to do what could not possibly be accomplished. As to the expediency of greater clearness and publicity of accounts, legal procedure against fictitious capitalization, and liability of officers for the correctness of reports, there was a general agreement.

Currency and banking, which easily constituted the subjects of prime interest at last year's meeting, engaged very much less attention at the present gathering. Prof. W. A. Scott of the University of Wisconsin subjected "The Quantity Theory of Money" to a careful and thoroughgoing analysis. Prof. David Kinley of the University of Illinois described the results of his continued investigations into "The Use of Credit Instruments in Business," the details of which are embodied in the forthcoming report of the Comptroller of the Currency. From returns made by 5,530 banking establishments in the United States on July 1, 1896, it appears that 68 per cent. of retail and 95 per cent. of wholesale deposits are made in credit instruments. Allowance for various factors would reduce the percentage in retail trade to between 55 and 60, and leave that of wholesale trade unchanged. The results of this investigation were criticised in respect to retail trade, on the grounds that by no means adequate allowance had been made for (1) the smaller use of credit instruments in sections of the country where no banks exist; (2) the considerable proportion of trade receipts in currency, used for current expenditures and not appearing in the volume of bank deposits.

The remaining formal papers were presented at the sessions of Tuesday afternoon and Thursday morning. Prof. Roland P. Falkner of the University of Pennsylvania criticised the statistics of crime returned by the eleventh census, and urged that instead of enumerating the prison population, we should enumerate all the prisoners received in the United States in the census year. As chairman of the Committee on the Organization of the Census, appointed at the last annual meeting, Prof. Falkner also reported that the committee, acting jointly with a committee of the American Statistical Association, had addressed a memorial to Congress urging the establishment of a permanent census office. Prof. J. R. Commons of Syracuse University discussed the advantages of day labor over contract systems in municipal works. Mr. H. T. Newcomb of the United States Department of Agriculture reviewed the results of the Interstate Commerce act in the past decade, and Prof. Carl C. Plehn of the University of California described the operation of the general property tax in California.

A pleasant feature of the meeting was the social appointments which engaged the Association in the intervals between scientific sessions. An informal "smoker" in the rooms of the Department of History, Economics, and Politics on Monday night; luncheon in McCoy Hall on Tuesday and Wednesday; a reception by Mr. Theodore Marburg, chairman of the local committee, on Tuesday night; and a formal dinner by the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association on Wednesday night held the visiting members well together, and thus prevented what experience has shown to be a disadvantage of holding a scientific meeting in a large city.

The reports of officers and chairmen of committees showed the affairs of the Association to be in a very satisfactory condition. Prof. J. W. Jenks of Cornell University, who has filled the office of Secretary of the Association with marked acceptance for a term of years, was unable, through pressure of other duties, to accept reëlection, and was succeeded by Prof. W. F. Willcox of Cornell. The remaining officers of the Association were reelected without change. The selection of the place of the next annual meeting was referred as usual to the Executive Committee. In view of the fact that the American Historical Association and the Political Science Association of the Central States will meet in Cleveland in 1897, it is likely that the American Economic Association will select the same city. H.

CARTHAGE.

CARTHAGE, November 15, 1896.

OF all the famous sites of antiquity, there is, perhaps, none which displays to the curious traveller so few visible traces of its former wealth and greatness as does Carthage. Few, too, are there which have, in proportion to that wealth and greatness, yielded to recent exploration so little in the way of works of art or of inscriptions. The reasons of this are not far to seek. The city was twice utterly destroyed and laid waste in a systematic way; and such buildings, even the foundations of buildings, as escaped destruction have been ransacked to furnish columns, pieces of marble, and even stones for the erection not only of mosques, palaces, forts, but also of the houses of the peasantry. When Carthage ceased to be a city, she became a quarry, and, in the process of quarrying, even those things which were of little use for building elsewhere were broken or removed. What has survived is of great interest, and more may still be recovered, but the quantity will probably remain small when compared with what many a place in Italy or France of far less note has yielded.

Although, however, there is not at Carthage a single column standing erect to bear witness to a temple or a church—not even a wall rising four feet above the surface—the site is one of surpassing interest. It does not, indeed, present, what nearly all the other ancient seats of Phœnician or Greek settlement do, either a sheltered natural haven or a strong natural fortress. This is the traveller's first surprise. There is no land-locked harbor, like that of Piræus, or Byzantium, or Barcelona, or Tarentum, or like the Old Port at Marseilles. There is no craggy height, fitted for defence, like the Acropolis of Athens or of Taormina. The ports, of which the remains can still be seen, appear to have been artificial; and the hill of the citadel is neither very high nor very steep. Yet the situation has some remarkable features.

At the extremity of a peninsula stretching eight or ten miles into the Mediterranean, and connected with the mainland by a flat isthmus, across which the sea must once have flowed, there is a ridge of hills, forming a sort of semicircle some four miles long, with its convex turned toward the sea, and rising at its highest point to about 400 feet. The sea under the hills is deep, and sheltered from the northwest, the quarter whence most high winds come, while toward the land the neck of the peninsula, even now only some three miles wide, and two thousand five hundred years ago probably much narrower, makes the defence of a settlement upon the hills comparatively easy. It was at the southern extremity of this line of hills that the Tyrian founders of Carthage planted their settlement, and the last eminence or hummock toward the south became their citadel or Bozrah (for "Bozrah" seems to be the true Phœnician form of the word which the Greek and Roman authors have written Byrsa). This hummock rises about 200 feet above the sea, from which its base is a quarter of a mile distant. It is steep towards the sea on the east and the south, while sloping more gently towards the west. On it and around its base the city arose. The ports were excavated beneath it to the southeast, and were easily made large enough (the ground being partly alluvial and the rock soft) to contain a large fleet and many merchant vessels. Thus the position was both convenient and strong. The citadel defended the ports, and while the citadel was surrounded by a wall of its own, the city, stretching along the line of eminences to the north, had also an enclosing wall of its own, and thus gave a double protection to the citadel on the sides (north and west) where the acclivities were gentle.

So much is clear. The ports are still visible, though so decidedly smaller than the descriptions of ancient writers imply that some antiquaries suppose there existed another port, enclosed by moles projecting into the sea, which has since vanished. The remains of the amphitheatre have been unearthed in the lower ground at the western base of the hill. And as to the Bozrah itself, on whose summit stood in Punic times the temple of the great god Eshmun, and where probably stood also the residence of the Roman proconsul, afterward the palace of the Vandal kings, there is no question. But almost everything else is uncertain. Various spots have been suggested as the sites of the temples and churches and other public edifices mentioned by the ancient writers, but no data have yet been discovered sufficient to fix them. Even the direction of the walls and the extent of ground covered by the city are matters of controversy, so far as the evidence of the diggings goes. The ground area included in the compass of the city proper would appear to have been small (hardly more than a square mile) compared with its population, which is said to have at one time reached 700,000 or even a million. But probably there were large suburbs; and as the bulk of the population consisted of slaves, many might well be crowded into a small space.

Like the excavations at Hissarlik (which is

now generally admitted to be the site of Troy), the diggings at Carthage have disclosed four different periods of culture, represented by four sets of objects of art. Lowest of all are the sepulchres of the early Punic times, with a few rude pieces of pottery placed in them. Some of them recall the objects found at Mycenæ; and the shape of the tombs, rectangular holes cut in the soft rock, with two large stones set up at an angle over the top, has a Mycenæan touch, though nothing we now see at Carthage can be quite as old as the remains discovered at Mycenæ. Next above come the buildings and tombs and fragments of work of more recent Punic times, ending with the traces of burning which no doubt belong to the conflagration that ended the great siege of B C. 146, when Scipio Africanus the Younger took and destroyed the city. Next come the Roman remains of the pagan period, and last of all those which date from Christian times, between the beginning of the fourth and the end of the seventh century. The tombs we now see belong chiefly to the two first periods, and they are so numerous and cover so much ground, not only under the débris of the city proper, but in the adjoining country to the north and northwest, as to make Carthage seem in a double sense a city of the dead. There are inscriptions, Punic and Latin, from all periods, but neither so numerous nor so valuable as might have been expected. Those of Punic times are all, or nearly all, either sepulcbral or *ex-voto;* and are couched so nearly in the same words—a short prayer to the Lady Tanit or to Baal Ammon—that they do not greatly enlarge our knowledge of the Phœnician language. The fragments of pot tery and of statuary which belong to the Punic period, most of which are displayed in the little museum that the French Fathers have established on the spot, give a low impression of Carthaginian art and taste. They are monotonous in conception and rude in execution. Though the Carthaginians despoiled the Greek cities of Sicily of the beautiful works of art which adorned these cities, the possession of admirable models had apparently done little to improve their own artistic sense or to make more finished the execution of their workmen. Their art as well as their history stamps them as a hard, practical people, with little grace or refinement. They had horrible deities, vehement passions, a character and habits prone to cruelty and oppression. But they were a great race, bold, forcible, tenacious. When one thinks of the dominion which this one city, with perhaps only some thirty thousand men of Punic blood, won for herself and maintained for centuries over the shores and islands of the middle and western Mediterranean, one feels that on the political side they were no unworthy foes and rivals of the Greeks and of Rome herself.

The work of digging and exploring still goes on, but though it will probably clear up many topographical problems that are still obscure, there is little reason to think it will bring to light works of great artistic or historical value. The ground is covered for miles around the Bozrah with mounds and heaps of rubbish, and strewn with small fragments of pottery and Roman mortar. These shapeless and mutilated evidences of departed greatness are in their way quite as impressive as the shattered temples in the less utterly obliterated cities of Sicily. Their effect on the traveller's mind is hardly lessened by the erections with which the tasteless zeal of French ecclesiastics has recently defaced the summit of the citadel hill. Under Louis Philippe, the French Government placed upon the Bozrah a chapel to mark the spot where St. Louis is supposed to have expired, in his unfortunate crusade of A. D. 1270. It is a choice example of "carpenter's Gothic." More recently the late Cardinal Lavigerie, who rejoiced exceedingly in his title of Archbishop of Carthage and Primate of Africa, built a large cathedral on the same hilltop, a cathedral which is now the most conspicuous object in every view of the city site from a distance. It is a heavy structure, in which an unsuccessful effort has been made to combine Moorish features with twelfth-century Romanesque. I have never seen a more deplorable monument of misdirected energy, for Lavigerie was an able and restlessly active mind, giving to his plan for the recreation of Carthage as a great commercial and ecclesiastical centre what time he could spare from his projects for the expulsion of the English from Uganda and the extension of French influence over the whole of North Africa. Fortunately the French Government refused to sacrifice an existing Tunis for a possible future Carthage. The ports are not likely to be now reëxcavated and furnished with quays, for a canal has been dug through the shallow lagoon of Tunis from Goletta, long its seaport, to Tunis itself. The site of Carthage is likely to be left to those churches and convents which now crown it, and which, ill-placed as they are, do not really obscure its natural features or seriously impair the sense of desolation and solitude which it stamps upon the traveller's mind.

I have left to the last the most striking feature of this famous spot—its extraordinary natural beauty. As the position is strong for defence, with the sea environing it, as it is admirable for maritime empire, lying in the middle of the Mediterranean, with Sicily and Sardinia close at hand, half-way from the motherland of Tyre to the outermost Phœnician settlements on the edge of the ocean, so it rivals in the nobility of its landscape Constantinople or Corinth or Gibraltar. The hill of Bozrah is not lofty, but it rises so steeply from the sea, and commands so unbroken a prospect in every direction, except northeast (where it is overtopped by Sidi Bon Said, another eminence of the same chain of hills two miles away), that the view seems boundless over both land and sea. To the east there is the vast expanse of the Mediterranean, broken twenty-five miles off by the rocky isle of Zembra. To the southeast a long line of hills rises over the ample bosom of the Gulf of Tunis, running far out to the Fair Promontory, as the ancients called it, now Cape Bon. To the northwest, beyond the flat lands which the sea once covered, rise the gentler ridges where stand the lovely ruins of Utica, the elder sister of Carthage, the spot where Cato's death left Julius Cæsar master of all the Roman world except Spain. To the south and southwest three magnificent mountain groups successively arrest the eye and carry it far into the interior of Africa. Nearest, with its foot washed by the sea, is the double-peaked summit of Bon Kornein, the mountain of the two-horned Baal (Saturnus Baalcaranensis, as the Romans called him), where the ruins of his temple have been recently discovered. Further to the south is Jebel Resas, the Lead Mountain, among whose gorges the mercenary troops that revolted from Carthage and brought her almost to destruction after the First Punic War, were hemmed in and destroyed by famine and the sword. Furthest of all, and highest, is the magnificent pinnacle of Zaghwan, "Mons Zeugitanus," whence the Zeugitanian province took its name. In this peak rise the copious springs which, led by an aqueduct more than eighty miles in length, supplied Carthage with the purest water, and from its craggy top the view extends far away to the south, over plains once rich, but now mostly waste and desolate, almost to the verge of the Sahara. Immediately beneath the hill of Carthage is the narrow strip of land that divides the lagoon of Tunis from the sea, with Goletta, long a stronghold of the Moorish pirates, stormed by the Emperor Charles V., and again (after his troops had been withdrawn) the arsenal and fortress of the Beys, rising upon it at the point where a narrow channel gives access to the lagoon. And at the head of the lagoon, its smooth surface ruffled only by the flocks of pink-winged flamingoes that disport themselves in the sunshine, rise the minarets and cupolas of Tunis, glittering white across the blue waters, with line after line of hills seen behind it, growing dimmer and more delicate in their soft blue-gray tints till they sink beneath the western horizon on the borders of Numidia. As there are few more exquisite views in the world, so there are few which embrace a region more full of stirring and terrible events. For sixteen hundred years, down to the destruction of Carthage by the Arabs in A.D. 697, a fierce and strenuous life ebbed and flowed incessantly round this hill and on the plain that lies between it and Tunis. For twelve hundred years the hill has stood silent and melancholy as it stands now, and, in the words of Tasso,

> "Low lies proud Carthage; and the silent shore
> Keeps of her lordly ruins scarce a trace."

C. E.

Correspondence.

CERTIFICATES TO THE UNIVERSITY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent in last week's issue of the *Nation* on "How to Build up a University" might well have made the application of his excellent remarks much broader. California is only one portion of a large territory where the higher education is based upon some form of the certificate system of admission to the university. I think that I am correct in stating that not one university or college west of the State of New York admits students solely upon the test of examinations given by the university authorities and marked by them. The new University of Chicago opened its doors five years ago on a strict examination system such as Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and all the strong colleges of the East have maintained, but within the past year it has seen fit to modify its position to the extent of passing upon the papers prepared by teachers of "coöperating schools." Further changes in the direction of permitting teachers and principals of affiliated and coöperating schools to enter their pupils at the University without examination by the University may be expected.

Your correspondent aptly points out that no European university or college in the Eastern States would consider for one moment accepting candidates that had not passed the university matriculating examinations with credit. But in the United States, territorially at least, the certificate plan in some form is dominant. The university education of the Mississippi Valley and the West is based upon the uncertain foundation of the preparatory school,

which may send to the higher institution, without any direct check, whatever material it chooses. The argument used in support of this brand-new educational policy is that "the conditions of the West require very different methods in education from those of Europe or the East." Practically speaking, however, the certificate system is a device for securing numbers, and each university is forced to adopt it from competition with its easy-going rivals. Schools will not send students to be examined by the university: such a requirement on the part of the higher institution is considered insulting to the dignity of the school-teacher.

The educators of the West may have discovered a new principle in education, to be adopted by the sister institutions of the East and Europe, but, in the meantime, they should explain why the universities of the West are from one to three years behind Harvard, Yale, Pennsylvania, and others in their requirements for the bachelor's degree.

Faithfully yours,

UNIVERSITY INSTRUCTOR.

JANUARY 8, 1897.

"UNCONSTITUTIONAL."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In addition to the numerous instances of the early use of the term "unconstitutional" cited by Mr. Albert Matthews in your issue of December 24, 1896, it may be mentioned that "Novanglus" and "Massachusettensis" made frequent use of this term in their well-known debates in 1775. In his letter of January 9, 1775, "Massachusettensis" says: "I suspect that many of our politicians are wrong in their first principle, in denying that the constitutional authority of Parliament extends to the colonies." In his letter of February 20, 1775, "Novanglus" (John Adams) asks: "Does not this show how deeply rooted in all men's minds was the abhorrence of that unconstitutional power which was usurping over them?" And in his issue of January 30, 1775, "Novanglus" quotes from Gov. Bernard's statement of propositions applicable to the colonial situation, of July 11, 1764, as follows: "76. The grants of the powers of government to the American colonies by charters cannot be understood to be intended for other than their infant or growing states. 77. They cannot be intended for their mature state, that is, for perpetuity, because they are in many things unconstitutional and contrary to the very nature of a British Government."

JAMES OSCAR PIERCE.

MINNEAPOLIS, MINN., December 28, 1896.

Notes.

J. B. LIPPINCOTT CO. have nearly ready 'Two Health-Seekers in Southern California,' by Beatrice Harraden and Dr. Wm. A. Edwards.

Julius Hoffmann, Stuttgart (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), announces 'Deutsche Wappenrolle,' containing all the escutcheons, standards, flags, etc., of the German Empire, its federal States and ruling dynasties, with 131 illustrations in the text and 172 escutcheons and flags in 22 colored folio plates.

In a brilliantly covered volume published by Macmillan, Mrs. Anna Bowman Dodd tells the story of a trip 'On the [Norfolk] Broads' in a wherry. The curious network of tidal rivers and lakes between Yarmouth and Norwich constitutes one of England's playgrounds, and has often been described before, but never with a keener appreciation of its natural beauties; nor has any previous writer on the subject enjoyed the advantage of Mr. Joseph Pennell's illustrations to glorify the text. As a lover of nature Mrs. Dodd is one of the old school. She rejoices in the browsing cattle, not only because they are picturesque, but because they are "yellow, or white, or dun, according as Nature painted them, and not violet, or pink, or dark purple," as the impressionists would have us believe. When she leaves scenery and describes her fellow-travellers, she is less successful. The leading character is a gentleman named Renard, for whom she frequently claims the possession of that rare thing called Genius. Unfortunately, she gives us specimens of his "monologues" on a liberal scale, and they signally fail to substantiate so interesting a claim. Then, again, Mrs. Dodd's pages show too many signs of carelessness. We note "Galicia" for Gallia, and such phrases as "He plunged into it *medias res*"; "the plumage of some swans were dazzling," and so forth. But in spite of these blemishes the book is a pleasant one, and every married woman who reads it will be struck by the profound wisdom of the remark that "where plans and projects are under discussion," married men seem to have a peculiar and irresistible tendency to oppose everything!

Readers of the *Nation* require no introduction to Dr. P. H. Emerson, whose delightful books on the Fen country have given him an almost exclusive right to this territory, so far as description and illustration are concerned. 'Marsh Leaves' (London: David Nutt), the latest of Dr. Emerson's volumes, is entirely worthy of its author. The little prose sketches of scenery and character are, of course, of varying excellence, but the best of them are extremely pretty, and they all show a keen sense for quietly picturesque detail. For the exquisite "photo-etchings" no praise can be too high.

Mr. C. H. Herford's "Warwick Library" (London: Blackie; New York: Scribners), which already includes such attractive volumes as Mr. Vaughan's selections from English essays in literary criticism and Mr. Chambers's 'English Pastorals,' has a new number, 'English Essays,' prepared by Mr. J. H. Lobban. There are, according to the plan of the series, no notes to speak of, but there is a long introduction, in which an attempt is made to trace the history of English essay-writing from its beginnings to the present time. As was to be expected, Mr. Lobban is not strong in the "origins," but he appears to better advantage when he has once comfortably reached Defoe; and the whole paper is worth while, making no great pretensions, and performing more than it at first seems to promise. The essays which form the bulk of the volume are in the main well selected, but only ten pages are given to Defoe's.

Harper & Bros. publish in book form Moscheles's 'In Bohemia with Du Maurier,' the volume containing somewhat more matter and a greater number of illustrations than the article with the same title published in the *Century*. From their *Magazine* the same publishers have collected the series of drawings republished under the title of 'English Society.' Both books serve to remind us of a talent that, whatever its limitations and mannerisms, had a savor of its own. How good Du Maurier was as a draughtsman we are even more clearly made aware by looking at the pages of *Punch* since his death. How good he was as a writer, is the theme of Mr. Howells's introduction to the second of these volumes, and he performs his task gracefully, though he has to explain the triumph of that "confidential attitude" which he had once found fault with in Thackeray, and had predicted that the world would not now endure.

Henry & Co., London, send us 'The Pageant' for 1897, an annual the make-up of which reminds one of 'The Yellow Book' and 'The Savoy,' but the contributors to which, both literary and artistic, are of a much higher order of talent. Austin Dobson, Edmund Gosse, and Maeterlinck are among the former, and Gustave Moreau, Rossetti, Burne-Jones, Puvis de Chavannes, and Watts among the latter. Yet it cannot be denied that the ragout is somewhat *faisandé*, and has a high *fin-de-siècle* flavor. Much reading in such magazines or long gazing on some of their pictures tends almost to make one sympathize with Dr. Nordau, and call out for a more Philistine diet of bread and cheese and a cup of cold water.

Cook-books seem to gravitate towards the new year equally with almanacs, calendars, statesmen's year books, and other annuals. No fewer than four are on our table at this moment. 'The Majestic Family Cook-Book' of Adolphe Gallier (Putnams), is not the most pretentious, despite its title. It is a straightforward array of 1,300 selected recipes, and a few specimen bills of fare, without illustrations. 'The Cook-Book of "Oscar" [Tschirky, maître d'hôtel] of the Waldorf' (Chicago and New York: The Werner Co.) is a sumptuous quarto, elegant in its typography, and numbering 879 pages of text and 27 of index. It, too, is free from superfluities of any kind, and is unillustrated. The binding implies handling elsewhere than in the kitchen. Marion Harland and Christine Terhune Herrick unite in a 'National Cook-Book' (Scribners) for which their names are a guarantee of excellence. It has a nursery table, and a curiosity of contrasted menus in an English, a French, a German, and an Italian dinner respectively. It is well made for serviceability. Finally, we fairly have a gift-book in Margaret Huntington Hooker's 'Ye Gentlewoman's Housewifery,' a dainty volume pleasantly archaic in the style of its instructions, and with many household suggestions apart from the table. The contents altogether are avowedly gathered from the scrap-books of a past generation, and are perhaps none the worse for that, as they must needs make for simple living.

It seems to be a difficult matter to reduce modern meteorology to elementary form. Davis's 'Meteorology' is elementary only in name, and is suited to colleges rather than to schools. Waldo's 'Elementary Meteorology,' recently published by the American Book Co., is condensed rather than simplified, but comes distinctly nearer to school needs than Davis's. The book may be depended on as a correct statement of the modern aspects of its science; but as a presentation of the subject it leaves something to be desired from the teacher's standpoint. The order of chapters places the simpler phenomena of temperature, pressure, winds, moisture, and precipitation in the first 160 pages; then follow the same number of pages on the general and secondary circulation, local winds, and weather and climate. An inductive order of treatment is attempted, but with too frequent or too early return to deduction. The chapter on temperature, for example, does not open with an

elementary statement of facts that call for generalization and explanation, but with a very much condensed physical explanation of heat, conduction, radiation; it then takes up solar heat and radiation, the orbital motion of the earth, and allied topics; next comes an account of thermometers and methods of observation; and not till fifteen pages have been passed are actual temperatures considered. The essentially difficult problem of the general circulation is not reduced to elementary form. It is doubtful if it can be so reduced. The book will, from its compactness, promote the study of meteorology better than any other now on the market.

Mrs. Elizabeth W. Latimer's 'Italy in the Nineteenth Century' (Chicago: McClurg) is one of those compilations of historical gossip which a certain class of readers mistake for history. It is, perhaps, too much to expect that gossip should be accurate, but certainly, where an author quotes very freely, often more than a page, from other works, at least their titles should be cited. Mrs. Latimer, however, usually appropriates without even giving credit. She has a provoking way of paraphrasing speeches, and of printing them with quotation marks, as if they were literally authentic. A single instance will illustrate her method; it refers to Charles Albert's memorable interview with Massimo d'Azeglio in 1845. "The sad face of the King suddenly brightened," she says, "his eyes flashed, and, seizing D'Azeglio's hand, he whispered in a low tone, as if afraid he might be overheard, 'Marquis, tell your friends that, when the hour comes, I will stake my crown, my life, and the lives of my sons for Italian independence!' Then, as if terrified at having said so much, he hastily withdrew" (p. 101). Now, D'Azeglio tells us nothing about having his hand seized by the King, or that sudden brightening of the eyes, or the dramatic whisper. He says that Charles Albert looked him straight in the eyes, and said calmly, but resolutely, "'Tell those gentlemen [the Liberals in Central Italy] to stay quiet and not to move, as there is for the present nothing to be done; but assure them that when the opportunity offers, my life, the life of my sons, my arms, my treasures, my army, shall all be spent for the Italian cause.'" And instead of slinking away as if frightened at what he had said, Charles Albert dismissed D'Azeglio in that dignified manner which any one who really knew his character would recognize as inevitable. (Compare D'Azeglio: 'I Miei Ricordi,' ii., 462-3). Is it worth while to write even "popular" history without greater regard for fact? The book has more than a score of half-tone portraits which give it real interest. We need not point out misprints and inaccuracies of dates, etc.; it is enough to remark that they begin on the title-page, where the solecism "Aus*tro* Hungary" appears in large type.

Sig. Tommaso Caivano, to whose work on Guatemala we called attention a year ago, has recently issued a similar volume on Venezuela (Milan: Hoepli), whither he went immediately after President Cleveland's message on the boundary dispute. Three-fifths of this book is devoted to a rapid and interesting historical sketch of Venezuela—a proportion which does not seem exorbitant in view of the fact that it embraces the exploits of Bolivar, Sucre, and Páez, the chief heroes of Spanish America. Sig. Caivano's descriptions of the natural beauties of Venezuela have a freshness that reminds one of De Amicis. Possibly it is because the modern Italians are not jaded with travel that they can write thus enthusiastically. Of the resources, whether mineral or agricultural, of Venezuela Sig. Caivano holds so high an opinion that he urges his compatriots to immigrate thither as strongly as he urged them to keep away from Guatemala. He reviews very favorably the state of education, finances, and public order, and believes that the Government has at last attained a stability which is not likely to be upset by revolution. In a final chapter he discusses the dispute with England over the frontier, and concludes, chiefly on Venezuelan and Spanish evidence, that England's claims rest on no sufficient basis. Throughout his work he confirms his statements by references to original authorities, many of which can hardly be procured in our libraries. The value of having such an account of the Spanish-American republics from an intelligent European need hardly be pointed out, for recent events have led us to expect that our Government cannot be withheld from meddling on slight provocation in the affairs of our neighbors, and it is all the more important that we should be well informed about them.

Prof. F. Ascherson's "Deutscher Universitäts Kalender," lately issued for the fiftieth time by Leonhard Simion in Berlin, gives the number of matriculated students in German universities during the summer semester of 1896 as 29,802, making an increase of 993 over the corresponding semester of 1895. This increase was in the following universities, the figures in brackets showing last year's attendance: Berlin 4,649 [4,265], Munich 3,777 [3,662], Leipzig 2,876 [2,788], Bonn 1,863 [1,760], Breslau 1,425 [1,407], Göttingen 1,007 [879], Marburg 965 [952], Greifswald 948 [879], Jena 761 [730], Giessen 630 [568], Rostock 500 [413], and the Academy of Münster 448 [409]. The following nine universities show a decrease: Halle 1,415 [1,465], Freiburg 1,379 [1,472], Würzburg 1,339 [1,342], Tübingen 1,172 [1,241], Heidelberg 1,164, [1,252]. Erlangen 1,138 [1,154], Strassburg 938 [986], Kiel 708 [749], and Königsberg 700 [756]. The statistics of collective attendance during the past five years show that the number of students in the philosophical department has steadily increased more than 24 per cent., and in the law department nearly 17 per cent., while the attendance in the medical department has varied with an increase of 270 in 1894, a decrease of 323 in 1895, and an increase of 101 in 1896. Students of Protestant theology, on the other hand, have steadily decreased nearly 30 per cent., and during the past year there has been a slight diminution in the number of Catholic students of theology. It should be stated, however, that Prof. Ascherson's University Calendar does not include the Lyceum Hosianum, a Catholic institution in Braunsberg (Prussia), with a philosophical and theological faculty and about forty students.

Sophie van Adelung's "Jugenderrinerungen an Sophie Kowalewsky," in the *Rundschau* for December, are valuable as a supplement to the Leffler-Cajanello biography; but these intimate reminiscences are fascinating reading by themselves. They are from the pen of a near relative and friend in childhood and girlhood who "knew the bud out of which the flower was to develop"; but they embrace also episodic incidents of the famous woman mathematician's mature life. Being told with a spirit both loving and discerning, they reveal to us a very original and very attractive personality. There is furthermore found in these pages interesting information concerning the mathematical endowment of some of Ssofa's maternal ancestors (Ssofa, not Sonya, is the abbreviation of Sophia by which the girl was always called in the family). Her grandfather, a second lieutenant at fifteen, was at that early age charged with astronomical observations on the White Sea. The early life on the vast family estate, so vividly pictured in the letters embodied in the article, must also have exerted its influence upon Ssofa's later development. The father's name, for some reason given as Ivan Sergeyevitch in the biography, was Vassili Vassilyevitch Korvin-Krukovskoy.

M. de Vogüé begins, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for December, a story, "Jean d'Agrève," to which lovers of French fiction of the more serious kind will thank us for calling their attention. There are pages in this first instalment whose rhythm and melancholy are those of Chateaubriand, and the story is sufficiently advanced to insure the gravity of the plot.

The *Critic* has concluded upon a monthly compilation from its own columns to be called "The *Month* in Literature, Art and Life," with the customary illustrations. The January number is before us, and enters the field with the *Bookman* and the *Bookbuyer*. On the other hand, the weekly *Outlook* adopts the octavo form (with cover) of the monthlies.

On January 15 the *Chap-Book* is to be enlarged "to the size of the English weekly reviews, and to begin at once the publication of criticisms of important new books"—these in addition to stories, poems, and essays, as heretofore, with pictures.

—A part of the price that we have to pay for our confederate form of government consists of the difficulties that it puts in the way of the collection of statistics. We have before us a volume published by royal authority containing the civil judicial statistics for England and Wales, and it is a natural impulse to institute comparisons between English and American conditions. But for the most part we of this country have few trustworthy data of this kind, and we must content ourselves with vague generalizations. The first impression which these statistics give is that the English are an extremely litigious people, for on the average there is one case in court every year for every 24 inhabitants, or say one for every five families. These are only civil cases; were the figures of the criminal courts added, the numbers would be even more startling. On the other hand, by far the greater part of these cases are in inferior courts and involve trifling sums; less than 7 per cent. of the proceedings originating in the High Court. The total amounts involved in litigation are, however, not large; assuming the total income of the country at the moderate sum of £1,200,000,000, only about one-third of one per cent. is ordered transferred in the course of litigation. This, we must remark, is exclusive of the chancery division. Through the Probate Court there passes £150,000,000 every year, and it may surprise some Americans to learn that the validity of wills is seldom contested; only 113 judgments in such cases being given in 1894, while the number of estates was almost 60,000. The thrift of the English people is shown by the fact that an estate was administered for every ten deaths, or at least one for every five adults, whether male or female; savings-banks deposits to the amount of £100 not requiring administration. It would seem that our ideas concerning costs in the English courts are exaggerated; Mr. Mac-

donell, who prepares these statistics, considers that £80 would be the average per case, in the Queen's Bench Division, including lawyers' fees. Even so it cost £200,000 to get judgments for £500,000. In the county courts the average amount claimed is only £3, and the costs and fees were at the rate of 7 shillings for every pound recovered.

—The figures under the Bankruptcy Act are very confused, owing to statutory changes; but it is evident that the number of insolvents has diminished of recent years in proportion to population, and that the amount lost has also diminished in proportion to the total capital of the community. Probably the most interesting figures are those relating to divorce. When the divorce court was first opened, the number of divorces increased rapidly, but recently it has been stationary. There are more petitions for divorce and fewer for separation; the former being usually employed by men, the latter by women. Even now there are six times as many petitions for separation as for divorce, and the number of wives' petitions is to that of husbands as 93.6 is to 6.4. Only about two-thirds of these applications are finally allowed by the court, a much lower proportion than in some other countries—France, for example. M. Bertillon has asserted that only rich people can afford to get divorces in England, but Mr. Macdonell shows that the costs are nearly the same as in France—about £30. In France, on the other hand, almost half the applicants are assisted by the court on their plea of poverty. Whatever the cause may be, there are now every year in France for every 1,000 marriages 28 suits for divorce, while in England there are only 2.4. In 37 per cent. of the English cases in 1894 there were no children of the marriages. Upon the whole, Mr. Macdonell's tables give a favorable impression of the administration of justice in England.

—Mr. Poultney Bigelow has republished, in two volumes, under the title of 'The German Struggle for Liberty' (Harper & Bros.), the articles which he recently contributed upon this subject to *Harper's Magazine*. In book form, the chapters seem even more patchy and sketchy than they did while appearing in monthly instalments. They are, in fact, a bundle of more or less vividly related episodes from the history of the German war of liberation, strung together without any very clear perception of historical proportion. It is in no sense a history, but it is none the less pleasant reading of its sort, and is free from the glaring blunders into which writers without historical training are apt to fall. Mr. Bigelow makes no attempt to be impartial. His hero is the Prussian people in its revolt against Napoleon's domination, though he gives full meed of praise to the men who roused and organized the heroic struggle, to Stein and Scharnhorst, to Blücher and Gneisenau, and to Arndt, Körner, and Father Jahn. Mr. Bigelow has followed Prof. Freeman's example and visited every spot of which he makes mention in the course of his story, and these visits give a personal and subjective touch to his chapters which is perhaps the most attractive feature of the book. Most of these visits seem to have been made in his canoe, and it is with some justice that he pays a tribute to his boat in his quaint dedication, stating that "without her this book would never have been written." The text is profusely illustrated from drawings by R. Caton Woodville, the well-known English painter of battle scenes. But the same fault may be found with these illustrations as with those in the more sumptuous 'Life of Napoleon' by Prof. Sloane, that they lack actuality. Among these fancy pictures, however, are some fine reproductions of contemporary portraits, which worthily supplement Mr. Bigelow's graphic descriptions of his leading characters.

—Coleridge's opinion that "it would be a fine national custom to act such a series of dramatic histories [as is afforded by the English chronicle plays] in orderly succession" seems to have suggested Thomas Donovan's 'English Historical Plays' (Macmillan), "arranged [in two volumes] for acting, as well as for reading"—a publication, however, which makes its appeal rather to the stage manager than to the reader. It is, of course, a convenience to have the chief English chronicle plays of Shakspere and of his contemporaries, which treat the dramatic events in the reigns of England's sovereigns in nearly unbroken succession from the last half of the thirteenth century to the middle of the sixteenth, printed in their chronological sequence, but, fortunately or unfortunately, Mr. Donovan's ideas of an editor's privileges are those of the eighteenth century improvers of Shakspere's text, or of the modern acting manager; and what he offers us is not the pure text of the Elizabethan plays, but that text adapted to the supposed exigencies of the modern stage. With perfect frankness the editor tells us the changes which he has adopted. Peele's "Edward I." is reduced to about a third of its original length; "Henry IV." is compressed into a single play, as is Heywood's "Edward IV."; the three parts of "Henry VI." have been recast and the dénouements transposed; while "Henry VIII." "ends with Queen Katherine's death, its true dramatic climax." The difficulties arising from too frequent changes of scene, which are met on the modern stage by the foreshortened drop, or in Germany by the arrangement known as the "Shakspere Bühne," have been overcome by Mr. Donovan by "the elision of redundant and unimportant scenes," whereby "nearly one hundred changes of scene have been suppressed in fourteen plays," and by "a new division of acts and scenes" whereby "nearly all the battles are now fought between the acts, and therefore out of sight." This is magnificent, but it is not literature. We do not deny the claim, Better thus represented than not at all, but in their printed form dramatic texts so improved are obviously not designed for the closet.

—It is a pleasant Continental custom, well worthy of imitation elsewhere, and not wholly unknown in this country, to celebrate an anniversary or an event in the life of an eminent teacher by a collection of essays on subjects connected with his teaching. The latest example of this comes to us in the shape of a comely volume of 'Études d'histoire du Moyen Âge, dédiées à Gabriel Monod,' on the occasion of this scholar's election to the presidency of the section of historical and philological science in the École Pratique des Hautes-Études. The dedication of the work is signed by former pupils, a numerous list, in which we find the names of nearly all the men who are bringing the modern French historical school on a level with that of Germany—Hanotaux, Eugène Hubert, the Moliniers, Weil, Giry—and it is a pleasure to see in the distinguished group one of our compatriots, Prof. Gross of Harvard. So large a proportion of the hundred and fifty scholars who have joined in this graceful tribute occupy professorial chairs in institutions of learning that it is not easy to reckon the extent to which the influence of M. Monod's teaching will penetrate among the rising generation of French students, or the results which it will ultimately accomplish. What this means is well indicated by an introductory letter addressed to M. Monod by his friend and fellow-student Ernest Lavisse, contrasting the methods of instruction to which they were subjected in their youth with those now in vogue, the introduction of which is largely attributed to M. Monod's efforts.

—In the old days the professor delivered a series of dreary discourses, in which he endeavored to convey in compact form the history of the world, or of an age, or of a nation—a crude compilation of facts, to burden the memory or to be forgotten, as the case might be—without exciting his hearers to think or to use their own brains. A legitimate outcome of the system was an essay, which M. Lavisse half confesses to have written, on the Laws of the Barbarians, without having read those laws, which he would not have understood had he attempted the task. In marked contrast with this is the modern method, in accordance with which the teacher, surrounded by a group of earnest workers, instructs them in the mysteries of palæography and diplomatics, or shows them how to investigate and elucidate passages in documents and chronicles, teaching them, not barren facts, but how to work and think for themselves, taking nothing for granted, but analyzing and comparing the sources of history with resolute determination to find the truth or the nearest approximation to it. The fruitfulness of the new system is well exhibited in the series of essays composing this volume. Of these there are thirty-one, each a brief and compact investigation into some doubtful point connected with mediæval history. It is all serious work, not glittering generalities whose coruscations serve to conceal the superficial knowledge of the writer. Naturally France occupies the larger space, but scientific training has overcome the particularism which so long seemed to identify the French horizon with the boundaries of the nation, and these studies cover a wide field in both time and space. One of the most interesting, in fact, is an inquiry, by Ch. Petit Dutaillis, into the connection between Wickliffe's itinerant priests and the rising of 1381 under Wat Tyler.

—The Crawford Collection of Charters and Documents, edited by Napier and Stevenson, in the 'Anecdota Oxoniensia' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is the most satisfactory specimen of English philological scholarship that we have seen of late. The number of charters is not large, only nineteen, but some of them are here edited for the first time, and all are valuable and interesting. The most interesting, perhaps, is No. vii., the Anglo-Saxon letter from Dunstan to King Æthelred concerning lands in Cornwall. According to the editors, it is probably a (contemporary) copy of the original, dated between 980 and 988. It is interesting, not only as a peculiarly happy expression of simple epistolary business style, but also for its bearing upon a vexed question in English ecclesiastical history. Scarcely inferior in interest is No. ix., the will of Leofwine, son of Wulfstan, from the circumstance that Wulfstan is one of the heroes in the well-known poem on Brihtnoth's Death, otherwise

called the 'Battle of Maldon.' Most of the charters relate to the monastery of Crediton. In all, the editors have printed 35 pp. of text and 131 of notes (including 15 of index). The ratio of notes to text may seem excessive to the ordinary student; but every one who has attempted to struggle with Early English diplomatics will congratulate himself upon the possession of such a volume. The editors have poured forth the richest treasures of linguistic and historical erudition, gathered from far and near. Literally, they have neglected nothing that might throw light upon their texts. From their conscientious labors the diligent student will gain a profound and novel insight into Old English affairs. We express the earnest wish and hope that the editors may not desist from their labors, their *mission*, in the truest sense of the term, but will give us, what we sorely need, an exhaustive study of the ill-digested mass of documents in Kemble, Birch, and Sweet.

THE JESUIT RELATIONS.

The Jesuit Relations, and Allied Documents. Travels and Explorations of the Jesuit Missionaries in New France. 1610–1791. Edited by Reuben Gold Thwaites. Vol. I. Acadia: 1610–1613. Vol. II. Acadia: 1612–1614. Cleveland: The Burrrows Brothers Co. 1896.

In 1854 the Parliament House of the United Canadas at Quebec was burned, and with it perished a wealth of documents relating to the Jesuits in North America. To repair in part the damage thus wrought, the Canadian Government issued in 1858 three thick octavos containing the Cramoisy series of Relations, eked out by a little supplementary material. The students chiefly intrusted with the task of editing were the Abbés Ferland, Laverdière, and Plante. The preface of this 1858 reprint begins by stating that, after the fire, "quelques amis de notre histoire désespéraient de retrouver jamais réunis tous les volumes des *Relations des Jésuites* qui ont rapport à la Nouvelle-France; d'autres, plus confiants, croyaient qu'un sentiment de patriotisme finirait par engager quelque éditeur à réédifier ce monument historique de nos ancêtres." Cramoisys were even then of the rarest, and students of Canadian history were beginning to realize the indispensable character of the Jesuit Relations. The result of some agitation at Quebec was that patriotism and antiquarian interest succeeded in bringing out a new edition of the work, which was good so far as it went, but which was manifestly incomplete. Now, after a lapse of more than forty years from the fire referred to, the Jesuit Relations are being published in proper and perhaps final form. The present series shows once again how signal has been the victory of New England over New France. The patriotism of the French Canadians is not the corner-stone upon which this large and important undertaking is based, but the historical curiosity of the English. Our modern zeal for every department of Americana is seldom disclosed more clearly than by the issue of these sixty sumptuous volumes. Mr. Thwaites and his assistants do, of course, rear a monument to the Jesuit heroes and martyrs, but one cannot doubt that their primary aim is to extend the borders of American history.

The Jesuit Relations are on many grounds worthy of the affectionate and solicitous care shown by their latest editor and his generous publishers. They are a revelation of religious enthusiasm, invincible ardor, and self-effacing modesty. They put this continent in touch with a great European movement, the Catholic Reaction. They are our surest source of information concerning the habits of savage life and the character of savage society. They furnish some political and much geographical information. Finally, their authenticity is unquestioned. It is not pretended that every letter written by a Jesuit on this continent, from the coming of Father Biard to the death of Father Well, a period of 180 years, has been found and printed. Sixty volumes would not contain one-quarter of their correspondence. But the best was culled by the local Superior, sent to the Provincial at Paris, and printed for him at the press of Stephen Cramoisy between 1632 and 1673. Immediate popularity attended their issue. The volumes were read almost out of their covers by the faithful who provided funds for the mission. Fresh and sometimes unauthorized editions appeared in both France and in Italy. Then, with the waning of Jesuit influence in the last half of the eighteenth century, the Relations drop out of sight. Two circumstances have contributed to secure their revival: the growth of historical interest, and the return of the Jesuits to America. During the past forty years half-a dozen additions of various kinds have been made to the contents of the Cramoisy series. This new edition embraces everything that has appeared, and marshals much fresh material besides. Mr. Thwaites has been aided by one especially serviceable friend. "The Reverend Arthur E. Jones, S.J., archivist of St. Mary's College, Montreal, from the first opened his heart to this enterprise, and has not only given us *carte blanche* to ransack his priceless stores, but has contributed invaluable suggestions and data, almost without number." The Lenox Library comes second in the list of acknowledgments.

We have attempted to indicate the many-sided importance of the Jesuit Relations. Historians of the Old World and of the New World can draw upon them alike. If one cares little about the missionary features of the narrative, he may still find it full of historical or ethnological merit. For our own part, we prefer primarily to look at this attempt to convert the savages from the standpoint of the men who were engaged in it, rather than with a view to securing incidental information. The joy revealed over the baptism of a single wretched half-dead Huron or Algonkin ought to have an inspiring influence upon one, even if he does not believe that the Indian was especially benefited by the rite. The whole field of biography may be ransacked from one end to the other without disclosing greater moral courage and physical fortitude than was shown by Brébeuf during the hours of his martyrdom. Nor must it be forgotten that many of these missionaries prolonged a living death through year after year and in the teeth of failure. While their brethren in Paraguay were sweeping 300,000 natives within the fold, the Canadian Jesuits led a forlorn hope against the barbarism of unteachable races. The story has all the romance of a fight against overwhelming odds, or even against the forces of nature.

Perinde ac cadaver might have been chosen by Mr. Thwaites for the motto of this series. Traces of complaint or of rebellious will never appear, and if, in reading the letters, we are apt to underestimate the degree of obedience required, it is only because their consuming enthusiasm gives the missionaries the aspect of independent pioneers. Acquaviva, Vitelleschi, Caraffa, even the shade of Loyola himself, are thrown into the background; yet the training of the Spiritual Exercises and the commands of the General lurk behind the deeds and sacrifices of Le Jeune, Garnier, Jogues, Lalemant, and Brébeuf. One can adjust the bearings of the Jesuit Relations only by regarding them as the record of a single phase in the history of that movement which began at the siege of Pampeluna, and which was not terminated with the suppression of the order in 1773. The perseverance of the advance guard against the heathenism of America is paralleled by the perseverance of the advance guard against the heresy of Europe. The animating impulse is the same in both cases. The Society of Jesus is an organism; its extremities must be examined as well as its torso. The history of New France, much more than that of New England, depends for interest on its European affiliations, and among these the Jesuit missionary movement stands out first.

The initial attempt of the fathers of the black robe to secure a foothold on this continent was made in 1611, when Biard and Massé landed at Port Royal in Acadia. At the outset they encountered two great obstacles, the difficulties presented by the Indian language and the rivalry of the English. They moved in 1613 to Mount Desert, and might have accomplished something among the well-disposed Abenakis had not the descent of Argall destroyed both colony and mission. A second attempt was similarly foiled by political reasons. Champlain brought over the Récollets in 1614, and reinforced them, as their numbers were depleted, by Jesuits. Brébeuf and Anne de Nouë, after receiving some rudimentary instruction in the Huron tongue, went to the field which had been abandoned by Le Caron, Viel, and Sagard. Brébeuf's first residence among the Hurons lasted three years. He had just returned to Quebec when Kirk's expedition broke up the colony and suspended French activity in America until after the treaty of St.-Germain-en-Laye. The Jesuits withdrew with the feeling that though their work had twice been interrupted by accidental causes, the chances of evangelistic success were good. They hastened to return when the English flag had been hauled down from the battlements of St. Louis. On July 5, 1632, Paul Le Jeune and Anne de Nouë landed at Quebec and laid the foundation of that celebrated residence, Notre Dame des Anges.

It cannot be urged that the Jesuits, during the period of their third attempt to convert the North American Indian, failed through the lack of a fair opportunity. They mastered the language difficulty which had been so great an obstacle to their predecessors. They entered all the principal nations, and ministered to them during times of pestilence and famine when, it might be supposed, the hearts of men would be most touched. Their French extraction and connections gave them a hearing and a toleration which would often have been denied to isolated individuals. They left no stone unturned which duty, heroism, and skill could move, and they were supported by whatever religious enthusiasm the Catholic France of Richelieu's era possessed. They were simply defeated by the ferocity and unteachableness of the Indians themselves. Beneath the strong light of the Jesuit Relations, Chateaubriand's idealized red man, and even Cooper's less extravagant type, vanish into thin air.

Le Jeune, the first Superior of Notre Dame des Anges, began his own efforts with the Montagnais branch of the Algonquins. In October, 1633, he set out for the Lake St. John

region with a roving band, and shared all its sufferings for six months. He sought to mollify the sorcerer of the tribe by praise and friendship, "which I threw to him as a bait whereby I might catch him in the net of truth." When the inevitable famine came, he erected a crucifix and a reliquary, and sent the hunters off with his blessing. Yet when they returned with game, they made bold to hint that they were not to be deceived by the fallacy of *post hoc ergo propter hoc*, and in their brutality excluded Le Jeune from their supper. He was the universal butt and accomplished next to nothing. Shaken in health, he was glad to reach Quebec alive.

While Le Jeune was pursuing the Montagnais in their Northern wanderings, three of his brethren were beginning the most notable of Jesuit campaigns in North America. During the summer of 1633 it had been resolved to attack once more the district which the Récollets had deserted, and in which Brébeuf alone had met with enough success to warrant the renewal of a mission. Lalemant five years later styled this Huron country "une des principales fortresses et comme un donjon des Démons." It held out, besides the allurements of a forlorn hope, the promise of far-reaching usefulnesss among tribes that were kindred to and partially dependent on the Hurons. Brébeuf himself, Daniel, and Davost were the three missionaries selected to lead the charge. After a year of linguistic studies they attached themselves in 1634 to the returning fur-fleet of the year, and travelled 900 miles from Three Rivers before they reached the settlements where they were to endure so much.

Parkman, whose sympathy with the heroic was very marked, mastered the details of the Huron mission and presented them to the general reader in permanent form. The means used by the Jesuits were crude, but well adapted to circumstances. Some of their contrivances to win the credence of the savages remind one of the villain's wiles in Stevenson's 'Beach of Falesà.' In place of the Æolian harp one has here a clock, a magnet, a microscope, and a prism. After the clock had struck its last stroke a father would cry "Stop," and the beholders marvelled at his superhuman power. Withal, converts came slowly, for the Hurons could not get over the difference between themselves and the French. The Christian God, they admitted, answered admirably for the latter, but was not susceptible of translation to the wilderness. Presents were accepted with alacrity; converts came slowly. A few dying infants were baptized, and unction was given to an occasional adult who was *in articulo mortis*. After three years the number of proselytes was only 100, and the braves laid the ravages of smallpox at the missionaries' door. Even the sound advice which the Jesuits gave in many practical matters connected with the war against the Iroquois (advice sometimes accepted, as in the case of fort construction), availed them little. After fifteen years of fair trial, the mission was already a proved failure when the Huron race perished under the tomahawk of the Five Nations in 1649. With the fall of St. Ignace, followed on March 16 by the torture and death of Brébeuf and Lalemant, the most dramatic incident of the Jesuit Relations ends.

Distinctly second in interest to the Huron mission, but still of great historical importance, are the missions to the Iroquois and to the Ottawas. The first of these fields was not abandoned till 1687, and the second not till 1781, eight years after the promulgation of the brief *Dominus ac Redemptor* which suppressed the Jesuit Order. The outstanding hero of the Iroquois mission is Isaac Jogues, tortured by the Mohawks in 1642, and murdered by them on his return to the region of Lake George in 1646. He was rescued by the Dutch from the hands of his tormentors, and returned in a mutilated condition to France, to be idolized by all devotees within the circle of Jesuit influence, including even Anne of Austria and her maids of honor. He could be persuaded to remain at home only three months. A consuming enthusiasm drove him back to the wilderness and its fiendish denizens. The seventeenth century presents few contrasts more strking than that of Anne of Austria kissing the lacerated fingers of Isaac Jogues. The Ottawa mission, at present best known through Marquette, is to receive fresh illustration during the progress of this series by the publication of his last journal, which has long been preserved in manuscript by the Jesuits of St. Mary's College, Montreal.

The Relations themselves are of very unequal historical merit. The fathers were so concerned about the spiritual condition of their converts that they become prolix in describing both morbid and healthy symptoms. The following headings from a Relation of 1640 show how religious pathology comes in: "Des Sauvages baptisez, et des bonnes actions de cette nouvelle Église." "Continuation du mesme discours." "Continuation du mesme sujet." "Continuation des actions de nos nouveaux Chrestiens." "De la bonne disposition de quelques Sauvages non encore baptisez." "De la providence de Dieu au choix de quelques uns et au rebut de quelques autres." "De l'espérance qu'on a de la conversion de plusieurs Sauvages." Many things which were of vital moment to the missionaries are incidental matters to us, while what they regarded as the incidental conditions of their work are matters of vital moment to the modern historian. Concerning the value of these letters to the ethnologist there can be no two opinions. Parkman covers the ground in a single sentence when he says: "With regard to the condition and character of the primitive inhabitants of North America, it is impossible to exaggerate their value as an authority."

Some months ago, in referring to the project of this new edition, we indicated its monumental character and the care taken to render it in every way worthy of its subject. The first of the sixty volumes quite equals our expectation in respect to both editing and printing. Mr. Thwaites's general introduction is admirable; succinct, yet comprehensive. The translation is exact without being awkward. In a word, the editors and the public have every reason to expect the fortunate conclusion of a great task. The opening volume deals with the Acadian Mission from 1610 to 1613. Lescarbot's "Conversion des Sauvages" and the seven other pieces which accompany it form a prelude to the more crowded action of the years succeeding Le Jeune's establishment at Notre Dame des Anges. The two last, "Canadicæ Missionis Relatio" and "De Regione et Moribus Canadensium," are not contemporary with the rest. Their author, Father Joseph Jouvency, wrote at the beginning of the eighteenth century about the Acadian mission and Indian characteristics. His Latin is very tolerable and has been well Englished by Mr. Giese and Mr. Wolcott.

Mr. Thwaites asks for suggestions, and we hasten to make one. In order to secure perfect accuracy of reproduction the editor follows earlier usage in putting *Les Relations des Jésuites* at the head of every page. This tells the reader nothing, whereas *Lescarbot, Biard*, etc., would catch the eye and facilitate reference. Librarians, especially, would thank Mr. Thwaites if he made his headlines indicate the nature of the contents. We have found no inaccuracies worth mentioning in the first volume. One misplaced grave accent on p. 42 and a slight misapprehension in the map as to the true source of the St. Francis River are the merest trifles. Mr. Thwaites appears to us to underestimate the Huron population in the statement that it "numbered about 16,000 souls." Brébeuf, writing in 1635, places it at 30,000. "Il y a vingt Bourgades, qui disent environs trente mille âmes, sous une mesme langue, et encore assez facile à qui a quelque maistre." However, the question is difficult to determine.

Three of the four documents in the second volume relate to Poutrincourt's colony at Port Royal, and the other is a general account of Jesuit experiences in 1613 and 1614, including a description of Argall's descent upon the French at Mount Desert. The practical value of Mr. Thwaites's work is disclosed by a reference to the bibliographical data given at the end of the book. Each of the pieces comes from a separate source: the first, Biard's "Lettre au R. P. Provincial, à Paris," from Carayon's 'Première Mission'; the second, Biard's "Missio Canadensis," from O'Callaghan; the third, Lescarbot's 'Relation Dernière,' from a copy in Harvard College Library; and the fourth, the "Relatio Rerum Gestarum," from the "Annuæ Litteræ Societatis Jesu." Poutrincourt was a man after the Jesuits' own hearts, and he is deluged with praise by both Biard and Lescarbot. He became an intimate friend of the chief sagamore of the Siroquois, Memberton, a person who is portrayed as having been half a Christian before Christianity was preached to him, and as having alone among the converts proclaimed Christianity by his life. Lescarbot gives an interesting list of the French nobles who stood sponsors to the earliest native proselytes. The first half dozen personages on the roll are the Prince de Condé, the Prince de Conty, the Comte de Soissons, the Duc de Nevers, and the Prince de Joinville! This instalment of Jesuit Relations is free from tedious detail concerning the professional aspects of the mission, and will even afford entertainment to the lover of adventure who has never heard of Poutrincourt, or Biard, or Port Royal.

We trust that the remainder of the series will, like the present volumes, demand nothing beyond monotony of praise.

PROFESSOR SKEAT.

A Student's Pastime. By the Rev. Walter W. Skeat. Macmillan Co. 1896.

ANOTHER volume by Prof. Skeat, of nearly 500 pages. It is number 58 in the list he gives of the books he has seen through the press, and many of the numbers cover several volumes. The proof-reading alone of all these books must have been a great task. But having become accustomed to Prof. Skeat's productiveness, students of English would be surprised if he did not turn out two or three volumes every year. That his books are welcome is a matter of course, and this one will be so, though in a different way from most

that have preceded it. The volume has two parts: an introduction of nearly 100 pages, and a collection of the author's contributions to *Notes and Queries* during the past thirty years. The introduction consists of an autobiography, and a sketch of the various philological and literary enterprises with which the author has been remotely connected. He puts himself and his work before the world in a way that challenges and justifies a consideration of the personal aspects of his career. The life of a man whose name is familiar to every lover of his mother tongue must be a matter of interest to many of them. It is evident that Prof. Skeat thinks so himself, and therefore he lifts the veil of formality, and gives us an opportunity of peeping in upon his private life. This he does with amusing naïveté and pride.

He was born November 21, 1835, "five years before the Princess Royal, as she used to be called, on the same day." This was in Mount Street, Park Lane; but from his second to his fourteenth year the family lived at Perry Hill, Sydenham. He, thus, early became acquainted with the dialects of West Kent, London, and Essex, but more particularly with that of South Shropshire, where he often visited relatives. For a time he was at King's College School in the Strand, under the instruction of the Anglo-Saxon scholar Oswald Cockayne, who taught him Latin, however, not Old English, and from whom he believes he "imbibed the notion of what is known as scholarship." At the last school that received him, "that of Sir Roger Cholmeley at Highgate, founded in the reign of Elizabeth, in 1565," he obtained as a prize a copy of Stevens and Malone's Shakspere. Here, too, he got some idea of the value of English literature; "for it was customary to give the boys occasional scraps of it, on which to exercise their skill by translating them into Greek and Latin verse," but he adds that no portion of our literature was ever explained to him at any of his five schools. There was, however, a fine edition of Spenser in the library of one of the schools, and he devoted himself to a careful study of it. During a year spent at Cambridge in preparation for college, he became familiar with other English writers. He thus acquired a love for English literature, and consequently ventures to indulge in certain naïve judgments on literature and the study of it. To the earlier literature and to philological study his attention was first drawn by one of his school-books, Mrs. Markham's 'History of England.'

"Desirous of entering a college which should be large enough for forming acquaintances, and not so large as to overwhelm me with competition," he entered Christ's College, and gloried in being a fellow-collegian of Milton and Darwin. In 1870 he was elected to a fellowship, but soon after was ordained and spent the first two years of his married life as a curate of East Dereham, where he became familiar with the Norfolk dialect. In the parish church is the tomb of Cowper; and in the hall of one of the principal houses in the market-place he was shown "the sofa." His next curacy was at Godalming, nearer London; but the climate proved unsuitable, and at last an attack of a diphtheritic character totally unfitted him for clerical work and rendered a long rest necessary. In the vein of the earlier novelists, he says:

"I thus found myself, in the end of 1863, at the age of twenty-eight, in the desolate condition of finding my chosen career brought to a sudden end, without any idea as to my future course, and even without much prospect of ever again rendering any help to my fellow-creatures, which (I can truly say) has always been my object as regards this present world. Man proposes, but God disposes," etc.

He returned to Cambridge, where he became a mathematical lecturer, and received private pupils. As this left him much time, he took up the study of Anglo-Saxon, and soon fell to making glossaries and editing Middle English texts. In 1878 he was made Professor of Anglo-Saxon in Cambridge on the foundation of Dr. Bosworth. Of his professional duties he says:

"Considering that Anglo-Saxon is not a subject in very great request, it might easily have happened, especially at the beginning of my professional work, that I might some day be prepared to lecture, and might find no one to listen. Curiously enough, this has never actually happened; in every year there have been some two or three at least who, for some reason or other, have wanted instruction."

At one time he took an *ad-eundem* degree at Oxford and had an opportunity of seeing something of Oxford life. He still visits the neighboring university from time to time, and, in characteristic words, expresses his idea of that sort of thing and of the mutual relations of the two great seats of learning:

"It is a good thing for a student of one university to know something of the ways of the other, without actual migration; and I rather wonder that the idea is not more frequently entertained. The chief reason against it is to be found in the detestable arrangement whereby the London and Northwestern Railway compels every traveller to spend three hours over a journey that might be completed in a little more than two. An enforced wait of three-fourths of an hour or so at the cheerless Bletchley station is decidedly unaccommodating and ruthless; and there can be little doubt that this is the chief cause that keeps the two Universities apart."

And this is about all that the modern English lexicographer has to tell us of his life. The spirit that pervades it does not seem to be a genial one. We see much of the pugnacious tendencies of Hughes's Brown family, but miss their more kindly qualities. The English curate did not change much when he became a philologist. He holds that "every true scholar is in some degree a missionary," whose duty it is to "fight against all the forms of error that beset the study" to which he has devoted himself. And of fighting Professor Skeat has done not a little. He relished Zupitza's gentleness in pointing out his slips, but he wonders when others find fault with his own severity. There surely is a high-handed way in much of his criticism; but we must not forget that he lives at an English university where every one feels himself justified in explaining and laying down laws for his mother-tongue, no matter what his ignorance of the language and of philological principles in general. It is, doubtless, a shame, but it is, perhaps, none the less true, that there is still need in England of such long and reiterated contentions as those that Professor Skeat makes against the idea that the Romans pronounced Latin as we pronounce English, and that modern English is derived from modern German. A sadder thing is that the denouncer of English weaknesses is himself a product of English conditions. He, too, lacks the thorough training that the German scholar has received; he, also, fails to avail himself of all the results of the work of other scholars; and, like some of his countrymen, he has a tendency to guess and to ignore linguistic principles. In his very efforts to be a scholar of the world, he betrays his insularity. Speaking of the advance in our knowledge of Old English, he says: "Perhaps the most unexpected result of modern times is the extension of Anglo-Saxon studies to the continent of America." He all too frequently shows anxiety lest the world forget that it was he who first found out this etymology or put that idea into words; and now for the third time he boasts in print that he can read Middle English as easily as the English of to-day. All development in philological study in England he regards as circling about and dependent on him. And because certain Continental etymological dictionaries (like Kluge's) have appeared since his was published, he regards them as inspired by and modelled after his book.

Of his friends we learn a little here and there, but mostly concerning their externalities, their peculiarities, and their favorite stories. Of Kemble he says: "I remember him as a quiet but cheery old gentleman, who more than once stayed with me when he came to Cambridge to consult MSS. He had sharp, quick eyesight, and wrote a very legible hand at a quite unusual pace." It is amusing to see the philologian come out even at the bedside of the sick: "Miss Jackson became a sad invalid in her later years, being confined to one room and often to bed for long periods, and suffering much pain; but she bore her trials with much courage and even cheerfulness, and at all times took much interest in English dialects and etymology."

The body of the book need not detain us long. Much of the matter is valuable—just as are many of the other contributions that appear in *Notes and Queries*. Why, however, such matter should be reprinted in a volume with no other bond of union than that it was written by the same man is a mystery. Skeat's contributions to *Notes and Queries* deal with etymology, with the history of the English language, literature, and people, with dialectic and provincial English, with proverbs, folk-lore, superstitions, sleight-of-hand tricks, and what not. He discusses the first burning for heresy in England; quotes a "poem" that Sir William Davenant contrived to write with hardly a *the* or an *a* in it; and gives a recipe for making two-faced pictures by cutting them in strips which show one picture or word as you approach and another as you pass; and he gravely adds: "[P. S. Now (in 1895) used to advertise 'Sunlight Soap.']" He urges that it isn't fair to write badly, hoping thus to have one's MS. put into the hands of the best compositor in the printing-office:

"The morality of it is more than questionable; and it ought surely to be understood, amongst gentlemen, that a writer who *purposely* writes illegibly commits a most cowardly and unjustifiable crime against the unfortunate compositors. [P. S. in 1895. I have always found that the compositors set up my 'copy' admirably; precisely because they appreciate its legibility. The Controller of the Clarendon Press is my witness to this.]"

Many of the really philological contributions Skeat made to *Notes and Queries* were confessedly unoriginal—a five-page outline of Germanic phonology, a ten-page list of English grammars "made many years ago by Sir F. Madden . . . from cuttings from booksellers' catalogues"—or had a temporary purpose only, as, for example, six pages of additions to Halliwell's Dictionary published by Skeat for the use of Dr. Murray, who was at the time engaged on the letters in question; but all this is reprinted here. In the introduction the author actually reprints almost the entire preface of his Dictionary—nine

pages in all—with the plea that, as "few people read a preface to a dictionary printed in quarto form, it will probably be new to most of my readers." It would, indeed, be difficult to find another such case of book-making. The introduction closes with the remark that the author has made similar contributions "to many other publications besides *Notes and Queries*, and that, if the reception of the present book is sufficiently encouraging, it will be easy to produce another volume, or even two more, of a like kind."

We trust that Prof. Skeat will carefully consider this matter. It is doubtless very easy to make books in this way, and they will sell. But as he certainly has at heart the welfare of his science and the advantage of his fellow-scholars, it will not be difficult to persuade him to do his reprinting in a different way. It is now fourteen years since he issued the supplement to his Dictionary. Since then he and many others have contributed much toward the advancement of the subject. The material is in so many different journals that, even if one has access to them all, as few have, the time needed to run down a question is rarely at one's disposal. If Prof. Skeat will bring all this material under one alphabet in the form of a supplement to his Dictionary, even if he has time to do no more than reprint the material without digesting it, he will do all English scholars a great service and make a very salable book. He can then, if he chooses, gather his miscellaneous contributions into another volume, which will "interest the curious." But even in this we hope he will not reprint well-known facts merely "because I had much to do with their enunciation or explanation, and their appearance in *N. and Q.* has become a matter of history."

La Jeunesse d'un Tsar. Paul 1er et Catherine II. Par Dmitri Kobeko. Tiré du Russe par Dmitri de Benckendorff. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's. 1896.

To the perennial interest in the character and reign of Catherine the Second the special interest is added, just at the present moment in Russia, of the centenary of her death. To that intensified interest, in anticipation, no doubt, is due the volume upon Paul I. which this French version represents. The reign of Catherine II., and the part which her son played therein, as well as during his own very brief reign following, are inexhaustibly absorbing themes for Russian writers, as well as for historical investigators of foreign lands who desire to fathom the present policy and aims of the giant empire, since they, almost equally with the reign of Peter the Great, lie at the bottom of many problems. One of the attractions of the subject lies in its difficulty, for both the native and the foreigner; though the difficulty is diametrically opposite in the two cases. The foreigner, who is free to tell the whole truth about the Empress Catherine's moral character and her policy at home and abroad, and is anxious to show as little reserve as possible, rarely has access to original documents in Russia, even when he is capable of deciphering them. Paul I.'s life, and especially his death, which require the examination of such documents, present another difficulty equally great. The Russian who may have access to state and other papers has to pass the censorship. It may be merely an accident that several noteworthy Russian histories either come to a sudden end with the reign of Catherine's predecessor, or devote but scant space and obscure allusions, in place of full and open dissection, to the famous Empress's long and vitally important reign and to Paul's brief and tragic career on the throne. For these very reasons, every new volume on the subject is read with eager interest and hope that some new or authoritative light may be shed on debated points.

It cannot be said of the volume before us that it adds anything of particular value to our previous information, despite its interest. It forms the introduction to a promised study of the reign of Paul I., and suffers from this division of what ought to be one integral whole. This in the first place. In the second, the translator has very honestly but bafflingly announced on the title-page that it is "drawn from" the Russian original. Why he should have hesitated to publish in France what was permitted in Russia is a puzzle, especially as it leaves the reader in doubt as to whether the evident excisions throughout and the decidedly scrappy abruptness of the early chapters are due to the author or to the adapter. It is plain that adverse criticism must be confined rather narrowly to the adaptation, and does not, of necessity, apply to the Russian original.

To begin with, it would be of interest to know whether the author entertains any settled views as to the parentage of Paul I., which has often been questioned, and as to whether that or her jealousy of his right to the throne and her insatiable ambition alone were the cause of Catherine's harsh treatment of her son. Hazardous as is this point, it could have been dealt with in a manner which would have added to our definite knowledge without incurring danger from the official critics who rule on such affairs in all monarchical lands; and the author, shortly after he has mentioned Paul's birth, proves that he thoroughly understands the method of conveying his meaning by the proper sort of hint. For example, in narrating Catherine's invitation to D'Alembert to become her son's preceptor, he quotes D'Alembert's letter to Voltaire on the subject: "Do you know that I have been invited—I, who have not the honor to be a Jesuit—to undertake the education of the Grand Duke of Russia? But I am too subject to hemorrhoids, and they are too dangerous in that country." This is a fairly plain allusion to the fact that Catherine's agents had made away with her husband, the Emperor Peter III., at the palace of Ropsha, and that the bereaved widow had announced to his (her) subjects his death as caused by hemorrhoids. It remains to be seen which mode of treatment the author will apply to another royally sensitive topic in his second volume, namely, the manner of Paul I.'s death and the share therein of his son, Alexander I.

The special value of the present book lies in its ample quotations from the autobiographical notes of the persons concerned, and the diaries and reports of the notable men, foreign ambassadors as well as Russian dignitaries, of that epoch. It is curious to see how Catherine robbed her son of all his children at their birth, after we have read her own pathetic complaints against the Empress Elizabeth's identical treatment of herself, wherein she says that, in the course of the first seven months of Paul's life, she was allowed to see him but thrice. In many other instances similar instructive parallels might be drawn between the different passages of the book; as, Catherine's fickleness in the majority of her affections, and obstinacy in isolated instances which are not generally regarded as legitimate causes of blame in her case, while Paul, who is admitted to have been infinitely her superior in morality, is ordinarily censured for his sudden warm affections in friendship, and his later coldness, and his occasional obstinacy. The crudity of these comparisons is lessened by the dexterous way in which the author has arranged the extracts from the records of personal intimates and preceptors of mother and son.

Paul, as Grand Duke Heir, had much to endure from his imperious, jealous, and selfish mother, and he bore it, with very few exceptions, in the most admirable spirit of filial respect and loyal obedience as first subject in the realm. His character, in this light, as well as in his domestic life with his two wives, during his painfully long ordeal of banishment from his mother's heart, confidence, and favor, is set forth in the most amiable and most just manner. It was only towards the end of Catherine's reign, after many years of brave resistance to the undermining effects of cruel treatment and intrigue against him from his mother, that Paul's character changed for the worse, and his irritable, overbearing, hereditary temper took on the distinguishing tinge of mental aberration. Not only is this gradual deterioration adequately shown, but the author succeeds in making the unfortunate Paul a vivid personality and sympathetic to feeling hearts, while preserving the atmosphere of aloofness which especially characterizes the ordinary conception of his position. He makes it perfectly clear, even to the prejudiced reader, that Paul I. was well endowed mentally, fit to hold his place with the best royal personages of his time; a devoted husband, an admirable son, with qualities which might have made him a great ruler, and saved him from the military-martinet mania which was fostered, perhaps created, by his mother's attitude. This, by estranging him, excluding him, from all state business and councils, made him fix his residence chiefly at Gatchina and Pavlovsk, and busy himself to wearying minuteness with the petty points of military life and drill, in the hours when he rested from assiduous cultivation of his mind in his wife's famous literary circle. This second wife, Marie Feodorovna, is delightfully portrayed. A model wife, mother, Empress, her memory is revered and always will be in the land of her adoption, where her influence still lingers. A lady of the Court still regards it as the highest praise if she earns the verdict: "She is of the school (of manners and conduct) of Marie Feodorovna."

One misses many charming and vivifying details, both in her life and in that of her husband, which would have added greatly to the picture, had it been possible to weld this volume and its promised sequel in one work. Nevertheless, with all its omissions, reticences, and brevity (it seems brief, though it covers 425 pages), it is a book to read and to keep. The final summing up of Paul's character is worth quoting as an introduction and incentive to the perusal of this biography:

"What had a decisive influence upon his character was the fact that, from his early infancy, he had, in a manner, been imbued with reasons for fear and with suspicions, and that his extreme need of activity had been constantly thwarted until, on arriving at mature age, he ascended the throne. There is no doubt that, under no reign so much as under that of Paul, could so much good have been done to the country, had the persons who surrounded him been guided by the love of their country, instead of being actuated by wholly personal aims."

The general prejudice against Paul I. is so strongly rooted abroad that this judgment should be borne in mind by those who would

reach a just estimate of the man and of his epoch.

If any later editions of this book should be called for, it would be well that a competent person should make a thorough revision. The errors in the Russian names, the varieties of orthography even on one page in one name, are embarrassing to foreign readers. There are also errors in dates, and (which is surprising in a publication of a well-known house) errors in the French.

Outlines of the Philosophy of English Literature. By Greenough White. Part I. The Middle Ages. Boston: Ginn & Co. 1896.

ENCOURAGED by the deservedly favorable judgments passed on his sketch of the 'Philosophy of American Literature,' Mr. Greenough White has essayed a harder task. With the Middle Ages for his period—and these he has construed as beginning with the twelfth century and ending with the death of Bloody Mary in 1558—he has endeavored "to describe the process of mental development; to determine the limits and character of literary ages; to get at the basal principle of each successive age and trace its derivation from that which preceded it." His method requires him to study the political, religious, and social history, not merely of England, but of France, Italy, and Germany, and to trace the relations of these complex matters to the origin and development of English literature in the period—or rather the succession of periods—which he desires to characterize. To accomplish all this in the compass of 266 pages would demand, not only a great deal of knowledge, but powers of compression and unification quite extraordinary.

We shall not question Mr. White's possession of these powers, nor shall we enter into a discussion of the soundness or extent of his historical acquirements. Such a discussion is not necessary, for, unhappily, his work has one fundamental defect which no amount of literary skill or historical learning can supply: the author's acquaintance with the literary monuments of his period is insufficient. If a writer does not know the facts of a subject broadly and solidly, it may well pass for axiomatic that he cannot profitably discuss the "philosophy" of that subject; and this, we regret to say, is Mr. White's case with regard to mediæval English literature, and, indeed, with regard to mediæval literature in general.

To begin with, his account of the Anglo-Saxon period is vague and ineffectual. We shall not quarrel with him for refusing to regard Anglo-Saxon as English, and for making English literature begin with Layamon. There is a kind of justification for this point of view, and, even if there were none, the hyperbole of some professed Anglo-Saxonists might easily drive the most philosophical historian of letters into an extreme position. What we object to is Mr. White's failure to see that one cannot explain English literature from the Norman Conquest to Chaucer without determining, first of all, the literary and intellectual characteristics of the people conquered, and that this cannot be done without a study of Anglo-Saxon literature, such as it is. In the eleven pages which Mr. White gives to the Saxon period, he had space enough for just such a rapid summary as was needed; but his knowledge of the subject was apparently inadequate, and we have, instead, a string of rambling and often misleading remarks, of no value and little significance. It would have been better to omit this chapter altogether.

Scarcely more satisfactory is Mr. White's treatment of the Middle English period. A writer on mediæval literature is surely bound to give some clear account, however brief, of "the matter of Britain," "the matter of Troy," the "romances of adventure," the *chansons de geste*, the influence of Oriental fiction. Mr. White knows that there are questions about all these things, but he is unfamiliar with the best authorities on the several subjects; in fact, he has no clear conception of the real problems in each case. His account of the Arthur romances, for instance, is strangely inaccurate and incomplete, though he considers them at some length. Walter Map is unquestioningly credited with an Anglo-Norman prose 'Quest of the Holy Grail,' and with "part, at least," of a 'Lancelot du Lac.' Chrestien is mentioned only as "a prolific versifier" who "made the Grail the motive of his romance of 'Percevale.'" We see no evidence that the author has read a line of Chrestien, or that he has pushed his researches far enough to discover a catalogue of his works. For Tristan we are referred to Gottfried von Strassburg: there is no suggestion of the origin or relations of Gottfried's poem. The great problem of the *Lais* is not even mentioned: Chestre's 'Launfal' is put in the reign of Edward IV., and there is no hint that it has any connection with Marie de France. To 'Gawain and the Green Knight' two pages are given, but the story is told with curious inaccuracy, and the conclusion of the whole matter is perversely made into an allegory. "What is the Green Knight," we are asked, "but a type of nature—not the inanimate world, but the deathless life that is in nature?"—and so on, in a strain that would astonish the fourteenth-century poet if he could hear it.

The Round Table romances are not the only subject in Middle English on which Mr. White's information is imperfect. Nothing could be more erroneous than what he says about Sir John Mandeville and his 'Travels.' He still believes the old story, long ago exploded, about Sir John's being an English traveller who wrote originally in Latin, afterwards making a translation of his own book into his mother tongue. Yet it would not have been hard for Mr. White to avoid these mistakes. Even so accessible a work of reference as the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' would have set him right. The chapter on Chaucer is unsatisfying, both from the scholar's point of view and from the critic's. To ascribe 'The Court of Love' to Chaucer after all that has been said and written on that unlucky poem, is a literary sin that can claim slight indulgence. For Gower Mr. White has a somewhat excessive admiration.

We have given this little book more space than it deserves because it is a kind of "type." It is interesting, well-written, brief, and its fundamental design is good. All these qualities make it attractive, especially to the "general reader" in our scrambling decade. But it is too inaccurate to be a safe guide to those most likely to resort to it for assistance.

Scholar Gipsies. By John Buchan. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THIS book interests in the beginning because it is printed for the "Arcady Library" from the strong types of the Bodley Head Press; next, because the few etchings, by Mr. D. Y. Cameron, which illustrate it, have a curious individuality, not unpleasing. The title piques a curiosity more easily satisfied, for it is merely the label which the author has chosen for the first of a number of essays on life and nature in the upper valley of Tweed, treating of the men of those uplands, their traditions, country, beasts, birds, fishes, trees, and flowers—the very quality of soil and atmosphere that makes them at once shrewd, sagacious, reckless, passionate, practical, and imaginative. These essays, he tells us, were all written in youth. Of youth they certainly retain the fervor and enthusiasm; but they are written in a mature and cultivated style. Their substance is charming, and, albeit concerned with Scotch life and nature, is novel. The Scotch classics and our contemporary favorites of the Scotch renaissance have made us familiar with Scotland's historic places—the cities and the Highlands; but Peebleshire we scarcely know at all, in spite of its traditions of border warfare, and its endearing scenery, which Mr. Buchan describes thus. It is, he says, "an epitome of landscape," "a country of surprises."

> "The cottar's garden, gay with all seasons' flowers, runs into the heather; reapers ply their trade within hearing of the thrush and the curlew; a meadow of hay is own neighbor to a grim pine forest: and a sullen stream in one field may be an eddying torrent in the next. The art of the epigrammatist would be expended in vain in searching for the applicable word. One might call it austere, but for the grace of the woods; barren, but for the fresh, green meadows and fruitful gardens; homely, were it not for some great blue shoulder of hill which bars the sky and gives solemnity to the little ridges. It is a country of contradictions, blended into harmony by that subtle Border charm which relates the crags of Moffatdale to the lowlands of Berwick."

Of the character and life of its people, Mr. Buchan makes a portrayal both vivid and enduring. He is sparing of anecdote and still more sparing of dialect, but he achieves his end through the affection with which he has studied his neighbors in their relations to each other and to nature—a love of humanity akin to that which animates Bewick's sincere woodcuts and White's simple natural history of his Selborne parish. He takes you a tramp over the moors, on the track of the abandoned drove-road worn by the herds that, ere the advent of railroads, came from the north, in charge of men as rude and picturesque as our Texans. He goes salmon fishing with you in the early May mornings, flushing many a bird by the wayside, and maybe surprising a poacher, clandestinely enjoying the sport forbidden him by law. Mr. Buchan has charity for such lawbreakers. The poacher may be a blackguard, "but he would be a worse man were he not a poacher." "It is something affecting to see the ragged weaver, out of work maybe, up to his knees in the stream, intent upon his fishing; the herd-boy who whips the mountain burn with his home-made rod"—for "they love it and are learned in it above the common."

Mr. Buchan sees all things with the same sweet and healthy imagination, and his book brings up pleasant thoughts of a generous country and a kindly people; of big hills to climb, broad moors to tramp, and swift streams to fish, over; and of stirring days that will not come again—of the sudden rush of the border foray, the dusty herds with their dour escorts, the camp-fires along the road, "the menace of visionary dogs and the confused speech of drovers who have long since ceased from their toil."

The Myths of the New World. A Treatise on the Symbolism and Mythology of the Red Race of America. By Daniel G. Brinton. Third edition, revised. Philadelphia: David McKay. 1896. 8vo, pp. 361.

To collect into one volume the myths, beliefs, and religious ceremonies of all the aborigines of both Americas—countries of such an enormous extent and diversity—has been frequently attempted, but could never fully succeed on account of the immensity of the task and the fragmentary condition of the material at hand. It is true that special myths are found to be disseminated over large areas and worded in approximatively the same terms. Myths of this kind are: the creation of the land from sand or mud hauled up from the bottom of the primeval ocean; the road to the sky formed by arrows; the red cedar containing the blood of human beings; the coyote-wolf as the creator of the universe, and many others. But the ownership of such myths by no means proves the identity of the mythologies of the nations whose religious life rests upon them. In some nations the chief deity, to which all others appear subordinate, is the sky, when unclouded; in others it is the clouded or stormy sky, torn by thunder and lightning; in others, again, it is the fire or light which stands highest, but most frequently the sun is first in rank, under manifold appellations. In myths the power of light rises to importance only when it is associated with heat, for this is the beneficent power which raises the crops and becomes the nourisher of mankind. In this third edition our author lays but little stress on the myth-making power of light and dawn, contrary to his practice in other publications.

Dr. Brinton was probably the first to apply the term "culture heroes" to certain mythic characters in America; a short list of them is given on page 192, which, he says, could be extended indefinitely. These heroes taught their people the arts of life, religious worship, the secrets of magic; and, by ruling over them, added to their happiness. Brinton thinks that some of them may belong to history, but the descriptions we have of them make this rather doubtful, and we are of opinion that only Hiawatha, of the Iroquois, can be considered in this light even by those who are not euhemerists. These characters are mostly masculine, and we find no culture heroine in America comparable to Demeter of the Greeks.

Where is the seat of the soul in the living body? The medicine-men of all tribes have settled this problem in some way and to their own satisfaction. The Greek term *phrenes* would place it in the midriff, the Hebrew *ruach* in the breath. But in this country most Algonkin tribes had it in the heart, the New England Indians in the brain, the Tonkawēs in the fontanel, and the Costa Ricans in the liver. A plurality of souls is assumed by the majority of Western tribes of the United States, and they were brought to this by philosophizing upon the nature of dreams. The Eskimos even assume the existence of three souls, the last one entering the body when the child is given its name (p. 277).

There was a custom of cleaning, packing, and transferring the bones of the dead when a certain period had elapsed after decease. But this was by no means a *general* custom, as Dr. Brinton assumes, for persons buried in stone cists (Omaha), or in canoes (Columbia River), or trees (Dakota), were certainly left where they were placed first. On the Pacific Coast, cremation was the general mode of disposing of the dead. A motive for preserving the bones was the expectation that the soul would return to the bones (p. 295) and the body be returned to life again. Ancestral worship, which might have been the sequel of this custom, is found in America, but sporadically and not prominently.

Many passages of this work have been left unchanged from the first edition, *e. g.*, what is said about circumcision and about the superstition of the horned snake, which we find among Hurons, Muscogees, and Shawnees. The fact that in the Minitaree language *midi* means *water* and also *moon* cannot be adduced to prove that the moon-deity controlled rain and rain-water, for both words rest upon different radical syllables and are homonyms only. Again, the belief that the human race took its origin in mountains is not infrequent in this part of the world; but from the fact that the Delaware Indians called the Alleghany Mountains "Paemotinck" no argument can be drawn in favor of this opinion, for this name does not mean 'the origin of the Indians.' It simply signifies 'in the distant mountains,' for pām-, pem-, is a prefix pointing to distance, 'far off,' ádn or óden means 'mountain,' and -k is the locative case-suffix, meaning *on*, *in*, *upon*.

Water Supply. (Considered principally from a sanitary standpoint.) By William P. Mason, Professor of Chemistry, Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute. John Wiley & Sons. 1896.

With the spread of sanitary knowledge and the increasing demands of a concentrated civilization, the conditions surrounding the question of water-supply grow in number and importance as health and comfort press for purity and abundance. Almost every locality has its own problem of varying complexity, as, to go no further, is shown in this immediate region by the difficulties of the Schuylkill, the Passaic, and the Croton. The details differ, but the underlying principles, often perplexing to apply, and perhaps not yet recognized in all their bearings, are gradually being assembled as in a depot. From such a treasury those who have the wisdom may draw the appropriate preventives and correctives. One such thesaurus is before us. Prof. Mason has a well-defined place among chemists, and has been recognized by some American hygienists as an intelligent investigator and teacher of the relations of water to man, but the present work will extend his favorable reputation much further.

This volume is not behind the latest genuine achievements of hygiene along its special line. It recognizes that the malarial poison is potable as well as respirable. It accepts as a working hypothesis the possible evolution of the typhoid bacillus from an innocent bacterium, with the inevitable conclusion that fever and filth are intimately related. It teaches that sunlight does and frost does not destroy that special poison; it emphasizes the necessity of intermittence when soil filtration is depended upon to purify water; it insists that when a watershed has once been selected, its immaculateness must be protected with the utmost rigor of the law. It maintains the virtue of boiled drinking-water, which, as a decoction of roots, saved from the malarial poison the Spanish invaders in the swamps of Florida, and preserves to-day the tea-drinking Chinese among the shallow wells of the California plains against that plasmodium, and will protect all others against water-borne cholera and typhoid causes. The value, nay the necessity, of sedimentation and of filtration on a large scale is shown, and the work makes clear what is quite as important to the individual, the mischief that may inhere in the domestic filter. In fact, no artificial filter is self-cleansing, and no natural filter may be overworked with impunity.

Quite beyond the chemical investigation, nature, and treatment of water for ingestion and for economic purposes is the author's meteorological and climatic range. Incidentally he discredits the popular belief that rain generally succeeds great battles because of gunpowder, and quotes Plutarch as describing the field to have been thus mercifully bathed after days of ancient slaughter; while as against the confessed frauds of the explosive rainmakers of to-day, he cites the authority of Arago that a hundred and thirty years ago guns were ineffectually fired to dissipate storms.

The water supply of the great plains, popularly supposed to be derived from the precipitation on the Rocky Mountains, and to lie under them, only awaiting pumping to render those semi-arid grazing-grounds fertile fields of cereals, Prof. Mason believes to be most limited. Deep river-trenches at the eastern foot of the range cut off the most of this from reaching the open country. He quotes Follett in a Senate Document (52d Congress) to the effect that not more can be hoped for from the underlying sheet than enough to irrigate from two to five acres in every farm [of one hundred and sixty acres?], and that if general irrigation is attempted, the water level must be permanently lowered with general consecutive disaster. Of course this is theoretical, not demonstrated science; that is, science not demonstrated on the spot. Its correctness is of vast importance to the potential thousands who, in the eyes of enthusiasts, are to make the great plains blossom as the rose, but it seems probable that the arable soil will remain that within relatively narrow lines along mountain bases and river bottoms. That the lowering of the subterranean water-supply just referred to may occur, and is a serious matter, is inferrible from the change in that from the chalk basin upon which London depends. There, through the valleys of the Colne, of the Lee, and of the Thames, deep wells and superficial streams are showing that three gallons cannot with impunity be drawn from a given area for every two that fall upon it. Another warning that we do not recall elsewhere is against pressing a driven-well system beyond its true capacity. Natural filtration insures pure water; but if the wells are forced unnaturally, the water table is unduly lowered locally, a rapid flow towards the exhausted region may cause subsoil channels, and the way is then opened for unpurified surface water to enter. Such an accident would be irreparable. Faith in the filtering power of the soil or ignorance as to its limitation is almost incredible. An example, not cited in this volume, was, turning superficially upon the galleries a polluted stream and expecting it, by straining downward through three feet of gravelly earth, to swell the potable water. There was an increased volume, and with it a corresponding morbidity and mortality rate. Possibly the water company was more concerned about the amount than the purity of the supply.

One of the appendices, of which there are several, shows the economy and efficiency of using salt water for watering and washing roadways and streets and for flushing sewers,

but not for extinguishing fires. There seems no reason why our seaboard cities might not accept such aid to relieve the drain of this mechanical work upon the usually overtaxed domestic supply.

We may fairly place Mason's 'Water Supply' upon an equal shelf with any book of its kind. It appeals to a large circle of readers, from the consumer to the physician and the engineer, and few can examine it without advantage. It is fully illustrated, and has a copious although not particularly clear index, whose numerous headings, however, counteract an occasional indirectness.

A History of Egypt during the XVIIth and XVIIIth Dynasties. By W. M. Flinders Petrie, D.C.L., LL.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896. 12mo, pp. xvi, 353. $2.25.

ABOUT a year ago the first volume appeared in a series projected by Professor Petrie and intended to embrace the history of Egypt from the earliest times down to the close of the Arabic period. The present volume is the second, but it covers only two of the four dynasties which the original prospectus assigned to it. The reason is that it was found impossible to compress into a volume of the requisite size the wealth of material that lay ready to the author's hand. It is strange that we should be so well instructed as to the sequence of events within a period whose terminal limits are so ill-marked and indefinite in terms of the ordinary reckoning. One is surprised that the "annals" of a king's reign can be written when there is uncertainty as to the decade or even the century when the reign itself began.

The importance of the events detailed in the present volume is great, and the personages described rank with the foremost names in the world's history. The seventeenth Egyptian dynasty is obscure and the facts known about it are meagre; but with the rise of the following dynasty there occurred the expulsion of the Hyksos invaders who had held the land in bondage for upward of five centuries. Then followed the reigns of the three Thothmes, during which the power of Egypt was extended over distant Syria. Intermediate were the maritime ventures of their kinswoman, Queen Hatasu or "Hat-shepsut," which brought the various products of the Somali coast to enrich the temples of the gods at Thebes. Before the close of the dynasty came the nearest approach to a monotheistic worship which Egypt ever knew, under Amenophis IV., the "heretic" king, who himself was under the influence of a Semitic or foreign mother, wife, and household. The worship of the sun-disk as Aten (Adoni or Adonis of the Syrians), however, did not long endure, and coincidently with the fall of the dynasty the old worship of Amon-Ra of Thebes reappeared. The story of this development is wrought out by Prof. Petrie in masterly style, and the wonder is that so much detail is possible after so many intervening centuries. Use has also been made of the facts disclosed by the cuneiform tablets found recently at Tell el-Amarna in Egypt, both to throw light upon the internal and external condition of Egypt at the time, and also upon the geography of Palestine and Syria.

Prof. Petrie is an eminently judicious and painstaking writer, as well as a learned and accurate explorer and archæologist. In this series he is giving to English readers the best history of Egypt that we have in the language, and in fact in any tongue. Numerous illustrations accompany the text, and the printing of the names of kings and princes in hieroglyphic type at the head of the various chapters will be welcomed by advanced readers. The amount of detail embodied in the work is immense, and it would be difficult to find many facts of interest in the history which are not mentioned. Indeed, the series promises to be a thesaurus, and yet the volumes are readable, interesting, and at times even fascinating. It is brought down to date, and cannot but prove valuable to a large circle of readers, both special and general.

The Ecclesiastical Architecture of Scotland, from the Earliest Christian Times to the Seventeenth Century. By David Macgibbon and Thomas Ross. Volume II. Edinburgh: David Douglas. 1896. Pages xx, 564.

THE first volume of this excellent book has been already reviewed in these columns. The present deals with the earlier complete Gothic architecture of Scotland, or that which corresponds to the so-called "Early English," and also with the later architecture which was founded upon English "Decorated" and English "Perpendicular." The epoch represented covers the thirteenth century and the fourteenth century, during which the savage wars with England prevented architectural development, and that part of the fifteenth century during which work began again, much in the spirit of an earlier time. The names given in this book to the styles considered are the sufficiently accurate ones, "First Pointed" and "Middle Pointed."

It is, of course, true that Gothic architecture did not originate in Scotland, nor even in England; and if it is true that the English Gothic is not always perfectly consistent as a style, but shows in many cases a reminiscence of the earlier or pre-Gothic period which it cannot shake off, it is still more evidently true that in Scotland the style never reached a very magnificent development. The buildings were small, the means at the command of the builders were not great. In spite of the intimate political intercourse between France and Scotland during the Middle Ages, the presence of French design seems doubtful, or, at least, rare; and, in short, it is not to Scotland that one would go to study Gothic architecture of the highest type. But as a thorough study of an outlying school of buildings which are full of spirit and sincerity, and which, by great good fortune, have not been ruined by destructive restoration, this volume is to be confidently recommended. It is with the greatest pleasure that one finds in the critical remarks scattered through the book, in the preface and the introductory essays, at pages 1 and 331, a perfectly just and equable tone of historical treatment, as well as a profound familiarity with the subject in hand. It is as evident here as in the earlier volume that our authors know the architecture of the Continent and of England admirably well, and feel with entire rightness the connection between the minor schools of Scotland and those greater and wider developments of the styles.

It appears from the general title that at least one volume is still to be looked for. The ecclesiastical architecture of the Scottish styles contemporaneous with the Tudor, the Elizabethan, and the Jacobean of England will be extremely interesting. We shall hope to learn from that volume how far the Continental architecture of the Renaissance had weight in Scotland; in England such influence is hardly noticeable except in tombs and doorways and similar large details. As to the general design of buildings, the Gothic influence is never absent until, after the civil wars, the sudden classical revival under Inigo Jones and Wren appears, and that ought not to be called Renaissance at all.

Bird Land Echoes. By Charles Conrad Abbott, M.D. With illustrations by William Everett Cram. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1896. 8vo, pp. 270.

IN telling one of his stories Dr. Abbott remarks (p. 158): "I needed tact, which I am not blessed with, and was lucky to-day in not blundering." Lack of tact may be one reason why so clever and prolific a writer as Dr. Abbott has never been fortunate enough to secure any very general recognition, either in archæology or in ornithology. He certainly blunders throughout the present volume in bumptiousness toward ornithologists, whom he affects to despise, as if the attempts of these "bird-men," as he calls them by way of a sneer, to be technically accurate, were a reflection upon his own methods. Perhaps the comparison is odious to him; but it is not tactful to apologize for himself by slurring others who prefer to be more scientific than he cares to be. Pride of amateurishness can never hope to justify itself by flinging out at professional work; the trick is easy enough, but never successful. We could name a dozen agreeable writers on birds, of considerable attainments in ornithology (yet content to leave the technicalities in abler hands), whose influence and usefulness are directly proportionate to their tactfulness in the single particular we find so offensive in Dr. Abbott's case. We have no quarrel with the amateurs; we leave them to their own devices, wishing them the joy and peace we have no desire to disturb. Dr. Abbott rides his hobby with ease, invests his birds with imaginary attributes from the depths of his own consciousness, and dreams about them pleasantly in print; he turns phrases effectively, and makes good reading-matter for those who find such reading-matter good. But many of his statements of fact are widely at variance with the experiences of other observers. There is an unreality in Dr. Abbott's writing, even where his verisimilitude is obvious, that almost raises a question of veraciousness.

Some of Mr. Cram's slight sketches are much better than others; they have merit, as a whole, and the best ones lead us to believe he could do better still with a little practice in art technique. We are also sure that the author could write a better book than this one if he would take our friendly criticism to heart.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Library of the World's Best Literature. Vols. 1 and 2. New York: The International Society.
Boutell, L. H. The Life of Roger Sherman. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Cyr, Ellen M. The Children's Third Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60c.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 14, 1897.

The Week.

THE precipitate flight of the Jingo Senators at Secretary Olney's first fire suggests how delightfully they would manage a real war, if they ever happen to blunder into one. But the fact that their performances are ludicrous ought not to blind us to the fact that they are also menacing. We do not mean simply the threat to business and to the national reputation which is involved, but the great shock to our whole fabric of government which their action, if tolerated, portends. This is the view of the matter which the philosophic Paris *Temps* takes. It considers the Cuban resolutions not so much a danger to Spain, or a hope for Cuba, as a peril to our own government. They mark one step more in the usurpation of power by Congress, and the practical reducing of our country to the parliamentary régime, where all power is vested in a single assembly subject to every gust of popular passion. The *Temps* points out how, with a radically different written constitution, we are rapidly approaching the French practice. Our cabinet has no voice, theoretically, yet, in very self-defence, its members are compelled to speak out before committees and in newspaper interviews. What greater effect would Mr. Olney's recent defiance of the Senate and House have had if delivered from the Vice-President's or the Speaker's desk? A French Minister of Foreign Affairs on the tribune could have done no more. And in the eager grasping of the Senate for control of executive functions, what have we but the spirit of the French Chamber greedily absorbing into itself all the powers of the state?

There is a great deal of solemn warning for Americans in these comparisons made by a cool and impartial French critic. We are undoubtedly seeing a temper astir in Congress which leads straight to the obliteration of executive and courts, and, especially in the conduct of foreign affairs, to the destruction of all method or consistency or decency. A large part of the ferocious hostility of Congress to Mr. Cleveland is due to the fact that he has sturdily withstood its overweening pretensions. It does not add cheer to the outlook to be told, even by the warmest friends of his successor, that McKinley is not the man to lift a finger against a majority vote in party or Congress.

The Pacific Railroads funding bill, defeated in the House on Monday, was a complicated financial measure, and it is no great wonder, therefore, that it was beaten. The chances of any complicated financial measure being understood or accepted by Congress seem to be lessening every day. But the motives which were apparently strongest in bringing about the rejection of this bill had little to do with the merits of the question. There was, first, a strong desire to get even with Oakes Ames and a lot of other dead men who made a good deal of money out of the building of the road. Then there was the chance to appear in public as an implacable enemy of corporations and blood-suckers. It was not at all clear how the blood-suckers were to be cut to the heart by the defeat of this bill, but that only made the duty of voting against it more imperative. Blood-suckers are so notoriously sly that you must vote against them even in the dark. Add the general inertia and cowardice of a short session of Congress on the eve of a new administration, and the main reasons for the defeat of the bill will have been enumerated.

Meanwhile the real crisis in the relations of the Government to the roads is left more acute than ever. The debt of the road to the Government is $112,000,000, and is secured only by a second mortgage on the main line. Ahead of this comes a first mortgage on the main line and branches. If the proposition to fund is not accepted, foreclosure would appear to be the only alternative. But this would imply, in the first place, a large issue of bonds—$60,000,000, Congressman Grosvenor said—to pay off the first mortgage, and, in the second place, Government ownership and operation of the road. But we all know how very bad it is to issue bonds, and we can guess how bad it would be for the Government to run a railroad. It is perfectly certain that every prominent constituent would have to have a pass and a position on the road for his son and get his freight carried free. Congress can seriously contemplate neither bond issues on account of the road nor its operation by the Government. The only inference is that it has shirked, and means to go on shirking, its duty to settle the question one way or another. It is the same old policy of drift. Drifting is good fun and very easy, but in the end the ship goes to smash on the rocks. However, you may always hope to be dead and well out of it first.

The speech made by Mr. Brosius of Pennsylvania in favor of the merit system in the civil service of the United States before the holiday recess is published in the *Congressional Record* of January 5. It is one of the best that have ever been made on the subject. It gives Mr. Brosius a high rank both as a statesman and a debater. Naturally such a speech could not be made without provoking controversy and calling up some past wranglings on the practical execution of the law. Thus, the merits and demerits of the first Cleveland administration and of the Harrison administration were pretty fully discussed by Mr. McMillin, Mr. Henderson, Mr. Baker, and others, including Mr. Brosius himself. In the running debate, certain members took occasion to insinuate that, in their belief, the civil-service examinations were conducted in an unfair way. Mr. Anderson of Tennessee wanted to know what was the use of having the special agents of the Land Office examined in arithmetic, algebra, and geometry. Mr. Brosius replied that the examinations were in every case prepared with reference to the work to be done and were not scholastic, technical, or bookish. Mr. Anderson then asked if the Commissioner of the General Land Office could not "talk to these gentlemen in his office, and in a few minutes find out their qualifications much better than through one of these examinations—I will not say one of these absurd examinations—one of these civil-service examinations? In other words, he knows the kind of work in which they are to be engaged." It is evident that Mr. Anderson's idea of "civil service" is as hazy as that of our Gov. Black.

Gov. Black's message is on most subjects sensible, if a little youthful. What he says about prisons, banking, insurance, labor, agriculture, the insane, education, and the excise law would be denied by none but the recreant and the vile. He is equally sound about the forests, and Greater New York, and biennial sessions. The only subject on which the old Adam appears to rise within him is the reform of the civil service. On this subject he falls into the comic error, not uncommon among politicians, of saying "civil service" when he means civil-service reform, or appointment by examination. The Governor of a great State acknowledging "the value of practical civil service" sounds very like saying that a man without hands makes a poor watchmaker. What he means is that competitive examinations for appointment to the civil service may be valuable. But in what way the civil service of the State "provides capital for many who would otherwise be bankrupt" is to us unknown. It is probably one of the Governor's state secrets. He evidently knows no more about the system now in operation than the Progressive Gruber or the Trojan Van Allen. He is evidently possessed by the Gruber idea that the examinations now made are literary, and have little or no reference to the duties of the office. Nor do we understand how "civil service" works with or without "starch."

This appears to be a bit of slang of a Troy politician, and should not have found place in a state paper. The only remedy for these obscure passages is information. The Governor should have examined the present system before writing his message, which he evidently has not done.

He calls on the Legislature to make the civil service "secure for the public; at a reasonable cost, unquestioned integrity and approved skill," etc., which is simply the usual politician's way of saying that he wishes the Legislature to let men in office "have the men they want." But we must warn him that the Legislature cannot do what it pleases in the matter. The constitutional amendment has put the "civil service" under the protection of the courts, which have decided that appointments must be made by examination, and that the examination must be competitive "so far as practicable," and it appears all but certain that the courts, and not any executive officer, will decide whether in any given case a competitive examination is practicable or not. One of the delusions under which politicians labored, at first, was that they could say themselves when an examination of any kind was necessary, and whether any examination needed to be competitive. If they had this discretion, of course, the constitutional amendment would seldom or never be put in force, and would be practically worthless. They were waked up from this by the Court of Appeals in the Aldridge case, and have ever since been rubbing their eyes and yawning, and wondering to each other whether there was no way out of this wretched business. Gov. Black seems to be still in bed on this subject.

A very striking demonstration of the real sentiment of the Republicans of the State upon the senatorship question has been made by the Buffalo *Express*. It published on Saturday about two solid pages of names of Republican voters of Erie County, over 4,000 in all, who voluntarily declared their preference for Mr. Choate for Senator. These were sent to the newspaper on postal cards within a single week, and without special effort to attract them. Gov. Black had in Erie County only 8,000 majority, so that these 4,000 voters, if they were to change to the opposite party, would completely wipe out that majority. They give their names fearlessly, and their conduct may possibly have some effect upon the Senators and Assemblymen of the county who are proposing to vote for Platt. Unquestionably they represent the views of many other Republicans who do not make public protest, and who will be heard from when the time comes to choose new Senators and Assemblymen again. There is probably no county in the State in which a canvass would not reveal a similar condition of affairs. Does anybody doubt that a canvass of this city, for example, would show an overwhelming majority of Republicans in favor of Mr. Choate? Would Mr. Platt consent to go before the people of the State as a candidate for any elective office? His dummies wished to nominate him for Governor last fall, but he would not listen to the proposition for a moment. His strength consists entirely in his ownership of the machine and of the men whom he has bought, and nobody knows this better than he.

It is the confident expectation of the Platt Republicans who are proposing to "jam through" the Legislature at this session the proposed charter for Greater New York, that they will be able to elect the first Mayor and first Municipal Assembly of the enlarged city and get possession of all the offices and patronage. They base this expectation on the vote of the various sections of the enlarged city at the election in November, which showed a plurality of 59,000 for McKinley. Taking these sections separately, and contrasting the plurality which each gave for McKinley with the plurality which each gave for Cleveland four years earlier, the following striking exhibit is made:

1896.		1892.	
New York.....	20,700	New York.....	76,000
Brooklyn.....	32,000	Brooklyn..... ...	30,000
Queens Co. towns..	3,500	Queens Co. towns .	3,300
Staten Island	1,700	Staten Island	2 000
Westchester towns	1,100	Westchester towns	1,600
Total Rep. plu...	59,000	Total Dem. plu..	112 900

This is far from being a "sure Republican" basis upon which to claim the new city. It should be borne in mind that McKinley's vote in this territory was much larger than Black's; the latter's total plurality within it being only 34,000, or 26,000 less than McKinley's. If now the Republicans put through the Legislature a charter which provides a thoroughly partisan scheme of government for the new city, what will be the first effect? Will it not be to drive back into the Democratic party all those sound-money Democrats who voted for McKinley last year? What would become of the 59,000 McKinley plurality then? It would be all lost in the present New York city if the Democrats here were to combine upon a harmony ticket. The 32,000 in Brooklyn would disappear there instantly if the Shepard Democrats were to unite with the regulars. There is in both these cities a natural Democratic majority which has never been overcome except either when the Democrats were divided, or when thousands of them consented to support an independent or citizens' ticket.

The Ohio wool-growers are again in Washington, headed by the same spokesman and making demands even more exorbitant than before. They say distinctly that the McKinley tariff was not high enough for them. That tariff gave them twelve cents a pound on clothing wool. Now they want fifteen. They want double this rate on Australian wools, to be brought about by classing all such wools as washed whether they are actually washed or not. They want other cunning provisions in reference to "skirted" wools which amount to prohibition of certain kinds of wool. Chairman Dingley asked Judge Lawrence whether any Australian wool would be brought into the country at the rates of duty proposed by him. The Judge thought there would be some, but he considered Australian wool a luxury, and thought that it ought to be subjected to a luxurious rate of duty. Even if it were wholly excluded, he said that that would be a good thing, because we paid gold for Australian wool, whereas we paid for South American wool with our products. He was asked how we should get any revenue from the duties on wool if wool were excluded, and he replied naïvely: "Why should we want any—I mean from wool? The country will be prosperous and we can get revenue from other sources." This is a conception of tariff theory which every class and interest is equally entitled to advance. If it were carried into effect, all foreign trade would be prohibited except in articles which cannot be produced in this country, such as coffee, spices, raw silk, etc., which might be made to yield $50,000,000, all the rest of the revenue being raised by internal taxation.

Senator Proctor of Vermont made a long speech on Monday in support of two amendments to the Constitution, one of which would extend the term of the President to six years and prohibit his reëlection, and the other would make the term of Representatives three years. There is one fatal objection to extending the tenure of the Executive. It is always possible that a man who was never thought of for President, and who would never have been nominated for President, may as Vice-President succeed to the office. This has happened four times within the last fifty-six years, and in three of the cases during the first few months of the term. Extend the term to six years, and we may have the White House filled for five years and eleven months of the period by a man whom the country would never have elected as President. The risks of the present system are too great to be further increased. Senator Proctor's chief argument for a change in the Representatives' term is that we now have one long session and one short, and that the first is hardly concluded before members come up for reëlection. This is a great evil, but the way to end it is not by extending the term of the Representatives. The change that is needed is one which will convene Congress in the January following an election of Representatives, and enable two long sessions to be held before the next election.

No two authorities yet agree as to the vote received by the various candidates for President at the November election. The *Tribune Almanac* makes McKinley's total 7,105,729, and the aggregate for Bryan and Sewall and Bryan and Watson 6,491,977. The *Herald* on Monday published figures from the various Secretaries of State, which make the respective totals 7,121,342 and 6,502,600. Only thirteen of the forty-five States had a Bryan and Watson ticket, and in only three of these thirteen did it secure any considerable part of the anti-McKinley strength—namely, Massachusetts, where there were 90,530 Sewall votes and 15,181 for Watson; Alabama, 107,137 for Sewall, and 24,089 for Watson; and Texas, where the "Middle-of-the-Road" men polled 76,926 for Watson as Bryan's associate, against 284,298 for Bryan and Sewall. In all, the *Herald* figures up 144,928 votes for the Watson ticket, 123,428 for the regular Prohibitionist candidate, 13,535 for the "National" party started by a faction of Prohibitionists, and 35,306 for the Socialist-Labor ticket.

The plurality for McKinley over Bryan's total on his two tickets is 618,742. In comparing the last election with previous ones, however, the fact should not be overlooked that women voted for President in November for the first time in both Colorado and Utah, and contributed nearly half of the 134,990 plurality for Bryan in Colorado and 50,986 in Utah; the excess of males in each State being slight. On the basis of previous contests, therefore, McKinley's plurality would be about 700,000. This is not so much as was claimed by Republicans immediately after the election, but it is really more impressive than the larger plurality of 763,007 for Grant over Greeley in 1872. In that year the Republicans still controlled the count in most of the Southern States, and gave Grant such majorities as 50,000 in South Carolina and 35,000 in Mississippi. In the great Northern States between the Hudson River and the Mississippi, Bryan as a rule was beaten far more badly than Greeley—by 268,325 in New York, for example, as against 53,455 in 1872; 295,072 in Pennsylvania, as compared with 137,548; 141,517 in Illinois, against 57,006; and 102,612 in Wisconsin, against 18,520. Indiana and Michigan are the only States in all this section which fell behind the record of 1872.

An extraordinary complaint comes from New Hampshire—that the Legislature which has just assembled has not lawyers enough to fill the places on committees that require the services of members of the bar. There are but three lawyers among the twenty-four members of the Senate and only nine among the 357 Representatives, whereas it has been customary to place ten or eleven lawyers upon the judiciary committee of the House, and they have also been thought necessary upon the committee on revision of the statutes and as chairmen of the elections committee. Except in the cases of two or three Populist Legislatures, where the prejudice of that party against the legal profession found expression, we do not recall an instance where a complaint of the dearth of lawyers in such a body has been heard. The usual complaint of the farmer is that there are too many lawyers. It seems that the present situation in New Hampshire is only the culmination of a tendency which has been observed for some years. One reason is that the sessions come at a time when courts are held in some counties, and work must be prepared for courts that sit later in other counties, so that lawyers with plenty of business are not inclined to give the time to legislative service that is required. Constituencies are also less disposed now than formerly to reëlect a member, and the average lawyer is less tempted to go to the Legislature when he can generally expect to serve only a single term.

Sir William Harcourt's last budget revealed great national prosperity, but it is thought that Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's first budget will surpass it. From the returns now in for nine months of the fiscal year, it is figured that the revenue will exceed the estimates by from $10,000,000 to $12,500,000. Almost every item outruns anticipations—customs, excise, stamps, death duties, income tax—which is the surest proof of widespread prosperity. The Board of Trade returns for 1896 and the accounts of Christmas shopping have the same tale to tell. As usual, the thick-headed English are rejoicing that their imports so largely outstrip their exports. It is really painful to see a great nation, in an age that has produced a McKinley and a Méline, given over to the strong delusion that having and enjoying the good things of life is better than selling them to somebody else to enjoy. No wonder that such a belated and benighted people cling to the gold standard and free trade.

The agitation in Ireland over the report of the Commissioners on Taxation, showing that Ireland is overtaxed, in comparison with England and Scotland, about $12,500,000, promises to make Irish questions stand in the way of all other legislation in the next session of Parliament. The *Times* and some other English newspapers meet the matter in rather a savage anti-Irish spirit which only adds fuel to the flame, while even the high Tory Irish papers, such as the *Evening Mail* in Dublin, have gone over to the enemy. The Unionists and Home-Rulers have, in fact, joined forces, and stand together on platforms all over the country, as laborers in a common cause; such men as Smith Barry, the demon landlord, standing shoulder to shoulder with the demon Home-Ruler, "Tim" Healy. The English answer is simply that the Irish are overtaxed because they drink too much whiskey; to which the Irish reply that they will drink as much whiskey as they please, and that if they drink more whiskey than the English, they drink less beer, and that even if their taxes were equal, it is unfair to make them, a poor people, pay the expense of keeping up a gorgeous empire which they neither desire nor admire. The English reply that Ireland cannot be treated as a "separate entity"; to which the Irish rejoin with a large number of cases in which Ireland is treated as a separate entity by the imperial Parliament, notably in the matter of coercion. None of the coercion bills have applied to England or Scotland, and Ireland is not allowed, as other parts of the kingdom are, to have her say regarding her local legislation. To this the English rejoin that the Irish never unite till they see a chance of getting hold of some of John Bull's money; so that general recrimination is not far off. The difficulty of the situation for the Government is that "the English garrison," on whose behalf mainly the Conservatives said they opposed home rule, has turned against them—something which has not occurred since the Union. This alliance is undoubtedly an excellent thing for Ireland, but is full of embarrassment for the Ministry, and they may easily aggravate its consequences by too acrid or contemptuous a tone. On this subject the Irish will command 105 votes, the like of which has never been seen. The last time the English garrison revolted was in 1782, but there were no Catholic voters or representatives.

A recent trial in France brought to light some curious details of the capital that may be made in attacking capital, and of the good things that even a corrupt and bourgeois society may afford to its fiercest denouncer and enemy. It was a suit in which the profits of Rochefort from the *Intransigeant*, in the seven years 1889-1896, were put in evidence. When he went to Belgium with Boulanger in 1889, he left his paper in charge of M. Vaughan, with whom he has since quarrelled, and who has sued him for services rendered. An accounting was demanded, and from it it appears that Rochefort in the seven years mentioned received a salary of $20,000 a year, besides dividends amounting all told to $200,000 more—or nearly $50,000 a year. This was not bad for a paper black in the face every day over the injustice and oppression of a bourgeois society. However, Rochefort will have more reason than ever to think badly of a bourgeois society since a bourgeois tribunal has condemned him to pay a good round sum to the employees whom he was proposing to cheat.

THE ARBITRATION TREATY.

THE fact that a treaty of general arbitration between this country and Great Britain had been negotiated and was nearly ready for final signature, was made known some weeks since, and was received with lively satisfaction by the press and public on both sides of the water, and without a single dissenting voice, so far as our observation goes. The text of the treaty, which is now published, confirms all that was expected of it, and encourages the belief that it will soon be ratified. The only note of discord that has been heard thus far is that of an ultra-Tory organ of small circulation in London. The English press generally gives hearty approval to the treaty, and in this respect is in entire accord with that of the United States so far as it has been heard from. The next question is whether our Senate will ratify it by the requisite two-thirds majority. We do not share the doubts that have been expressed on this point, for although the present Senate has shown itself extremely nervous on the subject of foreign relations, it has always been in reference to some particular thing, not to things in general. It is true that, as to Cuba and Venezuela, it has been more touchy than was needful, but that does not imply that it is opposed to arbitration, either in the abstract or in the concrete. This is the same Senate in the main that agreed to the Bering Sea arbitration, and this fact carries a good deal of assurance to the friends of the treaty. It was discovered, moreover, when the great arbitration conference was held in Washington last April, that the Senators were then favorably impressed with the project, and many of those whose attitude had been considered doubtful were inclined to give it their support. It is safe to assume that if public opinion throughout the country is as favorable to the treaty now as it was at the time when the conference was held, ratification will speedily follow.

Whether the treaty be ratified or not, the moral effect of it cannot be lost, and it is moral effect mostly that is sought for in the effort to bring it about. It puts off the motives leading to war. It accustoms the public mind to forbearance, moderation, discussion, negotiation. It causes waiting, and waiting is almost always promotive of peace. It teaches the public to expect peace rather than war, and to exhaust peaceful methods before resorting to war. When we look back upon all the bloodshed that has smeared the pages of history, at the misery and destruction that have checked the march of civilization and put a stigma upon religion itself, we must welcome as a priceless blessing the very smallest gain to the cause of peace. So we are bound to consider this treaty, even if we can imagine its rejection by the Senate, as one of the greatest triumphs of the century that is now closing—a triumph which ought to immortalize every man who has had, or shall yet have, a hand in bringing it about. If it should be rejected now, the work of resuscitation would begin again at once, and the only difference would be that the honor of carrying it into effect would belong to others.

The details of the treaty are not substantially different from those heretofore published. The fixed term of the treaty is five years. At the expiration of that time either party may withdraw by giving twelve months' notice. The promoters of the treaty did not contemplate so short a term of duration, but they will undoubtedly conclude that it is a great gain to secure any treaty which provides for arbitration before the case for arbitration arises. The greatest difficulty they had to meet was the opposition of those who said that the whole scheme was impracticable. These opposers on both sides of the water were good men and good lawyers. They were men of experience in political science, and as patriotic as anybody, and if they had not been met by those of equal learning and experience, the movement could not have succeeded at all. The result shows once more that where there is a will there is a way. It is true that the treaty has yet to be subjected to the test of experience, but it is now proved that a working plan can be put on paper that gives every promise of satisfactory results. And here it may be observed again that the main object in view is the determination of the public mind towards arbitration. This is an end in itself much more important than any single adjustment, since, as Mr. Lincoln once said, "without public opinion nothing can succeed; with it nothing can fail."

Whatever else may be said for or against the work in hand, the highest praise must be awarded to Mr. Olney and Sir Julian Pauncefote for their admirable grasp of the subject they had to deal with, and for the concise and lucid embodiment of the ideas which they had to express. Not even our Declaration of Independence, Jefferson's masterpiece in composition, surpasses the treaty in clearness of diction. To this achievement must have contributed the fortunate elimination of "national honor" as an obstructive proviso.

SPREAD OF THE MACHINE.

NEW YORK, Pennsylvania, and Illinois are the three largest States in the Union. All three were carried by the Republicans in the November election by overwhelming majorities. All three are to elect United States Senators this month, and the Republican legislators, who have the choice, held caucuses last week which either settled or clearly foreshadowed the result. In all three cases it was demonstrated that a machine absolutely controls the dominant party, and so rules the State.

The Republican caucus at Albany was nothing more than a meeting to record the decisions, as to the speakership and other offices, reached by Boss Platt in this city. Platt's organ in the press, the *Sun*, openly proclaims this fact. "The places at the disposal of the caucus," says its Albany dispatch, "had been portioned out weeks and months ago, and the session to-night was a mere formality to register the decrees already made."

The Republican caucus at Harrisburg settled the question of the senatorship by nominating as Quay's colleague Quay's man, a young Philadelphia lawyer, by a vote of nearly two to one. The business men of Philadelphia, who so often have raised corruption funds for Quay to handle in political campaigns, turned against him this time and supported Wanamaker; but they had made the monarch of the commonwealth too strong to be dethroned. The situation was clearly portrayed by Mr. Wanamaker on the eve of his defeat, when he said: "It seems as if a lease to Pennsylvania had been handed over by some one, as if it were a lease to a farm that carried with it a million of voters as if they were Irish tenants."

At Springfield the one question was whether what is known as "the State machine" can control the Legislature and elect Madden, the "boodle Alderman" of Chicago, as United States Senator. The test was to come over the nomination of Speaker in the Republican caucus. The machine devised a very shrewd scheme. Schubert, a German member from Chicago, was put forward as its nominal choice, with Curtis, a rural Representative, as its real man, whom it could bring to the front after the expected and inevitable revolt of the countrymen against letting Chicago "hog everything." The plan worked exactly as had been arranged. Governor-elect Tanner threw all his influence in favor of Curtis, and easily carried the caucus. The new Governor will now use the State patronage in behalf of the machine candidate for Senator, and no doubt of Madden's election is any longer entertained.

The Platt and Quay machines are familiar to the country. The Illinois machine is a new product in a State which has never before been thus ruled, and is consequently a subject worthy of national study. It had its origin in the city of Chicago. Something over two years ago several ward politicians, who had been active but never prominent workers in the Republican party, conceived the idea of forming an offensive and defensive office-getting "combine," to seize and parcel out all the local offices worth having, without fighting over them and struggling to snatch them from one another. This close corporation came to be known as "the 12:45 club," from the agreement of its members to meet at the lunch hour and work up their schemes. The "combine" was formed at a peculiarly favora-

ble time, when a Republican tidal wave was seen to be sweeping over the country. It consequently had little difficulty in electing the "slate" which it carried through the county convention of 1894. The next year the 12:45 club secured control of the Republican county central committee, which meant the power to boss the primaries, select delegates, dominate conventions, and dictate candidates. This put the combination in a position where it could lay hands on all the county offices, members of the Legislature, and other places to be filled in 1896, although, to prevent possibility of any trouble, the county convention was called early in the spring, when nobody was prepared for it, instead of being postponed until autumn, according to all the precedents.

Meanwhile, the Chicago managers had been cementing an alliance with various prominent Republican politicians in other parts of Illinois, by which State offices were to be disposed of for the common interest. Tanner was picked out as the candidate for Governor—a man so bad that the Chicago *Times-Herald*, which supported McKinley, could not urge its readers to vote for him, even in preference to Altgeld. Other choice positions, local and State, were apportioned among the members of the ring, until only the United States senatorship remained to be disposed of. This was assigned to an illiterate and corrupt ward politician of Chicago, on the ground that he "must have something," and that this was the only thing left to give him!

Many of the nominations made by the machine were unsatisfactory to the better class of Republicans, but the overshadowing issue of Bryanism carried them through. During the canvass nothing was said openly about the senatorship, but soon after the election the machine announced Madden as its choice. An earnest protest was at once raised by self-respecting Republicans, but the ring has not seemed much disturbed. It had nominated and elected its men; it believed that it could depend upon them, and last week's caucus justified its confidence. With a delicate consideration for sensitive members, it has been arranged that the vote for Senator in the Republican caucus for that officer shall be taken secretly, so that any rural member who dreads the condemnation of his constituents for carrying out his bargain with the ring may conceal his action.

The now apparently assured election of Madden to the Senate means the instalment in absolute power in Chicago and Illinois of a Republican machine as bad as anything ever known in New York city and State. The Chicago *Tribune*, which has been exposing the development of the plot, says of its success:

"The election of Madden for United States Senator will signify the creation of a Chicago Tammany to boss the city and State with Republican leaders and Democratic auxiliaries, which will dictate the Legislature as absolutely and before long as corruptly as a dishonest combination of Republican and Democratic Aldermen has bossed the Council and despoiled the city."

The machine is thus supreme in the three greatest States of the Union. It is exhibiting alarming power in many other States. It gives the country Platt as Senator from New York; Quay's man from Pennsylvania; a Chicago "boodle Alderman" from Illinois. Having done this, it asks the people, "What are you going to do about it?" Unless that question shall be effectively answered, democratic government as it was conceived by the framers of the Constitution will have ceased to exist in the United States.

THE CHARTER.

THE action of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday in regard to the proposed charter for Greater New York is a welcome sign that the people of this city are awaking to the great importance of this question. It would be an astonishing thing if Platt and Lauterbach and Lexow and O'Grady were to be permitted to have their way in this matter, while the genuine citizens of the metropolis remained in too great indifference even to utter a request for reasonable consideration. That such consideration has not been granted, and was not intended from the first to be granted, we have pointed out many times. Mr. Hewitt's excellent statement of the case in his speech before the Chamber made this point more clear than ever. He showed, in words which ought to sting the self-respect of the people of the city into a vigorous and effective assertion of itself, how abject our condition is. We are given no voice in the adoption of a new government for our city. We are informed that the charter will be "jammed through" in the form in which it suits Platt, and that protests from any other source will not be heeded.

What need is there of passing a charter this winter? Does anybody know of any one except the Platt politicians who favors such speedy passage? Why can we not have more time for its consideration, and why can we not be allowed to have it submitted to the people for adoption after its completion? There is only one reason, and that is because Platt has decided that we must have a new government adopted before the election this fall. It was Platt who decided that we must have a charter prepared by a commission, rather than by a convention, and it was Platt who decided that the work must be done within a few months. From first to last the people of the city have been permitted to have no voice in the matter. It is entirely consistent, therefore, that they are to be permitted no voice in its final adoption, but are to take whatever Platt orders his Legislature to give them. The hearings, with their limitation of twenty minutes for each speaker, and a total of only twelve days, for all branches of the subject, begun before the full charter has been laid before the public, are, as Mr. Hewitt says, an absurdity. This is not discussion or consideration, and it is not surprising that so few persons consent to dignify the proceedings by taking part in them.

We had a speedy confirmation of Mr. Hewitt's view in the announcement that, at a secret session on Thursday, the Commission decided to cut down the number of its proposed Municipal Assembly from 141 to 89, and to change the method of electing the 60 members of the lower house by going back to the present system of choosing them from Assembly districts. So far as they reduce the numbers of the proposed Legislature the changes are an improvement, but the reversion to the present district method cuts off all hope of change for the better in the character of the Aldermen. The new lower house would simply be the present Boards of Aldermen of New York and Brooklyn consolidated, and what kind of a body that would give us we can all imagine. The idea that better government could be looked for from such a body is absurd. As it stands, the proposed Municipal Assembly is not a particle less objectionable than it was before. It is still large enough to be irresponsible, there is nothing gained by having it divided into two houses, and the district method of election cuts off all hope of improvement in its personnel. In view of its present composition, the plea that it would be a useful school for education in the science of government becomes positively grotesque. Who ever heard of a useful public servant coming up through our Board of Aldermen? Occasionally some respectable man has got in there, but he has been an educated man before he entered. No uneducated man has ever obtained there any training except in political trickery and crime. As a Chicago Alderman said recently of his associates, "The only learning a Chicago Alderman has needed, of late, is to know where the man is who had the 'stuff.'" That is the kind of school in the science of government which the district system of electing local legislators collects for us.

There are two ways of criticising the charter scheme. One is to look at it as a piece of abstract constitution-making like those in which the Abbé Sieyès used to indulge, or under which such communities as Spanish-American republics live to-day—that is, a charter for a model city like Glasgow or Birmingham, in which the more intelligent classes still rule, in which offices exist for the public service only, in which the tenure is permanent, and popular attention is confined at municipal elections to municipal affairs, and in which bosses, in our sense of the term, have never been heard of, and are indeed hardly conceivable. The other is to consider first of all the special needs, dangers, and necessities of the community for which the constitution is framed, as indicated by the character of the popula-

tion, by its established political manners, and by its political experience, if it has any experience.

Judged in the first way, there is really very little to be said against the charter. Messrs. Dillon, Low, Tracy, and De Witt have produced a very creditable piece of work. The ideal city ought to have just such an Assembly, such a Mayor, and such a Board of Improvements as these gentlemen propose. No lawgiver of modern times could have done much better if he had labored as these gentlemen have labored, *in vacuo*—that is, without reference to the existing conditions or requirements of any particular city. Approaching the charter in the other way, one reads the report of the committee almost with astonishment. We hold it to be the first virtue and first necessity of a constitution, framed for a particular community, to take into account the peculiarities or weaknesses of that community, as revealed by its past history. The organic law is meant to supply the special needs, not of any collection of good and wise men, but of that particular city. Accordingly, in looking into the history of New York for the last thirty years—that is, ever since it began to assume a metropolitan character—we find that what it has suffered from most of all, over and above the ignorance and shortsightedness of large numbers of its people, is, first, the fact that the city has been a football between the two great federal parties; the fact that the Mayors, Comptrollers, and Aldermen have been elected, not because of their fitness, but because of their opinions about reconstruction, the tariff, or Hawaii; the fact that the State Legislature at Albany has interfered frequently to make its franchises, offices and property useful in federal contests to the party commanding a majority; the fact that the voters have had a tendency to consider public places, not as instruments of public comfort and convenience, but as rewards for political activity to which men of the lowest character and most sordid motives may fairly become entitled.

These things were fully described in the report of the Tilden Commission in 1877, drawn in the main by Mr. James C. Carter. That Commission sought in its way, possibly a futile way, to provide for them. Since then a large number of enlightened citizens have labored with more experience and greater light, aided powerfully by the revelations of the Lexow committee, to turn the thoughts of the New York people to the true remedy for their woes and shortcomings—the resolute exclusion of all federal questions from the administration of their municipal affairs; the election of all officers on purely municipal grounds; and steady resistance to the interference of the Albany Legislature with their concerns for federal party purposes, and to the control of their government in any degree by outside politicians under the name of "bosses."

We have looked through the report of the committee in vain for any allusion to the evils from which the city is suffering and has suffered, or to the probability that these evils will reproduce themselves, on a still larger scale and with more mischief, in the Greater New York. The community is treated as virgin soil which simply needs cultivation in his own fashion by a Solon or a Minos. Nay, more; far from discouraging the party spirit in the conduct of city affairs, which has given us a succession of bosses, a foul and debauched police, an ignorant and corrupt Board of Education, a degraded magisterial bench, and dirty streets, it actually makes provision for its preservation and even promotion. The following passage is, in view of the facts of our case, very surprising:

> "The sentiment is indeed growing which tends to persuade the population of our American cities to vote at municipal elections on city issues, rather than on State or national issues. Nevertheless, the great body of the American people still go to the polls in cities on election day animated by partisan sentiments. Habits are slowly changed, whether by individuals or by communities, and it must be inferred that the political habits of the American electors in this particular will yield only slowly to the discipline and instruction of events."

So, in order to change the habits of the "American elector" and give him "the discipline and instruction of events," the commission provides for the election of an Assembly first of 141 salaried members and now of 89, to hold office for two years without the slightest protection against change or abolition (for political reasons) at the hands of the Albany Legislature, armed with no powers for which there is any apparent necessity, or which can have any effect but to furnish more places for the reigning boss to fill, to stimulate the unhappy feeling of the importance of federal opinions in city affairs, and to make every district a focus of low and debasing intrigue for purely federal-party purposes. "It ought to attract men of the highest character and intelligence," says the report. "Ought" is good. Will it? is the question which every man of sense and intelligence will ask himself, and which the committee ought to have asked themselves and answered. This remarkable supposition, too, is produced at a moment when the Legislature at Albany, the superior body, is absolutely "owned" by the boss for the time being, when he can by a wave of his hand prohibit or promote any species of legislation, can send any one he pleases to the United States Senate, and is at this moment rejecting for that office one of our foremost citizens in favor of a silent, corrupt, and ignorant demagogue. No wonder Tammany is in favor of a charter; no wonder that Croker has gone over to Brooklyn to lay his plans for the future with McLaughlin; no wonder Lauterbach has appeared as a "machine man" at the "hearing" to support it; and no wonder that Platt proposes to "jam it through." But where are the old-fashioned Americans?

THE ARMENIAN HORROR.

Mr. James Bryce has annexed to the new edition of his volume, 'Transcaucasia and Ararat,' just published by Macmillan, a supplementary chapter entitled "Twenty Years of the Armenian Question." This is an historical sketch of the relations of the Armenians of Asia Minor to the Turkish Government, and of their treatment by it since his last visit to their country in 1877. It has the great merit of containing as correct a narrative as we can procure of the recent troubles, largely compiled from official sources, by one who was a member of the British cabinet during some of these years.

His story is that the Armenians, barring more or less robbery by the Kurds, the wild tribes who live on their frontier, enjoyed as much piece and security as any other Christians in Turkey until the Russian war in 1877 consequent on the "Bulgarian atrocities," and the interference of England for the protection of Turkey against Russia. This intervention of England, followed by the Anglo-Turkish treaty, in which she constituted herself the special protector of the Christians, and the loss of the greater part of his European dominions, made the Sultan uneasy, and excited great hopes among the Armenians of a change in their condition. These feelings were increased by the appointment of military British consuls in many parts of Asia Minor. England was expected to occupy herself seriously with the sufferings and disabilities of the Christians. She for a time appeared to do so, and made a good many protests and remonstrances on their behalf. These protests and remonstrances produced, after a while, no effect, and finally ceased. The Sultan, finding they had ceased, and hearing more and more of the formation of revolutionary Armenian committees abroad, became sterner and more determined in his attitude towards his Armenian subjects. The Kurds were allowed to rob with more impunity, and the judges in all cases became more hostile. It was well known in Mussulman official circles that the Sultan was in this state of mind and had resolved on severe measures. The saying of a Turkish Minister, that "the way to get rid of the Armenian question was to get rid of the Armenians," was said to have been adopted as the policy of the Government. But all the British consuls reported that the Christian population in Armenia was quiet and patient, and that there was no sign among them of revolutionary purposes, though more and more persons were accused of such purposes, thrown into prison, and even tortured.

To make a long story short, in 1894, on the pretence that some districts were resisting the payment of their taxes, a large body of regular Turkish troops was sent to punish them for insubordination in the usual Turkish fashion—by wholesale massacre of men, women, and children. The British Consul estimated

the number of those who were killed at 900. Other well-informed persons put it at 1,500. There were, as usual, fruitless British remonstrances, and for a year nothing happened. Finding he had nothing to fear from the European Powers, the Sultan resumed the massacres in September, 1895, and sixteen in different places occurred before the end of the year. All Armenians of all sexes and ages were slaughtered or burnt alive in their dwellings, and the women frequently violated. That these massacres were executed by superior order and were not outbursts of religious fanaticism, Mr. Bryce concludes from the fact that regular troops were engaged in them, that they ceased immediately on the receipt of orders to that effect, and that all foreigners were scrupulously respected wherever known. The evidence connecting the Government with them is summed up in a powerful volume by Dr. Lepsius of Berlin, entitled 'Armenien und Europa.' The British Ambassador, writing in January, 1896, put the known number of the slain down at 25,000, excluding massacres of which no details had reached him. Dr. Lepsius estimated the whole number up to June, 1896, at 85,000.

Mr. Bryce, speaking in a recent address at Aberdeen of what Great Britain might have done, said:

"The apologists of the Government tell us, by way of excuse for the submissive inaction of Britain, that her independent action would provoke a European war. No person of weight or experience has, so far as I know, yet suggested that we should do anything which would provoke a European war. Such a war would be a dire calamity, and it would not save the Armenians, who would be the first to perish if a European war broke out. But it has never yet been shown that a European war need have followed independent action by Britain. What I have recently learned, from sources at Constantinople quite as well informed as any one here can be, convinces me that the British fleet might with safety to itself, and without risk of war, have been sent to Constantinople in November, 1895, just after the first massacre, and that its appearance then would have stopped the massacres which in fact followed. The Turkish forts, such as they are, were not then prepared, nor would any other Power have deemed our action, when its disinterested motives had been explained, a *casus belli*."

He further pointed out that Lord Salisbury paid no attention to the suggestions made to him that there were places outside the Dardanelles in which the Sultan might be coerced, and that the American Minister might very well have made the loss and sufferings of the American missionaries a reason for threatening the Sultan in a way that would have incidentally helped the Christians generally; but he proved "unequal to the occasion." In other words, he was more interested in being a *persona grata* at the Yildiz Kiosk than in helping Christians. To the American missionaries themselves Mr. Bryce pays the following tribute, which is worth quoting:

"I cannot mention the American missionaries without a tribute to the admirable work they have done. They have been the only good influence that has worked from abroad upon the Turkish Empire. They have shown great judgment and tact in their relations with the ancient churches of the land, Orthodox, Gregorian, Jacobite, Nestorian, and Catholic. They have lived cheerfully in the midst, not only of hardships, but latterly of serious dangers also. They have been the first to bring the light of education and learning into these dark places, and have rightly judged that it was far better to diffuse that light through their schools than to aim at a swollen roll of converts. From them alone, if we except the British consuls, has it been possible during the last thirty years to obtain trustworthy information regarding what passes in the interior."

We need hardly add that the missionaries have fully confirmed nearly all the accounts of the atrocities.

The general summing up of Mr. Bryce's narrative is, that the massacres were deliberately planned as a political measure; that either England alone or the great Powers might have stopped them in a very early stage; that the discredit of non-interference falls more heavily on England than on any other, as she alone had a separate treaty with the Porte, providing for Christian protection, and, indeed, guaranteeing it, and had prevented Russia in 1877 from reducing the Porte to helplessness; that the responsibility of this hesitation or timidity must be borne by Lord Salisbury, who himself, in 1877, formulated the policy which made England in a certain sense an ex-officio patron of the Christians. There are some plain inferences to be drawn from this, though Mr. Bryce does not draw them. The principal one is, that, contrary to the general expectation, Lord Salisbury has not proved to be a man of action at all; that his epigrammatic and caustic speech really gives no idea of his real character, which at crises is apparently one of great irresolution; that at Berlin he was probably dominated completely by Disraeli, and that the Irish are the only people who have any reason to be afraid of him.

MORE SAVANTS IN CONVENTION.

JANUARY 3, 1897.

ON the last three days of the year just passed, the Modern Language Association of America and the Central Division of the Association held their annual meetings — the National Society at Cleveland, as the guests of Western Reserve University, and the Central Division at St. Louis, as the guests of Washington University. The National Society has usually met in the East, most often at Washington, last year at New Haven. Western members thus found it difficult and expensive to attend the meetings, and, as Western Reserve University had for some years invited the Society to its halls, the invitation was accepted, and, for the second time since its organization, the Society crossed the Alleghanies and made it possible for a larger number of Western men to attend its sessions. In fact, it was generally understood that the Central Division would reciprocate and meet with the National Society. The step taken by the national body was, however, misunderstood, and the committee with whom the final decision rested called the meeting of the Central Division at St. Louis, and for the same days on which the National Society was to meet at Cleveland. For a time it seemed as though the two bodies would drift quite apart, but better counsels prevailed, and supplementary resolutions defining terms of coörganization were adopted.

Under the circumstances, it is of much interest to observe what parts of the country were represented at each meeting. The National Society listened to papers from Rhode Island, New York, Ohio, Michigan, and Maryland—really a very restricted territory. With one exception, the New England people found Cleveland too far west, while the only representatives of the South came from Johns Hopkins, the birthplace of the society and the home of its secretary and treasurer. There were no papers from west of Ann Arbor and none from Canada. Of members not reading papers there were representatives from all parts of the North as far west as Iowa; but the Ohio colleges furnished the larger number. On the other hand, neglecting the two papers sent on from Stanford University, the St. Louis meeting listened to papers from Missouri, Illinois, Indiana, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana; that is, from States bordering on or very near the Mississippi. Not counting the delegation from Chicago, the birthplace of the Central Division and the home of its secretary, readers of papers at St. Louis were almost exclusively from the middle South. It is thus evident that the two bodies are representative of the North and the South at least as much as they are of the East and the West. The point of nearest approach is in the Northwest, where the two leading institutions part company, Chicago sending a large delegation and three papers to St. Louis, and Michigan doing the same by Cleveland.

The representation at either convention naturally depends somewhat on the place where the meeting is held. Thus, when the National Society met at New Haven a year ago, nine papers were brought from New England colleges, and five from the University of Pennsylvania; but this year Pennsylvania sent no papers at all to Cleveland, and all New England sent but one. The institutions that are well represented, regardless of the place of meeting, are Michigan and Johns Hopkins; the former sending three papers to both New Haven and Cleveland, the latter sending two to New Haven and three to Cleveland. Such facts as these had to be considered when choice was made of the place of the next meeting, and Philadelphia was decided upon —in spite of hearty invitations from Toronto and Virginia—in order that the meeting might not so soon again be far from New England and the eastern Southern States.

The opening paper at Cleveland was by Prof. Hempl of Ann Arbor, and explained the difference between such words as learnèd —learn'd, blessèd—bless'd, etc., as due to the different rhythmical conditions under which the adjective and the participle respectively occur. In the absence of Prof. Wood of Johns Hopkins, his paper on Goethe's sonnets was read by his assistant, Dr. Baker, and aroused considerable interest. Prof. Scott of Ann Arbor presented a suggestive point of view from which to study the development of power in the command of language, but his title, "Diseases of English Prose: A Study in Rhetorical Pathology," did not find favor. Dr. McKnight of Cornell gave a résumé of his studies in the order of words in primitive Teutonic. In a paper on *b* after *r* and *l* in Gothic, Prof. Hench of Michigan showed the invalidity of the grounds on which this *b* has hitherto been regarded as a stop consonant.

The method pursued by Dr. Charles Davidson in his paper on "The So-called Eye-Rimes in *o* in Modern English," subjected the paper to criticism. There were two papers on comparative literature—one by Dr. Meyer of Western Reserve University, on "Machiavelli and the Elizabethan Drama," and one by Mr. R. E Neil Dodge of Brown University on "Spenser's Debt to Ariosto." And Dr. Marden of Johns Hopkins read a paper on the "Crónica de los rimos antiquos." The boundaries of the *ka-* and *che-* districts in the north of France were traced by Dr. Bonnotte, also of Johns Hopkins. Dr. Woodward of Columbia made an interesting report of the work of the Rumanian Academy, and read a paper sent by Prof. Todd, giving an account of the life and work of Gaston Paris.

The address delivered on Tuesday evening by Prof. Thomas of Columbia, President of the Association, on "Literature and Personality," not only was a very satisfactory presidential address, but was at the same time preeminently the most valuable paper of the session; reminding one of the address delivered some years ago at the meeting at Cambridge by the Society's distinguished President, James Russell Lowell. Among the papers read at St. Louis, one by Prof. Fluegel of Stanford, presenting some new interpretations of certain passages in Chaucer's Prologue, and one by Prof. Weeks of the University of Missouri, on experimental physics, demand special mention.

JANUARY 3, 1897.

At the twelfth annual meeting of the American Historical Association, which was held in this city on December 29-31, an important step towards future prosperity was taken, some interesting papers were read and discussed, the first report of a commission destined to do great things for the future of the study of American history was presented, and a committee was appointed which may materially assist in the needed work of regularizing education in history in the secondary schools. The large attendance of members from all parts of the country testified to the wisdom of the council in fixing New York as the place of meeting, and the arrangements made by the local committee were generally commended. At the Tuesday morning session, President Warfield of Lafayette College read a paper on Melanchthon, with special reference to the celebration of the quater-centenary of his birth, and among the other papers to be noted was a vigorous declaration by Mr. C. H. Hart of Philadelphia that Peale's celebrated original portrait of Washington was only defaced and not destroyed by the Tories in the days of the Revolution. In the evening Dr. Storrs of Brooklyn gave his address as President of the Association, in which he emphasized the services to the country of men hardly mentioned by the historians.

The most interesting feature of the Wednesday morning session was a brilliant paper by Prof. J. W. Burgess of Columbia University on "Political Science and History," which was followed by a lively discussion; and in the evening session there took place a conference on the teaching of history in which Profs. Herbert B. Adams of Johns Hopkins University, Emerton of Harvard, Andrews of Bryn Mawr, McMaster of the University of Pennsylvania, and Robinson of Columbia were the speakers. The lateness of the hour prevented the discussion from being as fruitful as had been hoped, and it was generally desired that the subject might be further discussed at the next annual meeting.

At the Thursday morning session, Prof. Jameson of Brown University presented the first report of the Historical Manuscripts Commission, which was constituted by the Association last year. This Commission has set out in workmanlike fashion to do for the United States what the Royal Historical Manuscripts Commission has for some years been doing for Great Britain. Its first task has been to discover what manuscript material exists for American history in public or private hands. The first part of the report, which will in due time be issued to the members of the Association, deals with this question, and the Commission will next proceed to print, in full and not in the form of calendars, series of the most important documents it has brought to light. Prof. Jameson's report was listened to with deep interest, and was followed by a paper by Prof. F. J. Turner of Wisconsin, on "The West as a Field for Historical Study." This paper was read by Mr. Reuben G. Thwaites, and was favorably commented upon in effective speeches by Professors McLaughlin of Michigan and Woodrow Wilson of Princeton.

At the last session, on Thursday evening, it was recommended that the next meeting of the Association should be held at Cleveland on the last three days of 1897, and the names of the officers for the year were announced. Mr. James Schouler was chosen president, Dr. George P. Fisher and Mr. J. F. Rhodes, vice-presidents, and the other officers of the Association were reëlected, with the addition of Dr. E. M. Gallaudet of Washington in the place of the late Dr. G. Brown Goode. At this concluding session a letter was read from the National Educational Association, requesting that a committee should be deputed from the Historical Association to draw up a scheme of historical instruction for secondary schools in conjunction with a committee of its own. The request was favorably received, for one of the great needs in historical teaching is better coördination between the secondary schools and the colleges, and a committee was appointed to deal with the question consisting of Professors George B. Adams, Lucy M. Salmon, Herbert B. Adams, Charles H. Haskins, and H. Morse Stephens, with power to add two to their number.

No account of the recent meeting would be complete without some mention of its social success. It was feared that the change from Washington, where the kindly hospitality of the Cosmos Club had always been so much appreciated, to New York, would cause the cessation of that friendly intercourse between the older and younger historians and teachers of history, and between former colleagues and former masters and pupils, which had been such an attractive feature of the gatherings of the Association. To prevent the scattering of the members, a room was hired in the Windsor Hotel as the headquarters of the Association, in which the friendly intercourse of the Cosmos Club was renewed upon a larger scale. The local committee went a step further, and organized an Association breakfast, which was held at the Windsor Hotel on Wednesday, December 30. Dr. Storrs presided, and over a hundred members sat down to the breakfast. The speeches which followed were brief, but effective, especially those of the genial chairman, of Mr. Justin Winsor, of Mr. Edward Eggleston, and of President Gates of Amherst. This brief mention of the social features of the meeting should not conclude without a word of recognition for the kindness of the Authors' Club, which invited members of the Association to be present at their unique watch-night celebration; and a cordial mention of the untiring labors of the local committee, Mr. C. W. Bowen and Prof. W. A. Dunning, to which the success of the meeting was mainly due.

It should be added that the annual meeting of the guarantors of the *American Historical Review* was held in connection with the meeting of the Association. The Hon. Peter White of Marquette, Mich., was elected chairman of the meeting, Prof. W. M. Sloane was reëlected an editor of the *Review*, and a vote of thanks was passed to the board for its successful labors during the past year.

JANUARY 3, 1897.

The fifth annual meeting of the American Psychological Association was held in Boston and Cambridge in connection with the American Naturalists and the Affiliated Societies on December 29 and 30. The programme was very crowded, and was made more so by the setting apart of the whole of Tuesday afternoon for the Naturalists' discussion of Heredity. The business meetings were agreeably broken by the luncheon given by the President and Fellows of Harvard College on Wednesday, and by the lecture and reception by Professor Agassiz on Tuesday evening. The two tributes to the memory of Louis Agassiz, made respectively by President Eliot and Prof. W. James, were heard and appreciated by the members of all the societies. In the programme of the Psychologists there was little that lends itself to popular statement. Perhaps most of the members would agree that the most interesting experimental communication was made by Prof. G. A. Tawney, formerly of Princeton, now of Beloit College, Wisconsin, who showed the extraordinary influence which suggestion has in the discrimination of two points in contact with the skin. He found that the reduction of the "double-point threshold"—the smallest distance apart at which two points are apprehended as two—is reduced by practice not alone for the region directly stimulated, and not alone for the homologous points on the opposite side of the body, but also for the whole surface. The variations which he was able to introduce in the results both for simultaneous and for successive two-point stimulations, led him to the conclusion that suggestion directly influenced the so-called "threshold." His paper is to appear in an early number of Wundt's *Philosophische Studien*. Mr. J. E. Lough of Harvard reported an apparatus whereby he demonstrates that a given intensity of light stimulation may be matched by a longer or shorter duration of stimulation of a light of a different intensity; and made some generalizations regarding the theory of sensation intensities.

The more philosophical papers were put together on Wednesday morning, but the time was too short for the proper reading and discussion of them. One discussion was precipitated by two papers on "Mind and Body," but that was cut short. The council of the Association is charged to reconsider (for the next meeting) the question of admitting and dividing off the more unpsychological papers. In the afternoon session on the same day the President, Prof. Fullerton, saw fit to challenge the members of the Association — or some of them—who have had the temerity to hold positive views regarding the "Knower in Psychology." His address appears in full

in the January number of the *Psychological Review;* and the proceedings will appear in the same journal for March.

Besides the regular programme of the Association, two other matters occupied the attention of members—one, the preliminary report of the committee appointed last year to consider the subject of Physical and Mental Tests, and the other the discussion of the Naturalists on the "Inheritance of Acquired Characteristics." In the latter very little that was new came out, in spite of the inordinate length of the discussion. In this a poor example was set to the philosophers. The committee on tests reported a provisional list which is to be printed and considered for another year. The new officers for next year are: President, Prof. Mark Baldwin of Princeton; Councillors, Prof. Josiah Royce of Harvard and Prof. Joseph Jastrow of Wisconsin University.

THINGS GRECIAN.

LONDON, December 26, 1896.

ON Christmas eve the authorities of the British Museum made public, with a promptness in giving that is in harmony with the season, a summary description of the new treasure from Egypt which came into the Museum late in the second week of December. The papyrus MS. consists of thirty columns of writing, half of which contain the full number of thirty-three complete lines, while the remaining fifteen columns have been variously broken and torn. To piece out what they lack, there are fortunately numbers of small fragments, some of which have already found their place, while there is reason to hope that, with time, patience, and skill, others will eventually be so fitted in as to make good in some measure the mutilation which is due to rough handling by the first discoverers. The MS. is well written in large uncials, and appears to belong to the first century B. C. The date of its proposed publication by the Trustees cannot, for reasons suggested above, be definitely fixed.

Nothing in the way of a general heading to indicate the authorship appears upon the papyrus, though there are titles for special poems, such as "Theseus," "Io," "Idas." It is not clear, apparently, whether the poems bearing these titles are epinician or not, though they and all the others appear in some sort to celebrate victories, and a certain number of them are easily identified as containing known fragments of Bacchylides. To readers of Pindar's first Olympian ode it will be interesting to know that, when the Trustees of the British Museum shall have published this MS., we shall be able to read the rival ode written to commemorate the same event by Bacchylides; a composition which, as beseemed the occasion and competition with so great a fellow-poet, was of considerable length. In addition to Hiero of Syracuse, Lachon of Ceos (Bacchylides, like his maternal uncle, Simonides, was of Ceos), Alexidamus of Metapontum, Tisias of Ægina, and Automedes of Phlius are among the victors named. The victories celebrated, like those of Pindar's odes, are in all the principal games, Olympian, Pythian, Isthmian, and Nemean. It is too early as yet to say how many poems are contained in the new MS., but there are not fewer than fifteen, and probably not more than twenty, varying in length from fourteen to two hundred lines.

It has become the fashion, especially of late, to visit Bacchylides with a certain amount of scorn, discoverable by the microscopic eye in various passages of Pindar. However, the definiteness of Pindar's reference often leaves a great deal to be desired, and the estimates of his rival's literary merits based upon so very shifting a foundation may have to be reconsidered. For now, though we are not to have a complete Bacchylides, there will be enough to form a sound opinion of his poetical power. It appears that he is easier than Pindar, has a graceful and pleasant style, and a picturesque, poetical vocabulary, but little or none of Pindar's strength and splendor, and nothing of Pindar's forced and strained diction. There is a well-known passage of intense obscurity at the close of Pindar's second Pythian ode, where, as in a far plainer passage of his second Olympian ode, the Theban bard mocks at poetical skill that is acquired and not inborn. Here and elsewhere in Pindar Bacchylides is supposed to have been satirized, and Bacchylides is supposed to have answered Pindar in lines preserved by Clement of Alexandria, wherein he declares substantially that absolute originality in song is a thing that never was and never will be. The poetical workmanship of the newly discovered epinician odes of Bacchylides would seem to agree with this point of view, and to indicate that the lesser bard of Ceos was distinguished rather for the Sophoclean quality of sweetness and serenity than for the boldness of a Pindar or an Æschylus. His originality, such as it is, shows rather in the convivial strains preserved under the title of love-songs among Bergk's fragments. Of these lighter songs, in which Bacchylides shows qualities not possessed by Pindar—a superior nimbleness of wit and a real sense of humor—the newly found papyrus unfortunately gives us nothing.

These newly recovered epinician odes will be published for all to read as soon as may be, probably in the course of a few months. In looking forward to their perusal, it will probably be well to forget the somewhat scornful attitude adopted of late toward the nephew of Simonides, notably by Flach, and to remember the high place among lyric poets assigned to Bacchylides by the unknown authors of two well-known numbers (184 and 571) in the ninth book of the Palatine anthology. The first begins, "Pindar, thou holy mouthpiece of the Muses, and Bacchylides, thou Siren of smoothe and specious tongue," while in the other epigram we read that "Alcman was sweet, but Bacchylides distilled from his lips speech that was delicious to the ear." We may well rejoice at the prospect of knowing at first hand a lyric poet in whom Sophocles delighted, and who was the inspirer of some of Horace's most memorable strains.

The second instalment of the programme or album (λεύκωμα) of the Olympic games of 1896 contains a complete account of the Panathenaic stadium (where the recent games were held), written by Prof. N. G. Politis, who lectures at the University of Athens on mythology and Greek archæology, and is well known among anthropologists as a careful student of Greek folk-lore, ancient and modern. This monograph is published in modern Greek, with a French translation in parallel columns. It follows the history of festal games, especially of horse-races, in Attica from the mythical days of Theseus, and the epoch of those chariot races pictured upon the Dipylon vases, to the recent restoration for athletic purposes of the ancient Athenian stadium. From the heroic days of Theseus to the modern munificence of M. Avérof is a far cry, but the broad view of the unity of history implied by such a continuous account is one which would assuredly have rejoiced the soul of the late Prof. Freeman.

The Panathenaic stadium was not built until after the battle of Chæroneia, when the great Athenian administrator Lycurgus took it in hand. Before this, during all the most glorious days of Athenian power, the Panathenaic games were held in an open space half way between Athens and the Peiræus. There were apparently no special seats for the spectators; only a wooden stand for the presiding magistrates is likely to have been provided. When Lycurgus chose the site for the stadium, Dinias, its proprietor, presented it to the city out of regard for his friend Lycurgus. The mere preparation of the ground required vast expense, and Eudemus, a Platæan domiciled at Athens, is formally thanked by a vote passed in 329 B.C. for contributing generously to the expenses. Only a few seats of honor were provided by Lycurgus's scheme, and the spectators had to sit on the ground for the most part, as indeed was the case in 1875, when there was an Olympic celebration which attracted no great notice outside of Greece. It may be that the recorded work done on the stadium in the second century after Christ provided seats of some kind, but the sumptuous renovations and decorations undertaken by Herodes Atticus eclipsed all that had gone before. In the space of four years he made over the whole stadium with marble, and, as Pausanias enthusiastically exclaims, "He nearly exhausted the quarries of Mt. Pentelicus." That was an age when mere bigness riveted popular attention, and excited such admiration for the stadium that its fame eclipsed for the moment everything else at Athens, even the Parthenon. Indeed, this new stadium was built so as to accommodate gladiatorial shows and vast numbers of wild beasts hunted down for the amusement of the crowd. After this we are prepared to hear that in mediæval times the stadium was altered so as to serve as an arena for knightly tournaments, and we feel, with some satisfaction, that its recent reconstruction at the expense of M. Avérof has restored it to uses far more in harmony with those contemplated by Lycurgus, Dinias, and Eudemus than any of the shows for which it was used in Hadrian's and Herod's day.

LOUIS DYER.

TAINE'S PROVINCIAL NOTE-BOOKS.—I.

PARIS, December 31, 1896.

FEW men have had as much influence as Taine on the present generation in France. Renan may be compared to him in this respect, but the influence of Renan will perhaps be more ephemeral, as he applied his extraordinary powers of mind to subjects which have little to do with what might be called the common life of a nation. Taine attempted, and partly succeeded in the great task, to explain the origins of contemporary France. His three volumes on the Old Régime, the Revolution, the Modern Régime, have been read with avidity by all politicians as well as by all philosophers; they will be read for a long time by all who try to understand the enigmas of the troubled history of France during the present century.

Taine had to accept in his youth places which yielded him a small salary, before he achieved a complete independence. From 1863 to 1866 he was examiner for the military

school of Saint-Cyr, a very tedious work, which obliged him to travel all over France and to examine on literature and history a number of ignorant youths. He fortunately had the habit of keeping diaries and of taking notes wherever he was. The notes he took in England helped him to write his 'History of English Literature'; his notes taken in his wanderings in Paris were used in various books. Those taken in the French province in 1863–1865 were never revised, and he himself thought them too fragmentary to form the foundation of a book. His heirs have recently published them in a volume, without any alteration. They have been blamed for it by some critics; some others say that these 'Carnets de Voyage: Notes sur la Province,' are unworthy of the author of so many important works. I cannot agree with these critics. The intelligent reader can perfectly well make allowance for the rapidity, the disorder of the impressions noted in this posthumous publication; he will not regret to see the mind of Taine, so to speak, at work in such an interesting field as the province and cities of France; and he will discern in these sincere and spontaneous impressions the germs of many of the ideas which found their definite form in the 'Origines de la France Contemporaine.'

In some respects, what we call "la province" is to many a terra incognita. It was so to Taine, who had received in his youth a classical education at the École Normale, and whose mind was associated chiefly with all that is represented in the short word "Paris." For centuries, France was subdivided into provinces, well defined by geographical, ethnographical, and geological differences; these divisions were consolidated and perpetuated under the feudal régime. The process of centralization lasted for four centuries; it was the work of the monarchy and of its great ministers. It became complete only when the Revolution broke down all the barriers of the past, abolished all feudal rights and privileges, destroyed the powers of the local parlements, and substituted artificial departments for the old provinces. Since that time, it may be said that there have been no provinces, only "la province." The Empire continued the work of the Revolution; the various governments which have in turn administered France, alike found it convenient to use the all-powerful machinery prepared by the absolute monarchy and completed by the Revolution.

In his wanderings through France, Taine came chiefly in contact with the humbler instruments of French centralization, the professors in the University of France, the colony of office-holders which is found in every departmental and arrondissemental *chef-lieu*, the officers of the army. At Douai he meets an old comrade married to a Bordelaise:

"She receives me in a colored apron coming out of the kitchen. 'I occupy myself,' she says, 'with my kitchen; my husband scolds me, but I answer that he likes a good dish. He wants me to go out into the world; I have not been once in three years—it bores me. One has so much to do at home with two children. . . . Oh, he will not go to Paris—I don't want him to go; we will remain here.' There are many such women in the province; they have not much to say and are ill at ease at the dinner-table. Society embarrasses them. . . . My friends tell me that the majority of these women are *pot-au-feu* to excess; only a few pretend to be fashionable, to be Parisiennes. A woman in the province most frequently finds her employment and the complete use of her faculties in needlework, clothes-mending, and the management of the household."

Taine finds the official society at Douai correct and agreeable. The Dean of the Faculty gives soothing lectures on history, to which ladies take their daughters; no serious professors nor pupils. Good society — magistrates, officers, retired functionaries—comes to these Faculty lectures to occupy an hour. A Faculty is a literary casino.

At Le Mans, Taine writes:

"How one feels, in a single walk, the social state of France. How low still is the body of the nation, how near the serfs and burghers of the Middle Ages, with functionaries instead of noblemen. These functionaries, without consulting them, provide them with markets, courts, schools. On the whole, the masses have what they want—the narrow bourgeois life and the privilege of selling as they like their grain, their fruit. . . . Equality is practised; there is no favor, even for the very noble or very rich; the judges judge abstractly, without knowing names. The most salient trait, one which produces much good as well as much evil, is this: The constructor of France seems to have said to himself that there is a certain amount of good things, and that each ought to have a bit; that nobody ought to have a very large bit, but almost all a small or a moderate-sized bit. The generals of division, bishops, heads of colleges, rectors, directors, etc., attain to 15,000 francs or the like; the small salaries of 1,200 to 3,000 francs are innumerable. Each advances a little every three or six years—an increase of 100 to 500 francs, a cross of Knight of the Legion of Honor, afterwards of Officer. These officials are cared for in their old age; they have a pension, their widows also; in life, with this gradual advancement, every one knows nearly where he will be in twenty years. Great injustices are nearly impossible; many small discontents, annoyances, jealousies, hopes, expenses, economies—no great despair. Such is life made rational."

It is impossible to give a clearer account of our great set of functionaries, a true nation within the nation. Hear, again, this:

"Society is like a great garden: it is cultivated either for peaches and oranges or for carrots and cabbages. Our garden is prepared wholly for carrots and cabbages. The ideal is that the peasant should have meat to eat, and that my shoemaker, having saved three thousand a year, should be able to send his son to the Law School. The distinguished men attain no eminence—at the utmost a meagre pension; their salary just helps them not to starve. Colonel L., who entered the Polytechnic School at the age of sixteen, and came out of it second on the list after forty-four years of service, has a pension of four thousand a year."

Taine, at the time an examiner, condemns the system of examinations, and calls it Chinese, yet admits the necessity of a test when there is so much competition for office. Memory has too great a part in examinations. At the examination for admission to the title of *agrégé* in history, a candidate gave the ancient and modern history of a hundred and fifty islands in the Mediterranean Sea, etc.

Taine consoles himself with the beauties of nature and with the masterpieces of art; his descriptions are charming. He tries also to study the popular types; he describes admirably the Bretons and the Bretonnes. But what curious contrasts in his notes. Speaking of the young Bretonnes, he says: "No regular beauty, no air of health, something weak, suffering, pale, a little crushed; but in some it produces an admirable expression—perfect virginity, the virginity of body and soul, an exquisite sensibility, a charming delicacy, a strange suavity. I think of the Indian saying, 'Don't strike a woman, even with a flower.'" "Certainly the pure heroines of ancient chivalry, the mystic lover of the novels of the Holy Grail, Elaine, Yolande, come from there. . . ." And on the next page you may read this: "The soldier who takes me to the barrack tells me that no country has such loose morals. In the daytime, they don't look at you; in the evening you have but to speak." Here we can point to one of the great defects of Taine—his love of generalization, on insufficient data. It is hard to condemn a whole race on the testimony of a soldier. This passage reminded me of a well-known story of the man who, having found a red-haired servant in an inn, writes in his diary, "Here, all servants are red-haired."

The ideal formed by Taine in his studies and in his Parisian life is offended everywhere in the province. He finds everywhere an inferior view of life, and French democratic society appears to him flat and monotonous. "To be complete," he says, "a man ought to have leisure, to have no forced and daily work; he ought not to be always thinking of his own interests; he ought to be preoccupied with general views, like the British aristocrat of the present day, like the Romans and Athenians of antiquity. An aristocracy, in order to last, must employ its strength and its time for the public." He feels at the same time that a country is like a garden, that all soils are not alike. "It is absurd to try to grow bananas on the chalk of Champagne; in short, France produces now the sort of vegetables which it is able to produce. For elevated minds, the remedy consists in not falling into the bourgeois life, in living alone like a Buddhist."

Taine becomes at times severe to injustice; he is haunted by the English ideal of the gentleman, and pretends not to find it in France:

"The gentleman is not found in France. See all these great personages, functionaries or proprietors, who come to solicit us for their sons, asking us to deprive somebody else of a place in order to give it to them. Whether impudently or delicately asked, it remains, nevertheless, an injustice. They consider favor, even improbity, as quite a natural thing; . . . it is a tradition in France. Under the former monarchy it was necessary to solicit the judges. . . . At the present moment you cannot get an article in the press except by favoritism. On the contrary, C. told me that in England you never thanked a paper for an article; it would be an insult. See in Carlyle's Life of John Sterling the letter of Sir Robert Peel to the editor of the *Times*, and the answer. Here it is the kingdom of grace, and there the kingdom of justice."

Correspondence.

PENNSYLVANIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There never has been a time since 1860 when Pennsylvania had a Democratic party in full accord with the party which went by that name in the rest of the Union. No sooner had the war begun than Samrandallism took possession of the Pennsylvania Democracy (such as it was) and perverted it to the purposes of the Republican party. The whole struggle of the Democratic party in the State since the close of the war has been an internecine one, in which the party in the rest of the Union has had no sympathy and little interest. Sound Democratic doctrine, good government either State or Federal, has cut no figure in Pennsylvania. No appeal has been made to the people to uphold tariff reform and sound money as Democratic doctrine. The party has been contented with an occasional success wrought out by Republican Mugwumps upon local and personal issues; and

the long habit of accepting any proposition which seemed novel and popular at the time, had its logical conclusion in the last Democratic convention which met at Harrisburg in September and declared for free silver, in the face of the declaration of the same convention at Allentown, in April, that it was "absolutely opposed to the free coinage of silver."

The "regular" party has gone to pieces. It is a total wreck so far as its usefulness as a part of any national organization is concerned. It is in the hands of the Populists, who have no knowledge of nor care for the inherent principles which have made its glorious history. It cannot hope to elect anybody to anything. It has no claim to any consideration from the masses of the voters of the Commonwealth, and it gets no such consideration. It is not taken into the account in any State or county election where any important issue is involved. It is not a factor in the equation of any public question, and it does not intend to be. It officially declares its desire that all who believe in tariff reform, sound money, and the policy of the only Democratic administration since the war, shall keep away from its primaries and keep out of its conventions. Bryanism and Gormanism are its creed and it has no future. It is too dead to skin.

But nowhere in the Union is there a State where the real Democratic party of Jefferson and Jackson and Madison and Benton and Tilden and Cleveland has a more splendid opportunity than in Pennsylvania. No prominent Democrat in the State who has any standing for courage and brains will take any part in the folly which has led the "regular" organization to destruction. Every sturdy Democrat who has heretofore guided the councils of the party, until it surrendered to Populism, has definitely cut loose from that error, and, by a most natural gravitation, has allied himself with the National organization which adopted the Indianapolis platform and nominated Palmer and Buckner. The Republican party in the State is ready for disintegration so soon as the Jeffersonians make the issue of good government plain to the people. Its willingness to make Quay its candidate for President, its present limitation of choice for United States Senator to Penrose (!) and Wanamaker (!!), its complete possession by the "combine," the very attitude of its worst elements as advocates of Reform (!!!), the compulsory retirement of its intelligence to make room for its cunning—would work its immediate downfall if the Sound-Money, Tariff-Reform Democratic organization were as fully established as it will be a year hence. Whether Quay wins by electing Penrose, or Martin wins by electing Wanamaker, or Cameron succeeds himself, as a person no better than he should be, but no worse than the others, it is all the same. There is no help for Pennsylvania save in a return to first principles through an active, aggressive, continuous campaign by the National Democracy; and its efforts in this State ought to have the encouragement of all who desire good government. The Democratic party of the future can go into power at the next Presidential election. It is on the cards to make Pennsylvania contribute to that result thirty-two members of the electoral college; and Pennsylvania, Democratic, means Sound Money, Tariff Reform, a healthy and adequate banking system, wise fiscal and currency legislation, and a firm and dignified foreign policy.

The principles set out in the Indianapolis platform are the only reliable foundations upon which any party can build a policy that will have or ought to have the support of patriotic Americans, and they have the sanction of all Democratic precedent. They will have, because they will deserve to have, the patriotic endorsement of the people throughout the Union, as they would have had it if the Chicago convention had not been stampeded to silverism. A large majority of the Bryan people who were Democrats in June last now see the egregious blunder of the Chicago platform. They are already cursing their blind leaders who have led them into the pit; and they will repudiate that platform and adopt that of Indianapolis as soon as they have a reasonable opportunity. Vast numbers of intelligent Republicans have been entirely satisfied with Mr. Cleveland's administration, and are ready to support the Indianapolis platform as better than anything they can expect from the Republican party. When these see the lines formed upon the true doctrines which the National Democrats have reasserted, and which Mr. Cleveland has practised with such admirable vigor, the end of anarchy and misrule will be in sight.

B. C. Potts.

Media, Pa., January 5, 1897.

THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In his last admirable report, Secretary J. Sterling Morton, in his usual terse language, recommends active measures for the purpose of opening up new markets for our farm products. It is to be hoped that his successor will follow up this timely suggestion by sending commercial agents to places abroad where there is prospect of establishing or extending such markets. There is great need of such agents to keep the farmers advised of the demands of the markets, the quality of goods and the style of packages desired by the consumers, etc. The farmers cannot be content with the reports obtained through the export merchants only, as their interests do not always agree with those of the producers.

But there is another class of agents who might be even more useful to the farmers, and by the appointment of whom the Department of Agriculture would make itself appreciated. I refer to scientifically and practically educated farmers, or, rather, specialists in the various branches of agriculture, who should be sent abroad to agricultural centres to study improvements and report on progress made in farming and industries connected with farming. Most governments have military attachés employed in their embassies and legations. The United States is not a military country, but a farming and industrial country. Why not have highly educated agriculturists attached to our legations abroad?

Some years ago a voluminous book was published by the Government, containing reports from our consuls, especially on cattle and dairying. Among a lot of rubbish the book did give some valuable information, but most of the contents bore witness to the not very surprising fact that the writers knew little or nothing of what they were talking about. How should they know? Farming, cattle-raising, dairying, etc., are no longer simple things that any practical man can master without special education. Science has entered the field, and it is now necessary to make the profession a life study in order to be a successful farmer, or dairyman, or fruit-grower, or expert in any other branch.

The Department of Agriculture has been, and is partly yet, the subject of ridicule, and is by many regarded as an almost useless institution. It is comparatively new, and its scope of usefulness must gradually be found and developed. If properly employed, it will in time prove invaluable, and we shall wonder how the country could ever get along without it. Secretary Morton has done great work in purifying the department, abolishing abuses and spoils, and saving some millions of dollars which may be turned to better account. His exposure of the ridiculous and scandalous seed-distributing business will bear fruit in time, and the congressional seed-peddling will have to go. A splendid system of report and coöperation between the excellent experiment stations all over the country and the department has been instituted. A dairy department has been established which has already done good work under the direction of its efficient chief, Major Henry E. Alvord, and forms a valuable basis for further development of useful measures in the interest of the great dairy industry. Mr. Morton's successor will have a clear track to follow, and must rejoice that the purifying work has been done, and that he can devote his energy more fully to the introduction of new, useful measures such as the development of our markets, and educational work.

Thousands of dairymen all over the country hope that Mr. McKinley's Secretary of Agriculture will be a representative dairyman like ex-Governor W. D. Hoard of Wisconsin, and that the just claims of the great dairy industry will be considered by the incoming Administration. In no branch of farming is competition keener, and, if we are to hold our own in foreign markets, we must know what is being done abroad. J. D. Frederiksen.

Little Falls, N. Y., January 8, 1897.

CONCERNING ACCREDITED SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The system of admitting students to college on certificates and without examination may or may not be the best; your Californian correspondent, however, shows quite plainly that no real test has been made in that State. Assuming him well informed as to the facts, what are we to expect from any system in which faculty examiners and school principals certify that things are when they are not?

Here in Michigan the system of diploma schools has been given its fullest and longest trial. The current calendar of the University shows that 152 schools possess the complete or partial right of admitting their students by certificate; the list includes all the principal schools of Michigan and many of those in surrounding States. Those interested are, I think, agreed as to the efficiency of the system when reference is made to the matters touched upon by your correspondent. There is abundant evidence that the University exercises due caution, and that the schools honorably meet the responsibility placed upon them. There can be no question that, as between an entrance examination fairly conducted and a certificate honestly earned, the fairer test is found in the latter; but, like all systems, the practical working depends altogether upon the character of those who apply it.

For other reasons the whole question is of the greatest interest, and, like all educational

problems, opens the whole field. It may be permitted me to touch briefly on the chief arguments both for and against the system of admission by certificate.

The chief advantage of the plan is that other elements than knowledge of set topics may have weight in determining a candidate's right to enter college. To say nothing of the facts that an entrance examination is a very partial and very incomplete test, and that passing it proves generally the lucky candidate to be possessed of some mental lumber rather than of some mental power, it is patent that the system of entrance by examination takes no account of individuals. I am not one of those who regard college opportunities as the privilege of any sort of intellectual aristocracy; rather, I am deeply convinced that every boy who faithfully applies himself in his preparatory studies, and with diligence accomplishes according to his abilities, should feel that he has an inalienable right to go to college if he desires so to do. This is a debatable question; but those who feel with me must have a very friendly feeling for a plan of admitting students to college which concerns itself rather with what the boy is, than with what he happens to have.

On the other hand, an equally great difficulty stands on the other side, although the whole entrance system shares in it. The tendency of the diploma system is to make the high school a mere fitting school for college. No school should be that, and the public high school peculiarly should not. The suggestion implied in this last principle shows where the peculiar danger of the diploma system lies. State universities very generally employ this plan of admitting students, and thus the danger is greatest at precisely the point where it ought to be most guarded against. It may be said that no school ought ever to be a fitting school for any other, while every school ought to be fitted to some lower one. Half the young men of this country to-day regard their secondary studies as mere stepping-stones into college arbitrarily selected and arbitrarily placed. Dr. Mendenhall recently emphasized this same idea, and pointed out that secondary courses should be planned as if colleges did not exist. When we begin to plan our curricula from the top down, we follow bad pedagogy and a bad public policy. In this view of the case, the relation between college and school should consist simply in the determination by the one of the character and efficiency of the other.

FREDERICK WHITTON.

DETROIT, January 6, 1897.

SCHOOL AND HOME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: For five or six years I have entertained the idea that mothers and teachers should coöperate directly in educational methods, or that parents should be in closer touch with schools and school work. In other words, I have thought that if more of the home could be taken into the school, and more of the school carried into the home, prevailing educational ideas and methods might be greatly improved, and far-reaching results brought about.

Although various plans for carrying on this work had from time to time suggested themselves to my mind, until recently no definite course of action had been formulated. Finally, however, in September last, I communicated to Miss Mathilde Coffin, Assistant Superintendent of Schools in Detroit, the idea of attempting to interest the mothers of the city in the cause of education, and suggested that, so far as possible, we induce them to organize for this purpose. To this suggestion Miss Coffin, who, by the way, is among the foremost educators of the country, and the one to whom the Detroit educational system is principally due, replied that she was quite ready to begin the work—that for some time she herself had been thinking along the same line. Accordingly we conferred with about a dozen or fifteen women, who at once signified their willingness to join in the movement. After a series of meetings a plan was formulated which was as follows: It was proposed to organize a league in each school district of the city, of which every woman within it, regardless of creed, color, nationality, or environment, should be asked to become a member. It was decided to have the meetings of these leagues held in the school buildings once every month, after the regular school work for the day was over. At each of these meetings, which were to be presided over by a regularly elected President (usually the principal of the school), there were to be free discussions among the mothers and teachers upon topics best suited to aid in the proper development of the child. Although the work of the local leagues was to be determined by the neighborhood needs and peculiarities, each having the largest freedom, still the central Union prepared a syllabus in which an outline of work was laid out for those desiring to use it. In these syllabi, which were printed and distributed among the mothers, were suggested such topics as the following:

Proper food and clothing for children; care of the body, cleanliness, the way to prevent the formation of injurious habits; the rights of children; proper reading in the home; how to teach the children self-control and to have a proper regard for the rights of others; the duties of true citizenship; and various other subjects intended more especially to be taken up by the mothers in the home. The next syllabus was to deal more directly with the child in the school.

In about two months 37 of the 65 school districts were organized, the president and secretary of each becoming ex-officio members of the central Union. In addition to these leagues, which represent probably 4,000 women, a league was also organized in the Detroit Seminary.

Scarcely were these organizations formed when a movement was started to canvass each district for the purpose of enlisting all the mothers in the work. In fact, at every one of these meetings the willing voices of mothers and teachers reëchoed the sentiments of the originators of this movement, namely, that this is the next step in educational methods. I doubt not, if these sixty-five district leagues could be continued and conducted after the original plan, that, in the course of three or four months, the average membership would reach 300 mothers, each and every one of whom would be actively engaged in practical educational work. These 19,000 or 20,000 women would be enlisted in a movement which has not so much to do with books and regularly formulated methods of instruction as with actual experimental processes of child-culture or character-building. Were such a unified plan of education carried out in every city of this country; were mothers and teachers generally enlisted in a movement involving practical principles of ethics, of true citizenship, and a higher standard of living and thinking, the results for good can scarcely be estimated.

Just here the following question suggests itself: Has society reached that stage where such results are desired? A system like the one which I have described presupposes the coöperation of all those who have a voice in regulating or formulating educational methods; especially is it necessary to have the sympathy, aid, and encouragement of those in authority. Unfortunately, however, in Detroit at this time we have not such aid and encouragement. On the contrary, at the very outset it was observed that petty jealousies and a fear of the growing influence of women would make it difficult for the work to continue. In other words, the unified influence of the mothers of the city might lead to a state of society which at the present time is simply not desired. Hence the untiring efforts which have been put forward to break up these leagues and to check this work.

I have no doubt that in other cities the above plan would from the first prove successful. Even in Detroit, although the Educational Union has for the present been obliged to disband, the attention of the entire city has, through the controversy brought about by this movement, been directed towards the inefficiency of our school management and the necessity for placing upon our Board of Education intelligent and broad-minded men. Although in no other town has there been an attempt to organize on so large a scale, still this movement is by no means confined to Detroit. In New York, Buffalo, Chicago, and various other cities the idea among women of enlisting in a far-reaching educational movement is rapidly spreading. Already a national convention of mothers has been called to meet in Washington, D. C., in February, 1897, the object being to discuss and formulate plans to carry on a campaign in the interest of education. The leading periodicals, journals, and magazines are just now dealing largely with topics relative to schools and educational methods. Indeed, from all directions comes the information that the education of children is the leading question of the day. The hope is that every woman in the country will find interest in this movement, and that she will give to it her hearty coöperation and support.

ELIZA BURT GAMBLE,
President of the Detroit Educational Union.

DETROIT, MICH., January 2, 1897.

Notes.

THE second volume of the translation of Dr. Adolph Harnack's 'History of Dogma' is ready for publication by Roberts Bros., Boston, who announce also the 'Life and Speeches of Governor Greenhalge [of Massachusetts],' edited by James E. Nesmith of Lowell.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press, in their "American History Series," 'The Middle Period,' by Prof. John W. Burgess of Columbia; also, in a new series, "Periods of English Literature," 'The Later Nineteenth Century,' by Prof. George Saintsbury; in the Gadshill Edition of Dickens, 'The Pickwick Papers,' with all the original illustrations by Cruikshank, Seymour, and H. K. Browne, chiefly from unused duplicate plates in the possession of Chapman & Hall, the London publishers of this edition; and 'Contemporary Theology and Theism,' by Prof. R. M. Wenley of the University of Michigan.

Harper & Brothers will soon issue 'Literary Landmarks of Rome' and of Florence, by Laurence Hutton.

'Geography of the Middle Ages,' by C. Raymond Beazley, is to be issued by Macmillan Co.

The February issue of J. M. Dent & Co.'s "Temple Classics," under the general editorship of Mr. Israel Gollancz, will comprise the first volume of an entirely new edition of Florio's Montaigne, to be completed in six volumes, which will appear at intervals during the present year. The immediate editor is Mr. A. R. Waller, who, besides supervising the text, contributes a glossary and brief notes to each volume.

Henry Holt & Co. announce Gavard's 'A Diplomat in London (1871–72)'; and 'Telepathy and the Subliminal Self,' by Dr. R. Osgood Mason.

The *Book-buyer* states that Mrs. James T. Fields will compose for Houghton, Mifflin & Co. the new Life of Mrs. Stowe, and that Joel Chandler Harris will give them a sequel to his 'Story of Aaron.'

Another work from a Southern hand, 'Diomed: An Autobiography of a Dog,' by John Sergeant Wise, son of the late Gov. Henry A. Wise of Virginia, will be brought out by Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston.

Stone & Kimball have in press 'Mlle. Blanche,' by John D. Barry; 'Grip,' by John Strange Winter; 'Ziska,' by Marie Corelli; and "John Gabriel Borkman," Ibsen's new play.

Mr. Francis Darwin makes the interesting announcement that he is preparing a supplementary volume of his father's letters. These will comprise many of purely scientific interest which could not be used in the 'Life and Letters,' together with some fresh material that has come to his hands. He appeals also to correspondents of Charles Darwin's, who may still possess unused letters of the great naturalist, to allow him to make copies of them for the projected new series.

Charles Scribner's Sons have brought out Archibald Forbes's history of 'The Black Watch,' the famous British Regiment also known as the Royal Highlanders. Beginning as a local force to keep the peace in the Scotch Highlands in the early part of the last century, when the adherents of the Stuart Pretender were preparing for the uprising which came in '45, it was soon incorporated into the regular army and showed its brilliant valor in every quarter of the globe. Egypt, Salamanca, Vittoria, Waterloo, Sebastopol, Lucknow are among the "honors" inscribed on the regimental colors. The barest outline of its career is a romance of soldierly adventure, and Forbes has known how to make attractive even the brief chronicles of its battles and its voyages.

Few more worthless specimens of book-making come before us than Mr. John Ashton's 'The Devil in Britain and America' (Scribners). The author has merely extracted from various works of antiquarian research such accounts of demoniacal possession and witchcraft as have suited his fancy, and set them down without order or reason, adding a number of coarse cuts remarkable chiefly for their insignificance. So far as this country is concerned, he has had the good judgment to rely principally on Mr. Upham's well-known work, 'Salem Witchcraft.' An appendix contains the titles of many books on witchcraft and kindred superstitions.

We cannot speak much more favorably of Mrs. Alice Morse Earle's 'Curious Punishments of Bygone Days,' although it is daintily printed with much elegant affectation of the archaic (Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.). Mrs. Earle offers a sort of half-apology for her subject in saying that, although it is not pleasant, yet obsolete punishments have interest and dignity from their antiquity, and their history becomes endurable because they have a past only and no future. It is doubtful if descriptions of the bilboes and the ducking-stool, the stocks, the pillory, and the whipping-post, and their applications, give ordinary readers correct views of the criminal jurisprudence of our ancestors; nor is it certain that this generation requires to "gain from acts of the past a delight in the present days of virtue, wisdom, and the humanities," when we consider the outrageous prison legislation of the State of New York. But we must give Mrs. Earle's work the credit of being in great part the result of original investigation.

Although the report of the First International Coöperative Congress, which was held in London in 1895, is somewhat belated in its appearance (London: P. S. King & Son), it contains a good deal of permanently valuable matter. This is to be found especially in the reports from foreign countries, even Spain and Servia furnishing long lists of coöperative enterprises. The case of Servia is especially interesting as showing how the primitive customs of collective ownership which still prevail among the Slav races, may be used as a basis for modern forms of partnership. Nothing, however, is more encouraging than the success of coöperative methods among the Irish dairymen; success in a small way hitherto, but which may be significant of revolutionary industrial changes. In Germany we have the melancholy spectacle of "The State" thrusting itself as a patron and director upon the voluntary associations formed for mutual aid by its subjects—associations which prospered under the frown of the Government, but which are now suffering from its officious favors.

One can understand why there may be, as there has been, an American Text-Book of the Practice of Medicine, as there might be an American Practice of Law, because climatic and sociological conditions differentiate American life in some degree from that of other countries. But just why, in the interest of pure science, there should be an 'American Text-Book of Physiology' is a puzzle. Nevertheless, there is. It is edited by Wm. H. Howell, Ph.D., M.D. (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders), and is the product of collaboration by a number of American teachers. True, most of the numerous citations as to the recent progress of this science are foreign, and the only distinct omission we have observed that is important is reference to the investigations of Bergey, under the direction of Billings and Mitchell, upon the effect of rebreathing expired air, published by the Smithsonian about a year ago. But no editor is infallible. The presumed and probably the actual advantage of this method of constructing a class-book is the discussion of the same general subject from several points of view. Incidentally reflected light as well as that which is direct is cast upon it from the different outlooks of the confederated writers. This great volume, intended for pupils, is also useful for graduates who have not ceased from study; but carefully and intelligently as it is constructed, its thousand large octavo pages still leave unsettled some of the secrets of that organism which is so fearfully and wonderfully made.

The Hakluyt Society has published for its ninety-fifth volume the first part of Azurara's 'Chronicle of the Discovery and Conquest of Guinea.' The manuscript original was discovered in the Paris National Library in 1837, and is now first given in an English translation in commemoration of the fifth centenary of the birth of Prince Henry the Navigator, the promoter of the voyages narrated. These voyages, though nominally for discovery, were in reality little else than expeditions to procure slaves, and the success of a voyage was measured by the number of captives brought to Portugal. Though the chronicler is zealous in extolling the pious motives of the Prince in bringing these heathen under Christian influences, he is at times filled with a sense of the infinite pity of it. In a graphic description of the division of some slaves by the Prince among his friends, he says: "What heart could be so hard as not to be pierced with piteous feeling to see that company? For some kept their heads low and their faces bathed in tears, looking one upon another; others stood groaning very dolorously, looking up to the height of heaven, fixing their eyes upon it, crying out loudly, as if asking help of the Father of Nature; others struck their faces with the palms of their hands, throwing themselves at full length upon the ground; others made their lamentations in the manner of a dirge, after the custom of their country." The work of translating and editing has been done by Messrs. C. R. Beazley and E. Prestage, who have also added an account of the life and writings of Azurara. As an illustration of the ideas prevalent at that time regarding the geography of Africa, four maps are reproduced, of dates ranging from 1351 to 1436.

'Cow-boy,' by Auzias-Turenne (Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: Brentano's), is a weak and insipid production, a sort of dime novel *ad usum Gallorum;* but one may fairly doubt whether any reader, native or foreign, will voluntarily proceed beyond the first page.

'Un Divorce,' by Th. Bentzon, a pseudonym that no longer conceals the identity of the writer, is the early work of Mme. Blanc. It is a pity, one cannot help thinking, to bring out, even in the case of great writers, their youthful works, or, at least, their first attempts at literature. In the case of writers of lesser rank (and it is not doing Mme. Blanc injustice to reckon her among these), there is no reason for it. The book, published by the above firm, is by no means up to the level of the author's later productions. Subject and treatment are alike commonplace, and the romanesque tone of the story does not suffice to make it interesting.

Very different is 'Idylle Nuptiale,' by Mme. Caro, from the same publishers. This is a well-written work, with interest enough in it to satisfy the average novel-reader and even the critical reader. Although the story begins suspiciously like the novels of the late G. P. R. James, it does not develop in the same fashion. Reality, as we understand it nowadays, since Flaubert and his disciples taught us, is pretty closely reproduced by Mme. Caro. There is an ample amount of suffering provided for the various characters, and a fair amount of verisimilitude for the reader. The characters themselves are well wrought out; they recall other and greater ones, but that is no fault—we can stand a remembrance of Grandet, in M. de Galesnes, and a vaguer one of Polyeucte, the *amant incompris*, in Gilbert Arradon. The common sense and cleanliness of the story are advantages not

always met with in the contemporary French novel.

A report on the "Philosophical Seminaries and the Present Condition of Philosophical Studies at the Universities of Berlin and Leipzig," by M. Élie Halévy, in the *Revue Internationale de l'Enseignement* for December, 1896, treats but briefly of the work of Profs. Stumpf, Dilthey, Paulsen, and Simmel, of Berlin, and Wundt, Heinze, Barth, Wolff, and Volkelt, of Leipzig. None of these is occupied with philosophy, taking the word in its full meaning—a symptom of the discredit into which philosophical, *i.e.*, metaphysical, studies have fallen in Germany ("Povera e nuda vai, Filosofia)." To this latter phenomenon, which has been discussed ere now by German as well as French scholars, the writer devotes the greater portion of his article. Its beginning dates back to the year 1816, when philology gained the ascendancy over philosophy in consequence of the new programme for the gymnasia. Aside from this lack of preparatory training, it is claimed, the prevailing idea that teaching philosophy in its widest sense—metaphysical theories—would be a violation of academical courtesy, inasmuch as metaphysics is a matter of private concern, has contributed to the decline of philosophy as a university study. This statement is attributed to E. von Hartmann. There are several points of interest in the article which we must refrain from touching upon.

In 1891 Jules Simon published a paper in the *Temps* on the population of France from a military point of view, in which he said: "We boast that we can send five million soldiers into the field. But how will it be in twenty years? We are losing a battle every year." The patriotic anxiety for the future of his country, so tersely expressed by the venerable French statesman, is fully justified by the latest tables of statistics, according to which the present population of France is 38,228,962, showing an increase of only 133,800 during the past five years. The annual increase from 1881 to 1886 was 113,000, from 1886 to 1891, 40,000, and from 1891 to 1896 only 26,760. This increase, small as it is, is due entirely to the growth of Paris and a few industrial cities in the provinces. In the agricultural districts there has been a considerable diminution of the population. But even in Paris the increase has been only 85,000 during the past five years, whereas in Berlin it has been 240,000 during the same period. In France the population has increased, in round numbers, from thirty six millions in 1872 to thirty-eight millions in 1896, and in Germany during the same time from forty-one to fifty-two millions; and this, too, notwithstanding the much larger emigration of Germans than of Frenchmen to foreign countries. During the past five years the population in the German Empire has increased 2,817,000; and in France, as already stated, only 133,800. At this rate Germany will have in 1910 a population of sixty and France a population of forty millions.

"Greater New York" is described in the last number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* by the editor, Dr. Supan. The area and estimated number of inhabitants in 1898 are compared with those of London, Paris, and Berlin. The article is accompanied by a map giving the city and the country within a radius of 30 kilometres of the City Hall. In the same number are to be found the scientific results, with a map and meteorological observations, of the recent expedition of Prince Comanesti in Somaliland, and a paper upon the methods by which the geographical positions of places can be determined without the aid of astronomical instruments. Announcement is made that the subject of the annual prize of 25,000 francs, given by the King of Belgium for the most successful solution of some scientific problem, is: the conditions essential for the preservation of the health of Europeans in equatorial Africa, particularly in the Congo Basin.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for December opens with a curious collection of nearly two hundred and fifty Gaelic place-names found in a single parish in Scotland. This is followed by a valuable summary of observations on bird migration in the British Isles, its geographical and meteorological aspects, by Mr. W. Eagle Clarke. There is also a description of the country of the Yakuts, taken from a recently published Russian work.

One of the most potent foreign influences exerted upon the intellectual and moral life of India is shown by a report of a year's work of the Christian Literature Society for that country. During the year, 149 new books and 89 new editions of books previously issued were published in thirteen different languages, including Persian. Most of the new editions and a few of the new works were school-books; the others were stories, biographies, scientific and religious books; fifty-two were treatises upon Hindu teaching and customs, social questions and duties. Of all these works more than one million copies were issued in the year, besides 130,500 copies of six vernacular periodicals. In addition to this work, the Society maintains a training institution for native teachers and 201 vernacular schools.

Mr. John Gifford now edits from Princeton, N. J., his monthly *Forester*, a pioneer in its class, with obvious claims for support in every part of the Union. It is the official organ of the New Jersey Forestry Association and is published at seventy-five cents a year. A characteristic view of the remorseless sand-dunes on the southern New Jersey coast is a frontispiece of the present number, which gives evidence of Mr. Gifford's late tour abroad.

By way of celebrating the hundredth anniversary of the building of that long-lived ship, if not longest-lived of ships still afloat, the *Constitution*, or "Old Ironsides," A. W. Elson & Co., Boston, have produced a large photogravure copy of Marshall Johnson, jr.'s painting of this frigate under full sail. The remarque is, we believe, a portrait of her second commander, Commodore Bainbridge. As Boston, in the person of Dr. Holmes, had a potent hand in preventing this historic war-vessel from being broken up years ago, it is fitting that a memorial like this plate should proceed from that city.

—An article which gives especial value to the January *Scribner's* is "Thackeray's Haunts and Homes," illustrated by sketches "worked out *in situ*," by Eyre Crowe. Five successive London homes exhibit the rising tide of Thackeray's literary success, and afford characteristic glimpses of the domestic architecture of the great city, while a familiar friendship, of early date and long continuance, supplies Mr. Crowe's pen with material as acceptable as that his pencil has found in scattered habitations on two sides of the Channel. A second article which has the merit of conveying distinct personal impressions—in this case of recent date and tinged with pity and indignation—is Yvan Troshine's "Bystander's Notes of a Massacre"—that of the Armenians in Constantinople in the closing days of August last. There is no war-cry here, however, to work author and attitude into favor with the tender-hearted and compassionate. The thorough organization, the business accuracy brought to a fine point, the application of talent and industry, composing the hidden and noiseless wheels upon which revolves in orderly fashion that apparent modern Bedlam, "The Department Store," are made clear to the comprehension of the multitude in an interesting illustrated description by Samuel Hopkins Adams. At the same time, there has not been overlooked, in considering the advantages of the great shops, a certain loss which the buying public suffers from the gradual disappearance of the retail dealer especially educated in his own line, and having a pride in his business to give it a distinction beyond that of mere trading. The store book-department furnishes the best illustration of this loss of a possible educational influence for the shopper.

—Time was when good Americans when they died went to Paris. Nowadays they ascend into English society, of which the final pinnacles are drawing-rooms, house-parties, and "the Marlborough House set." For this reason there is a chance that G. W. Smalley's article on "English Society" in this month's *Harper's* may do a good turn practically to departing or departed fellow-countrymen, by dropping the needful word to the wise in regard to nice points of behavior. Among the mere lookers-on in Vienna who find a spice in the ripened observations of a social philosopher, this paper will be sure to meet with consideration, notwithstanding the faint suspicion of snobbishness which it seems to be next to impossible for the writer who has nothing damaging or damnatory to say of social functions to avoid. But Mr. Smalley's article comes off with the merest possible suspicion, and preserves so well an upright poise on slippery ground that the most sensitive patriot might be trusted to read it and not feel moved to double up his fists at an effete monarchy. Most conspicuously clever of the remaining completed articles is a lively little comedy of lies, "Indian Giver." Here Mr. Howells, who is a past master of this side of feminine psychology, shows once more how witty a thing it is for a pretty woman to prevaricate recklessly, and, having precipitated a series of exciting *contretemps* by her prevarications, at last, like an early friend, the man in the bramble-bush, to retrieve herself by still more reckless prevarication.

—A suggestion is tentatively thrown out in the current *Atlantic*, in the article on "Park-Making as a National Art," by Mary Caroline Robbins, that there may yet be seen a park-way from the Atlantic to the Pacific, "leading from one beautiful pleasure-ground to another, and passing through great tracts of woodland patrolled by Government foresters." Far as we are from this, Mrs. Robbins is able to point to enough that has been begun in this country, by means of grants, gifts and purchases, to justify liberal hopes for the future. As a matter of fact, however, we must still look for achievement to the cities of Great Britain, and in particular to London, where an American authority finds there are already 209 football spaces in use. Joseph Edgar Chamberlin's "Memorials of American Authors" is written in a spirit of a praiseworthy aspiration for a country through which, without finding castles and

cathedrals, a Ruskin of the future may still travel and not feel his vital spirits wither; but the present showing which this paper is able to make, both as to quantity and quality of existing memorials, is discouragingly meagre. More forcible in thought and expression than anything else in this number is W. P. Trent's "Dominant Forces in Southern Life."

—Mr. Gilder's graceful poem in the *Century*, "The Parthenon by Moonlight," is coupled with a paper written with exceptionally intimate knowledge of what it deals with, by D. Bikélas, on "Public Spirit in Modern Athens." The wonder of this paper is the command of English displayed by a Greek, and not its least recommendation is the modesty of its statement and the common sense with which it invests the discussion of its subject. In Julian Hawthorne's "Summer at Christmas-Tide" it is necessary to pardon the raptures of a traveller new to the fascination of the coloring and climate of Jamaica, but this is readily done in view of the combined attractiveness of his theme and of his manner of writing about it. John Dutton Wright's admirably illustrated article on "Speech and Speech-Reading for the Deaf" marks a milestone in the progress of human intelligence and care for the afflicted. In considering the remarkable net result that there are to-day more than 2,500 deaf children in this country who "are taught as wholly by means of speech as the children of our public schools," no one should overlook the patience and genius of the teachers who have devoted themselves to this cause. Hamlin Garland's short story, "A Girl of Modern Tyre," is written in the vernacular which makes speech offensive to ears that are fortunate enough not to be accustomed to it, and which is no more attractive on the printed page than it is in the utterance. It may serve, moreover, as a warning against the excessive flatness into which indiscriminate realism may finally lead a story-teller.

—M. Léon Marillier, of the École Pratique des Hautes Études, has prefixed to his recently published translation of Mr. Andrew Lang's 'Myth, Ritual, and Religion' a noteworthy Introduction. The anthropological school, having driven others from the field, is now, he maintains, called upon for positive and constructive work in the history of religion. To account for the uniformity of savage myths and rites, he falls back upon something scarcely distinguishable from innate ideas. Why, he asks, are certain ideas savage and primitive? Why do primitive traditions too widely scattered to have a common derivation agree in reflecting identical conceptions and modes of feeling? What accounts for the startling monotony of all accounts of ultimate causes given by primitive peoples? There are certain traits inherent in the intellectual and emotional conformation of the primitive mind. There is, according to M. Marillier, a common religion belonging to human-kind, and it is based upon primitive modes of consciousness. Accordingly, the eighteenth century was not wrong in occupying itself with the "human mind," with an abstract man underlying all those picturesque local and individual traits that have so exclusively preoccupied the modern historical school. Yet M. Marillier does not allow of religion, what some assert of language, that it must necessarily be the involuntary and anonymous product of popular consciousness. A rôle remains for great religious innovators, and here again he is in agreement with the eighteenth century, but with a difference all in favor of recognizing as sincere many whom Voltaire and Volney called charlatans.

—M. Marillier contrasts religion and mythology, much as Robertson Smith has done, and agrees with Comte in making out theology and metaphysics to be later phases of thought, developed to cover the original ground of mythology. Comte forgot that all three phases might coexist, and he ignored religion as a mode of emotionalism, the impulse to worship, to seek union with the divine principle. Here, again, we are not far from the innate idea of God. This impulse towards worship, which M. Marillier regards as a mode of sensibility, is, according to him, the one thing in man's nature—whether he be primitive or civilized man—that requires mythology and ritual for its expression and satisfaction. Savage myths, identical the world over, were invented to satisfy this impulse, when with it were associated all the problems of the universe as presented to primitive man. For the savage, mythology was theology, metaphysics, science, and religion, all in one; but it had nothing to do with morality. This last point is rather startling, as some would say that savage morality centred in "taboos," which had a close connection with primitive myths and primitive rites. At all events, M. Marillier outlines the history of mythology as one of continuous differentiation. First, it parted company with theology, and took refuge from metaphysics and science in a close association with ethics. This last association has in these latter days been dissolved, our writer affirms, but the old myths survive. Indeed, they persist in men's minds, not, as of yore, because they answer our questions of doubt concerning the world and ourselves, but because, transformed, as they now are, into symbols, they are the indispensable word-counters required for our own interpretation to our own selves of our own religious emotions.

—The annual public celebration of the Higher Courses for Women, connected with the University of St. Petersburg, took place on December 13, and the reports from all departments showed that the cause of higher education is constantly making progress in Russia. Two new chairs have been established during the past year, viz., zoölogy and the history of pedagogy. At the beginning of the year there were 695 regular and outside students: in the historic-philological department, 506 students, and 56 outside attendants; in the physico-mathematical department, 122 students and 11 outsiders. 101 dropped out, for various reasons, and only 80 graduated in both departments. The applications for entrance for the current year were made in August and September last, and far exceeded the available vacancies, as has regularly been the case every year; 550 applied, but only 226 could be received, and most of these were students who had finished the courses in the middle-class educational institutions with the gold or silver medal, and with the certificate allowing them to give private lessons. It was necessary to refuse the rest, although many of them came from distant parts of the country, Eastern Siberia, Bulgaria, and so forth. At the present time there are 673 students and 68 outsiders, of which number 596 are in the historic-philological department, 101 in the mathematical, and 44 in the chemical. The students of the different departments made excursions that they might study on the spot distant historical monuments; and to places in Finland which offered opportunity for original investigation of physical subjects. The library of the Courses contains 14,758 volumes, under 6,262 heads. In order to facilitate the study of astronomy, the guardians suggested that a small revolving observatory be built, and instruments for making observations be bought, and such an observatory is nearly completed. The Courses also possess the nucleus of a Museum of Fine Arts, in the form of several hundred photographs from architectural subjects and from sculptures, chiefly Italian. The financial part of the report announces that the receipts for the year were 105,985 rubles (about one-half that sum in dollars), of which 54,152 rubles was expended on the educational part, and 33,275 on the support of the students who live in the three houses maintained by the Courses, and in which all women who cannot reside with their parents or relatives are compelled to live. Of such women there are now 168. The limitations of these dormitories are the chief cause of disappointment in candidates from distant places. That is gradually being remedied since the experiment, begun with one house a few years ago, proved so successful with its very moderate charges for comfort and the indispensable protection afforded. At the end of this annual commencement the graduates received their diplomas.

MAHAFFY'S PTOLEMIES.

The Empire of the Ptolemies. By J. P. Mahaffy. Macmillan Co.

PAUSANIAS, writing in the second century of our era, gives as a reason for his brief digression on the Ptolemies that the popular report of them had vanished, and that the contemporary records of their reign were neglected. He could write this only two centuries after the death of the famous Cleopatra. It is no wonder, therefore, that our sources are now meagre and fragmentary. The episodes of Polybius, of Diodorus, of Plutarch and Pausanias must be supplemented with the inscriptions and the fragments of papyri which modern discovery is constantly contributing; and in this flux of isolated facts and documents it is hard to find beginning or end. Mr. Mahaffy does not profess to find an end; yet his treatise must certainly hold the field for a long time, so far as the English language is concerned. He has pieced out his mosaic with great special learning and pains, and has added many new touches to the picture. A good instance of these recent additions to our knowledge, which are confirmed by the evidence of the latest papyri, is, that we now reckon a Ptolemy VI. (Eupator) and a Ptolemy VIII. (Philopator Neos), who were divined but hardly proved by the acute and learned Lepsius.

Mr. Mahaffy begins his work with the conquest of Alexander, which did in fact open a new era for Egypt and its history. He points out the combination of good fortune and good judgment with which the great conqueror propitiated and won over to a certain extent the stubborn and disaffected element in Egyptian society. The Persians, beginning with Cambyses, had outraged the Egyptian priesthood, a powerful and ambitious body, and had incurred their unceasing enmity; Alexander, on the contrary, won their support and their sentimental influence with the populace, just as he had won, by judicious concessions, the priesthood at Jerusalem and the important services of the migratory and commercial Jews. Ptolemy Soter inherited the outlines of Alexander's policy in Egypt, as he had managed to secure for the nascent Alexandria the prestige and sanctity of retaining

in the Sema those magic relics in their golden sarcophagus for the possession of which Perdiccas had disputed. He contributed magnificently to the burial of Apis, which Cambyses had insulted and desecrated; he granted lands to the domain of the gods Pe and Tep; he built temples at Edfu, at Esneh, and at Denderah, so purely Egyptian in their symbols and architecture that they were long supposed to belong to the older Pharaonic dynasties. By such concessions he gained the active support of the national hierarchy, and their vast influence over the fellahs, whose lot, then as now, was unceasing labor under the kurbash of the tax-gatherer. He even seems to have invented, with the aid of Greek and Egyptian priests, a new guardian deity for his new capital—a mongrel fusion of Sarapis with the Greek Hades, which suited well the mixed elements of that growing population.

In the government of the city, which became the Paris of the Hellenistic world, this ruler made a novel departure from the conceptions of Alexander and from the Greek ideas of polity. It was not self-governing, according to the Greek idea of the *polis*. Its citizens had, indeed, certain exemptions and privileges; but they remained subject, under military control, to a centralized empire which Ptolemy had the original genius to devise and establish. His statesmanship, like that of the other Diadochi, was Machiavellian, but tempered and prospered by a combination of prudence, moderation, courtesy, and bonhomie, which was purely personal and individual. To this remarkable group of qualities his successors owed the stability of the empire. The debt which the modern world owes him is of a different kind, and far more important. With the aid and counsel of Demetrius of Phaleron, he founded the Museum, that earliest university of learning, and made a beginning of the famous library. To his patronage we owe the corps of bookworms and critics and grammarians who preserved for us the Greek classics; to him, probably, more than to his son Philadelphus, we are indebted for the names and the works of Theocritus and Aratus, of Euclid and Herophilus.

The city itself was the earliest great and gay capital of the civilized world—the model of Rome in after times, replete with luxury and magnificence, with architectural adornment and artistic beauty. Mr. Mahaffy maintains, and we must agree with him, that the treasures of art collected in that wealthy capital were second only to those of Athens and its Acropolis. In later days, its architecture and painting set the fashions to Rome and Pompeii and Herculaneum. A unique sample of the best art of that period has come down to us in the magnificent polychrome sarcophagus now preserved in the new museum of Constantinople. It is the greatest of pities that we must apparently renounce the hope of recovering such treasures. If not plundered and carried away, they lie buried ten feet below the present water-level, in consequence of a general subsidence of the soil which was revealed by the recent excavations undertaken for the Hellenic Society.

We have spoken of Alexandria as a sort of Paris, visited for its splendid fêtes by the rustic world of Greece and the Ægean islands, such as those lively ladies whose chatter Theocritus immortalized in his fifteenth idyl. It bore a curious resemblance to the modern Paris in another respect. The Alexandrian mob was as capricious, as brutal in its outbreaks, as powerful in swaying the destinies of the Empire, as the supporters of the Commune. The pétroleuses were not more outrageous than the troop of young girls who, Polybius informs us, tore in pieces the wife and infant child of Philammon.

The policy of centralization which was invented by the first Ptolemy was continued by his son Philadelphus. The Revenue Papyrus of the twenty-seventh year of his reign, discovered by Mr. Petrie, contains the most minute regulations as to the taxing of vineyards and wine and oils and fish. The prices, the number of acres to be cultivated, the number of retailers, were all fixed by the State; the seed was distributed by the State sixty days before the harvest. The minute detail of these regulations, borrowed from the Pharaohs, reminds us of that crushing system of restriction which prevailed in the Byzantine Empire and is disclosed in the "Book of the Prefect," the municipal code of Leo, "the Wise." There were tithes and twentieths and sixths—there was a salt-tax, a police-tax, a dyke-tax, an orphan-tax. Inheritance-tax, apparently, there was none; but this might well be omitted, since every field and every plant was catalogued and assessed during a man's lifetime. There was a swarm of officials and a deal of red tape under this complicated bureaucracy; but there were no outrages or horrors of the type which introduced the French Revolution. The papyri prove that, in the main, justice was done by the crown magistrates, and life and property were secure. The State regulations did not preclude a considerable measure of freedom in commerce, in the transfer of property, and in the provisions of wills. The Grenfell papyri, published since Mr. Mahaffy's book was printed, give remarkable confirmation of this fact. Within our own day, under the Khedive Ismail, the fellahs were more oppressed than were the subjects of the Lagidæ or the Seleucidæ.

Early in his reign the second Ptolemy took the extraordinary step of marrying his own sister, Arsinoe, called from that fact Philadelphus, "the lover of her brother." This incest offended Greek sentiment, but was entirely in accord with Egyptian ideas and with the Oriental expressions of the Song of Songs, which was probably composed in the Alexandrian epoch. Droysen ascribes the choice to motives of policy; Mr. Mahaffy assumes also more potent influences. It is quite likely that Ptolemy was in love with his sister. Arsinoe was ambitious, she was strongly intellectual, and probably a woman of great personal charm. "She wanted only another Plutarch and a Roman lover to make her another Cleopatra." She won great popularity, and, before her death, had received the tribute of deification in all the Egyptian temples. This deification was no barren honor. The Revenue Papyrus lets us into the secret of what it really meant. It contains a royal order by which the tithes (or rather the sixths) due to the temples were made over to the patron goddess, Arsinoe Philadelphus. In compensation for this ingenious form of confiscation some moderate allowances were made to the priesthood.

The latest successor of Arsinoe was the Cleopatra of Plutarch and of Shakspere, no gypsy "with Phœbus' amorous pinches black," but heir of the purest Macedonian blood and features—heir, apparently, of all its force and graces, without diminution or deterioration; yet four of her direct ancestors had married full sisters. Many years ago Mr. G. H. Lewes cited this remarkable woman as a disproof of the common belief that intermarriage of near relations necessarily produces physical degeneration. The Arsinoes and the Cleopatras were, in general, stronger than their husbands intellectually, but quite as unscrupulous, as destitute of the ordinary feeling and decencies of humanity. It is not easy to guess what flesh and blood these women were made of who were ready to sacrifice everything to ambition, to whom a Manon Lescaut might be a type of modesty—one of whom, it is asserted, lived and bore children to a husband who was at once her own brother, the murderer of her son, and the husband of her daughter. The myth of Œdipus hardly embraced such a catalogue of monstrosities. Mr. Mahaffy speaks of the mimes of Herondas as probably overdrawn in their realism—overdrawn *à la* Zola. That may possibly be. But the tone of the mimes strikes us as exactly fitting the court of the Ptolemies. The high moralities which Pindar administered to his princely patrons have disappeared from this literature. By Theocritus such matters are gracefully ignored; for Herondas they hardly exist. He sketches his rather sordid types with undeniable art, but with a hard and cynical humor which is truly Mephistophelian. This Mephistophelian cynicism is the keynote to the court of the Ptolemies.

It would be a great mistake, however, to believe all that we are told of these sovereigns, or to imagine that the country suffered in proportion to their scandalous reputation. The evidence of the papyri proves this to a demonstration. The historians have served up the name of Ptolemy Physkon (Euergetes II.) with a *sauce piquante* of incredible crimes and cruelties, among which is the murder and mutilation of his own son as well as his sister's. Yet this "Tamburlaine" reigned nearly thirty years over a fairly prosperous people, and contributed a curious emendation to the 'Odyssey.' There is, in fact, neither rhyme nor reason in the chapter of horrors that is narrated of him; the contemporary documents do not bear them out, and Mr. Mahaffy does not accept them. He believes, with great probability, that they were partly invented by the Jews and Greeks whom Euergetes banished in pursuing a national or Egyptianizing policy, and who took this literary revenge upon his memory. As to the character of his government, we have the remarkable testimony of the Turin papyrus, which records, in nine columns, the evidence and the decision *in re* Hermias vs. the Choachytæ, a litigation over a piece of real estate in the fifty-third year of Physkon's life. The evidence goes back for eighty-eight years—the public records for that period are cited; "the arguments and the decision are such as would now be used in an English court." The decision, we may add, was rendered within a month of the hearing. A single case of this kind goes far to countervail the verdict even of Strabo and Polybius.

The steady growth of an Egyptianizing policy can be traced in the ample citations which Mr. Mahaffy makes from papyri and inscriptions, a feature most welcome to the scholarly reader who is not a specialist. Chief of these are the decree of Canopus under Ptolemy III. (238 B.C.), and the decree of Memphis in the Rosetta Stone (196 B.C.). Every one has heard of the Rosetta Stone and its relation to Champollion's discovery. Many have seen it in the British Museum; very few know what it is all about. Mr. Mahaffy here gives the Greek text in full with annotations, in order to show the relations of the Government to the priests and the native population. Like the decree

of Canopus, it contains a complimentary vote of the Egyptian priests to the reigning King, recording certain conquests and public works, acknowledging certain favors received and conferring certain honors. But the language of the later decree reveals the progress which the stubborn Egyptian element had made in conquering its conquerors. It is thoroughly Egyptian in its long-winded titles and phrases and whimsical formulas of flattery.

BANKS'S JOURNAL.

Journal of the Right Hon. Sir Joseph Banks, Bart., K.B., P.R.S. Edited by Sir Joseph D. Hooker. Macmillan Co. 1896.

It is probable that many of our readers are already acquainted with parts of this journal, although they may not be aware of the fact. Those who have perused the account of Capt. James Cook's voyage to the South Seas in the ship *Endeavour* remember how much of the interest was plainly due to the vivid descriptions of natural scenery, of the natives and their ways, and of the plants. A good measure of this interest came, not from what Cook himself wrote, although Cook's style is graphic and full of vigor, but from material which his editor appropriated, under authority, from the journals of Cook's scientific companions. This material was inextricably blended with Cook's own words and with the editor's fine writing.

This blending of incongruous matters happened in the following way. On Cook's return, his journals, together with those of his scientific associates, Banks and Solander, were intrusted to Dr. Hawkesworth for publication. A note in Prior's Life of Malone says: "Hawkesworth, the writer, was introduced by Garrick to Lord Sandwich, who, thinking to put a few hundred pounds into his pocket, appointed him to revise and publish Cook's voyages. He scarcely did anything to the MS., yet sold it to Cadell and Strahan, the printer and bookseller, for £6,000. . . ." But Hawkesworth, instead of doing scarcely anything, as this note would lead us to believe, did really too much; he brought rather too much of his own heaviness into the narrative, and, after the common fashion of that day, took here a little and there a little of just what served him best, without providing the student of his pages any sufficient data for determining exactly what was Cook, what was Banks or Solander, and what was Hawkesworth. With the means now at command, it is possible to ascertain at least what were the respective contributions of Cook and Banks. Cook's Journal, freed from extraneous matter, was carefully edited, in 1893, by Capt. W. J. L. Wharton, R.N., Hydrographer to the Admiralty, and now we have before us the Journal which was kept by Banks.

This has likewise received careful editing, also at the hands of competent authority. Captain Wharton was admirably fitted to consider Cook's Journal from the point of view of modern navigation and of hydrography; Sir Joseph Hooker, the most eminent living botanist, an all-around naturalist, interested in everything which can fall under the eye of a scientific traveller, and familiar with much of the ground visited by Banks, is the one to whom the task of editing this Journal would naturally be committed by common consent of the learned world. But there is an added felicity in Sir Joseph's acceptance of this task in the fact that it is to one of his relatives that we are indebted for the preservation of the Journal itself. Sir Joseph states in the preface that:

"On Sir J. Banks's death without issue in 1820, his property and effects passed to the Hugessen [his wife's] family, with the exception of the library, herbarium, and the lease of the house in Soho Square. These were left to his librarian, the late eminent botanist Robert Brown, F.R.S., with the proviso that after that gentleman's death the library and herbarium were to go to the British Museum. Banks's papers and correspondence, including the Journal of the voyage of the *Endeavour*, were then placed by the trustees in Mr. Brown's hands, with the object of his writing a Life of Banks, which he had agreed to do. Age and infirmities, however, interfered with his prosecution of this work, and at his suggestion the materials were transferred with the same object to my maternal grandfather, Dawson Turner, F.R.S., an eminent botanist and antiquarian, who had been a friend of Banks. Mr. Turner at once had the whole faithfully transcribed, but for which precaution the Journal would as a whole have been irretrievably lost."

It appears that when the manuscripts had been copied, they were placed, after one or two transfers, in the manuscript department of the British Museum. Mr. Carruthers, F.R.S., late keeper of the botanical collections at the British Museum, says, in a letter to Sir Joseph Hooker, dated July 14, 1893:

"The story of the originals, after I parted with them, is a distressing one. Some seven or eight years ago Lord Brabourne claimed the letters as his property. Mr. Maunde Thompson remonstrated, and told him that they were to remain in the Museum till the death of Lady Knatchbull, and then they were to become the property of the trustees. Lord Brabourne would not accept this view, but claimed them as his own, and carried off the box and its contents. They were afterwards offered to the Museum for sale, but the price offered by the keeper of the manuscripts was not satisfactory, and the whole collection was broken up into lots, 207, and sold by auction at Sotheby's on 14th April, 1886. The Journal of Cook's voyage was lot 176, and was described in the catalogue as 'Banks's (Sir Joseph) Journal of a Voyage to the Sandwich Islands and New Zealand, from March, 1769, to July, 1771, in the autograph of Banks.' It was purchased by an autograph dealer, John Waller, for £7:2:6. . . . I have since ascertained that the Journal came into the possession of J. Henniker Heaton, Esq., M. P., who informs me that he disposed of it to a gentleman in Sydney, N. S. W. The result is that the Journal and letters transcribed for Dawson Turner, and now here, are the only ones available."

Thus, by the happiest chance, the editing of an authentic transcript falls to the grandson of the thoughtful man whose foresight saved the Journal to science.

The Journal is well worth saving. It is the graphic account of daily adventures and explorations by a naturalist who engaged with his whole might in his work. His companion, Daniel Carl Solander, a Swede and a pupil of Linnæus, entered heartily into all the plans of Cook and Banks, and, after his return, became the secretary and librarian of Banks. The voyage carried these three well-equipped explorers first to Madeira and thence to Rio de Janeiro, at which port the authorities gave them much trouble. The Viceroy was suspicious that the Whitby-built bark of three hundred and seventy tons was not really a king's ship of war, but a smuggler, and the crew was forbidden to land. Remonstrances were of no avail. On the 21st of November, 1768, Banks was informed by the Viceroy that it was not in his power to permit him to go ashore. The entry on the 26th is very characteristic of the man:

"I myself went ashore this morning before daybreak, and stayed till dark night. While I was ashore I met several of the inhabitants, who were very civil to me, taking me to their houses, where I bought stock for the ship tolerably cheap."

Banks then proceeds to give a clear sketch of the natural features of the place, together with some account of the gardens and fields, the government, religion, and manners. Yet he did not once set foot in the city. His diligence during his clandestine examination of the suburbs may be partially realized when we note that he made a list of 316 plants near Rio.

From this inhospitable reception by the Portuguese, the ship sailed to the even more inhospitable region of the Cape. At Tierra del Fuego, an exploring party from the ship had a terrible experience in the birch-scrub. Banks, Solander, and a few others tried to ascend a mountain some miles from the shore, but they became benumbed by cold, weakened by hunger, and finally lost in the snow. Two of the servants were frozen to death, but the rest of the party came back enfeebled. In a couple of days Banks was again at work with his plants and with his studies of the natives. So that, from the first, we see this wealthy Englishman, who might have led a life of elegant leisure in his library, entering with keen zest into every phase of adventure, taking risks, suffering hardship, apparently with the single aim of adding to the sum of human knowledge. In these days of accumulating wealth we have here the lesson of Banks's Journal. Banks made his fortune fruitful.

From Cape Horn the ship sailed to Tahiti, where Banks employed his time assiduously in collecting illustrations of natural history and in a careful study of the natives. The descriptions are uncommonly spirited, and the conclusions drawn from his observations are generally just. The modest accounts given by him of his part in the daily toil convince the reader that he must have been an admirable companion for such a perilous voyage. There is a vein of humor running through the narrative which lends a great charm to the whole.

New Zealand and the east coast of Australia were next visited, almost every point and bay and river referred to taking its name from some adventure. Banks brings the narrowly escaped dangers, the shipwreck and the partial repair, the drifting in the Coral Sea, and the overhanging cloud of illness, almost too vividly before us. Then comes the voyage of the disheartened to Batavia, the recital of discouragements, and finally the return. Through all the Journal there is kept a sense of proportion which makes it stand as a marvel of sound readable record.

To Wharton, who has rescued Cook's Journal, and to Sir Joseph Hooker, who has rehabilitated Banks's Journal, the sincere gratitude of all who like the true story of maritime discovery is due. There are two other journals which keep coming constantly to the mind while reading the Journal of Banks and the Journal by Cook — namely, that by Darwin, and the notes by Sir Joseph himself in his great treatises on the plants of the South Seas. A spirit of truthfulness and of self-sacrifice in the highest cause pervades them all.

Totem Tales. By W. S. Phillips. Chicago: Star Publishing Co. 1895.

A worth considerably beyond any promise of its illustration or of its English inheres in this collection by simple merit of its genuine-

ness. These are mostly real Indian stories, and, with a few easily detected exceptions, antedate the missionaries. But emphatically they are not "Indian stories, Indian told," as the author fancies. With his sincere if untrained feeling, he might have come near to a real eloquence if he had had precisely the Indian genius of restraint. The aborigine, whatever his other failures, never gets drunk with the sound of his own voice. Mr. Phillips has properly told and retold to his own civilized babies versions of these tales picked up by him among the tribes of the North Pacific Coast, and very lamentably has retained in his book the knee-high attitude of narration. For this, quite as much as for its slack grammar, his literary vehicle is most unsatisfactory. A sustained falsetto is the last tone fit to be used in any putative rehearsal of Indian speech. The nomenclature is shockingly mixed and undigested. How entirely the Indian names are *not* "pronounced just as they are written" here is conclusively shown by the author's own appendix. Most of the illustration is equally grievous to the judicial, and suggestive of the chopping-block. Yet the artist (who is the author) has sometimes an actual inspiration in a tailpiece or touch which is at once Indian and decorative, fairly suggesting the one venture (and success) of George Wharton Edwards in a comparable field.

Yet, despite its verbiage, its sorry grammar, its prevalent scragginess of illustration, and total lack of phonetic system, we could better have spared a better book. The vital fact is that Mr. Phillips has caught and with reasonable accuracy transcribed for us a number of "Chinook" folk-tales; rescuing them none too soon from the disintegration which is so fast destroying primitive folk-lore in all the Americas. It is the first step that costs, now. Time and the men abound for giving the salvage its due literary form and its appraisement in science.

Driving for Pleasure; or, The Harness-Stable and its Appointments. By Francis T. Underhill. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

THIS is a sumptuous book bound in kid and "suede," printed on thick paper with wide margins and double leads. It is studded with illustrations, to the extent of 124 full page plates. Many of these would grace the catalogue of a wagon-shop. In turning the leaves of this volume, one is reminded of a burlesque Venetian sketch which, on large tinted paper, with an excellent silhouette of the city of St. Mark and an artist's gondola in the foreground, bears this legend:

> "You can bet your bottom dollar
> We are onto this Venice caper:
> A little paint, a little work,
> And lots of empty paper."

But this is only one side of the case; for, while the forty odd thousand words could go easily into a vest pocket volume, and while there is a superabundance of the photographs of vehicles, the text is sensible and good. The real pictures are admirable, and the sumptuosity well befits a book intended mainly for those who make the driving of "correct" turn-outs a high purpose of their lives. A man who goes about the streets with a ton of coach, four fine horses, and a couple of stalwart grooms, ought not to read a book that would go into any pocket. Unless he has had a groom's training, he can hardly be sure that his appointments are like every one else's in the absence of illustrations like these to guide him.

To the observer of social customs nothing is more curious than the dead level of uniformity to which all horsey things have been brought by those who use the show drive-ways of American towns and summer resorts. There is one right way in which everything is to be done, in any particular year, from the head-stalls of the leaders to the hind boot of the coach. Correct style is simply a close adherence to the prescription of the moment. Unless we know the coaching man personally, it is impossible to determine whether he is a gentleman or only a rich man. However, this is the fashion of the hour in this land of independence and liberty, and we have no fault to find with it.

There are men among the owners of modern turnouts who are good horsemen, and who are wise lovers of good horses, and Mr. Underhill is one of them. Those of us who cannot indulge in all the elegance he dangles before our wistful eyes, may still find stimulus for our imaginations in what he shows us, and especially in much that he tells us. This, for example, is his account of a good coachman:

"A head coachman becomes such after years of hard training under a master (either professional or amateur) who is thoroughly posted, and then only when he possesses a suitable temperament, hands, receptive faculties, application, and appearance, together with the ability to manage men, and the education necessary to the keeping of his accounts, etc. While, of course, those needing a servant so well qualified as a head coachman should be are not numerous, they are sufficiently so to warrant a sketch of some of the training which such a man must undergo.

"Beginning in his boyhood as exerciser, and later as a breaker of colts to saddle, he goes through a hard and somewhat rough school, his instructor probably being considerable of a martinet. Then, selected from among several others of his kind, he is advanced to the harness stable, where for some time he is made generally useful, and is familiarized with the minor details of stable duties; he is taught how to walk smartly, and not with the slouchy step of the plowboy, and how to put a certain snap into his way of doing his work. By degrees, as a strapper, the cleaning of horses, harness, carriages, saddles, bridles, leathers, and all the incidental and additional duties are mastered, and he commences his career as a groom in livery. In this capacity he has to learn a great many little niceties as to the proper way of filling the positions of tiger, carriage, and pad groom. These qualifications mastered, he is passed to the degree of under-coachman, and then, if he is to be further advanced, he must be sufficiently interested in his work to learn the practical care of a horse, his feeding, treatment, etc., in case of sudden sickness (and before a veterinarian can be summoned); he must look into horse-shoeing from an intelligent standpoint, so that he can advise with the farrier as to the correction of some defect in balance or in action; he must be well posted in mouthing and bitting as applied to horses of different temperaments; he must know how to harness his horses properly, and how to drive a single horse, a pair, a tandem, or a four, in a finished and workmanlike manner, and, finally, he must not use liquor to excess. How true the maxim is, that 'a coachman is born, not made'; for with all the requisite making here outlined, the number of men with the keenness and ability to profit by such training is extremely small."

Concerning tandem driving our author says:

"Tandem driving is a most delightful sport, and productive of a great deal of skill on the part of the man who practises it constantly and with a variety of horses. It seems to be somewhat of a fad with coaching and four-in-hand men generally to affect to despise a tandem as beneath their dignity. Such an affectation is absurd, for tandem driving requires the consideration of many points which do not exist in the driving of four; and although the latter sport demands more finished horsemanship as a whole, tandem driving furnishes a field for practice, and the use of hand and whip, which are most valuable to a coachman.

"When one has, for example, two highly strung horses with sensitive mouths which are new to tandem work, he has really one of the prettiest opportunities for the display of finished workmanship and hands, if he would bring these horses to their work properly without the constant assistance of his groom."

There is an old English saying that the seat on horseback makes some men look like gentlemen and others like grooms. The groom-act is thoroughly well done by the rider on the cockhorse—to Banbury Cross—in the frontispiece.

Studies in Ancient History. Second Series. Comprising an Inquiry into the Origin of Exogamy. By the late John Ferguson McLennan. Edited by his widow and Arthur Platt. Macmillan Co. 1896. Pp. xiv, 505.

UNDER any precise terminology this title suggests a paraphrase of the somewhat famous schoolboy composition: "It is hard to study ancient history, because there isn't any." A definition of "history" which might justify this sincere and laborious volume would have to blink the last twenty years and their enlightenments. Dr. McLennan's researches along the lines of human accretion and crystallization are long known. His 'Origin of Marriage' was published in 1876 and again in 1886; a scholarly treatise, as is this "second series," and with the same generic weakness—complete lack of schooling in the field. Such treatises nowadays are measured beside Lewis H. Morgan's demonstration of the classificatory system of aboriginal relationships, the broad conclusions of which have been proved inexpugnable in every field scientifically tested. As all who followed the old controversy know, Dr. McLennan was never able to understand that system; and even in this posthumous volume he continues to protest against the inevitable.

It is again the irrepressible conflict between the closet student and the graduate from the same curriculum plus field-knowledge. There is much curious reading here for such as are aware of the direct work, in the American field, by a small but devoted band of scholars from Bandelier and Matthews down, in the last fifteen years. It would be ungenerous to lay specific blame at Dr. McLennan's door. He had no personal touch with any human remnant from ancient history; and, so far as he is concerned, the present work is seriously fragmentary. The editors frequently confess how unfinished he left the material; had his life been spared he might have made radical changes.

The "ancient history" he had to be content with was of course—and almost without exception—modern accounts of peoples who more or less remain of primitive habit. Nearly all the testimony upon which his theories are based is the inexpert observation of sailors, travellers, and missionaries. Lafitau and other Jesuits, the Franciscan frailes, the Langs, Livingstons, and Calverts—these were honest men. Probably Garcilaso de la Vega, the Inca Pretender, is the only authority quoted who had a specific inducement to falsify, and did falsify. But not one had the ethnologic equipment, and not one was on an ethnologic mission. Curiously enough, the only scientific authority of first rank quoted in this work is the only source the author has seen fit to ridicule. He clearly aims to be judicial, and of many witnesses he detects the incompetency; but his is the fate of his environment, and while he can digest Lafitau and Schoolcraft, he strains at Morgan. As

one lists and ponders the cloud of witnesses, the wonder grows that so serious a structure should have been raised upon the like sands. If exogamy had awaited establishment at such hands, it would be guesswork still.

The exact value of unaimed observation could hardly have more graphic demonstration. Not to follow the author through all the aboriginal kingdoms of the earth, his divisions relative to the Americas are (when we remember the toil that has gone to this volume) barely short of pitiful. On the authority of H. H. Bancroft's consensus of reporters, and of less culpable (because earlier) conjecturers, he has assembled perhaps the most remarkable mass of error as to Western and Southwestern tribes that has found place in so serious a volume. Nothing could well be less on a level with our present knowledge than his statements as to the Moquis, the Navajos, the Southern Californians, and the Zuñis (who seem to be classed as of Mexico). That "the New Mexicans are polygamous; they acquire their wives by purchase"; that "the Pueblos also get wives by purchase"; and equally generic blunders touching Mexico, Central America, and Peru—these would be in themselves enough to discredit his witnesses in mass.

For so conscientious a student there can be but one feeling, however much astray Dr. McLennan's conclusions are. But there may fairly be doubt if his literary executors have dealt wisely or fairly with his memory in publishing these unfinished notes of a work which the times have outstripped.

Introduction to Public Finance. By Carl C. Plehn. Macmillan. 1896.

PUBLIC finance, according to the author of this treatise, is properly called a science for a number of reasons, the last of which is that "it is generally, if not universally, so regarded." Perhaps this should settle the question, and if a body of customs that have grown up without reference to any consistent principles can be called a science, the methods by which governments obtain revenue are no doubt scientific. However this may be, it is certainly possible to describe these methods, and this is attempted by Prof. Plehn with a considerable degree of success. He considers it important to begin with an account of public expenditure, which he divides into expenditure for the common benefit and expenditure for the benefit of individuals. It is somewhat paradoxical to find that the expense of maintaining the House of Representatives in the Fifty-second Congress, some $5,000,000, falls under the head of expenditure for the common benefit, although it would not be easy to prove that the expenditure of this money did good to any one except those who received it. But the paradox may be explained if we remember that, according to political theory, the House of Representatives exists for the common good, and that for the purposes of classification the truth of this theory must be conclusively presumed.

The sources of public revenue are of course chiefly taxes. Fees bring in no inconsiderable sum, and the income from the business operations of government is in modern times of increasing importance. Prof. Plehn is careful in his distinctions; but they are after all of merely technical importance. They have been painfully worked out by German writers, and introduced by some American professors into their lectures and essays, but they have no relation to the proceedings of our legislators. The science of finance as constructed by these students is purely esoteric, and we might almost say that it is constructed to suit their own political ideals. It would be easy to show that it has but the slightest economic basis, and that it ignores the existence of the most formidable dangers to society. Prof. Plehn, it is true, declares that he concerns himself only with what is, and not with what ought to be; he attempts to maintain a position on "the high plane of scientific impartiality." But the attempt is futile, and it would be futile whoever made it. In this writer's case we see at once that he has been captivated by the system elaborated by the Prussian theorists, and that he, to some extent unconsciously, estimates schemes of taxation according to their relation to his ideal. He complacently observes, for instance, that "the hopes of reformers all centre in the income tax"—a statement that could scarcely be made by any one thoroughly familiar with American sentiment.

A considerable part of this treatise is devoted to an account of the growth and forms of public debt, and to an explanation of some of the methods of fiscal administration. We observe nothing here, however, that calls for particular mention. It should be said that the author declares his intention to produce only an elementary text-book, so that we may not justly complain of its lack of completeness. On the whole, if we regard it as a brief dictionary of fiscal institutions, it is not without value; but in this point of view much of it could have been omitted. The style is generally clear, but occasionally marred by defective English.

Genealogical Record of the Hodges Family of New England, ending Dec. 31, 1894. 3d ed. Compiled by Almon D. Hodges, jr. Boston: Frank H. Hodges. 1896.

WE are inclined to regard this work as almost a unique example of reëlaboration in genealogical literature. One edition commonly suffices to exhaust the strength, zeal, and purse of the unrequited author of a family history, but here we have a third, based by a son upon his father's continuation of the original "small duodecimo of 22 finely printed pages" published in 1837 by Rufus Hodges in Cincinnati. This pioneer was linked to his immediate successor as a some-time instructor, and as a kinsman in the Taunton branch—much the larger of the two grand divisions of the family; the Salem branch being the other. Another singular and (to the searcher) by no means encouraging circumstance is the appearance in our early annals of a number of persons who, in the mixed spelling of the age, were confounded with each other as Hedge, Hedges, Hodge, Hodges, Hogge, Hogg, and even Hodgkins, with an occasional deliberate change on the owner's part from one of these names to another. The clearing up of this tangle, so far as it was possible, was the first task of the present editor.

In respect of allied families there is no comparison between the Salem and the Taunton branches. The historic fame of Essex County, Mass, is here supremely represented by Derby, Ward, Ingersoll, Bowditch, Crowninshield, Choate, Manning, with a loan of Quincy and Russell from Boston. On the other hand, numbers tell in favor of Taunton when Mr. Hodges musters, in an appendix, the participants in the Colonial, Revolutionary, and Civil wars. To this list he admits both Hodges and non-Hodges, and the genealogy as a whole is remarkable for the fulness with which it portrays those who do not, as well as those who do, bear the family name. Women, again, who marry and become parents, enter into the numbered scheme and have their separate biographies. There is often a noticeable particularity in personal description which does much to make this record readable. Finally, the indications of generation and direct ascent are in accordance with the most approved method, while the index is a marvel of completeness and intelligent painstaking. Mr. Hodges even goes so far as to star the pages in which a given name figures more than once.

The Puritan in England and New England. By Ezra Hoyt Byington, D.D. With an Introduction by Alexander McKenzie, D.D. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1896. Pp. xl, 406.

IN this handsomely printed volume Dr. Byington has gathered together, after having rewritten and brought them into close relationship, a number of papers designed, in their original form, for publication in a monthly periodical or for presentation before historical societies. Though knit together into a fair degree of unity, they bear evident traces of their original purpose. The opening chapter, entitled "The Puritan in England," is a rapid survey of Puritanism in the mother country to the era of the settlement of New England; but the collection, as a whole, forms not so much a history of Puritanism as a series of glances at various aspects of Puritan life and character, under such captions as "The Pilgrim and the Puritan: Which?"—an answer to the question as to whether the settlers of Plymouth or Massachusetts Bay "had most to do in moulding the people of New England"; "The Early Ministers of New England"; "The Family and Social Life of the Puritans"; and "The Religious Opinions of the Fathers of New England." If little is here presented that is unfamiliar to the student of New England beginnings, all is attractively told, with much geniality of temper and vivacity of style.

A more distinctively local flavor is possessed by three papers which Dr. Byington has included in his volume. Two of these have to do with Springfield, Massachusetts. One is the story of "William Pynchon, Gent.," whose portrait forms the frontispiece of the work under review, and whose experiences, as a theological writer suffering the disapproval of the Massachusetts General Court, Dr. Byington interestingly recounts. The second treats of the difficulties that beset the ordination of Rev. Robert Breck. In his concluding paper Dr. Byington makes an address at the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of a church at Brunswick, Maine, the vehicle for a brief discussion of "Religious Life in the Eighteenth Century in Northern New England."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adams, F. U. President John Smith. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co. 25c.
Bryce, James. Transcaucasia and Ararat. Fourth edition, revised, with a Supplementary Chapter on the Recent History of the Armenian Question. Macmillan.
Carpenter, Prof. G. R. Selections from the Works of Sir Richard Steele. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.
Dauer, F. A. Storm's Immensee. American Book Co. 26c.
Gibbons, Cardinal. The Ambassador of Christ. Baltimore: John Murphy & Co.
Hope, Antonio. El Prisionero de Zenda. Appletons.
Hopkins, W. R. The Street Railway Problem in Cleveland. [Economic Studies.] Macmillan. 75c.
Ireland, Rev John. The Church and Modern Society: Lectures and Addresses. Chicago: D. H. McBride & Co. $1.50.
Jordan, W. L. The Standard of Value. 7th ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

Noguchi, Yone. Seen and Unseen; or, Monologues of a Homeless Snail. San Francisco: Burgess & Garnett. $1.25
Perkins, Prof. C. A. Outlines of Electricity and Magnetism. Henry Holt & Co. $1.10.
Rhoades, Prof. L. A. Goethe's Iphigenie auf Tauris. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 70c.

Reed, V. Z. Lo-to kah. Continental Publishing Co. $1.
Richard Cobden and the Jubilee of Free Trade. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Sermon. Addresses and Essays Delivered at the Celebration of the One Hundredth Anniversary of the Founding of the First Unitarian Church of Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Published by the Society.

Weston, Rev. Walter. Mountaineering and Exploration in the Japanese Alps. London: Murray; New York: Scribners. $6.
Whitmarsh, Lieut. H. P. The Young Pearl Divers. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. $1.25.
Whittle, J. L. Grover Cleveland. [Public Men of To-day.] F. Warne & Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 21, 1897.

The Week.

THE Senate is right to be deliberate in so momentous a matter as the arbitration treaty, but it ought not to forget its own precedent of December, 1895. Then it was ready to "stand behind the President" and go to war—why, no man knew—on two days' notice. Now war is the thing that really ought to make grave Senators pause. To sit down and count the cost thereof is a part of proverbial wisdom. Terrible consequences are wrapped up in any war, but in a treaty of peace there are no dangers whatever. This is so because you can break the treaty and go to war any day you wish. War can be had on demand, but a chance to make peace doubly sure does not come every day. Hence the duty of rational men to close eagerly with such a chance when offered. The Senate can scarcely afford to put itself in the position of being ready to fight at the drop of the handkerchief, but of demanding weeks to consider whether it is in favor of peace.

Private advices from Washington are to the effect that the opposition in the Senate to the arbitration treaty is founded upon personal opposition to President Cleveland, and in less degree to Secretary Olney, rather than to the treaty itself. This species of opposition does not prevail among the Republicans to any dangerous extent, although it may suit them best to postpone action till McKinley comes in. It is rife among the Bryan Democrats and their silver allies of the mining States. Such opposition is not amenable to arguments addressed to the merits of the treaty. It can be overcome only by public opinion. There is no prejudice against Mr. Cleveland among the plain people, and none worth mentioning against Mr. Olney. So far as the latter is concerned, it may be recalled that the negotiations for this treaty were begun by the late Secretary Gresham, and were pretty well advanced at the time of his death. Now if the plain people want to have the treaty ratified, they must take some pains about it. There is no reason why a man who believes in silver at 16 to 1, or one who believes in unlimited greenbacks and who is in favor of abolishing the national banks, should not be in favor of peace on earth and good will to men. We should like to believe that, on a question of this kind, affecting civilization and involving our repute as professed believers in the Christian religion, all Americans are alike—that Republicans, Democrats, Populists, Prohibitionists, Socialists, and people of every shade of political belief stand on a common platform. We believe that they do so stand. We believe that if this treaty were submitted to a plébiscite, the number of votes cast against it would not be worth counting. Yet it is possible for the Senate to reject it, if those persons who favor it do not take the trouble to let their Senators know how they stand. The movement of last spring, which resulted in the great conference at Washington, where more than forty States were represented by men of high character and influence, ought to be renewed without delay and continued until the question is disposed of. If by any means the treaty should fail of ratification, steps should be taken to begin again. Such an opportunity to take the lead in the world's progress has not presented itself since the abolition of slavery.

What was meant by Senator Hawley's saying, at the dinner of the Ohio Society on Saturday evening, that there is no provision in the arbitration treaty to put a stop to England's policy of territorial extension? If that policy touches territory in which we are concerned, in respect of which we choose to interfere, the treaty does not restrain us in any way. Take, for example, the case of the Hawaiian Islands. If England should seize them, we might consider our interests affected, and the treaty would not prevent us from interfering. What would be the outcome of such a step we need not inquire. Our point is that the pending treaty would not put us in any worse position than we are in now. It would not prevent us from fighting if we wanted to. Senator Hawley recognizes that fact by saying:

> "I am going to vote for the treaty. It is a good thing and a civilized thing to do. And it is only for five years, any way. But I say (and mark my words) that if there be any wrong, any serious insult, put upon our nation and our flag, the American people will fight, be there treaty or be there no treaty."

We can all agree to that. Whether we are Senators or cowboys, we can all "get up on our hind legs" and hurl defiance at the world after dinner, and then vote for the treaty when the time comes.

If there was an enemy of the movement for an arbitration treaty between the United States and Great Britain one year ago, it was the present Premier of the latter country. Lord Salisbury indicated in the plainest manner his objection to the principle in his correspondence with Secretary Olney on the Venezuelan question. It was well understood then that the articles in the London *Times* were in harmony with his views, if not inspired by him, and these articles were distinctly opposed to any scheme of general arbitration, or of agreement to arbitrate in advance of any particular dispute. There is not the least doubt that Lord Salisbury has been coerced by the public opinion of Great Britain to change his policy in this regard. He has been dragged reluctantly to the negotiation. And now, when the Jingoes in this country are in sore need of some means to prevent ratification by us, they invent the tale that the treaty is a deep game of Salisbury's to increase his own power in Europe. If ratification should be refused on this side of the water, Lord Salisbury would be the chief beneficiary of that uncivilized backward step. He may not desire that it should be defeated now, but if it is, he can say to those who pushed and dragged him along: "I knew all the time that it was impracticable. The Americans thought differently. They proposed the treaty, but now they see that it will not work and have abandoned it. I told you so."

The effect of the treaty on other nations is not the least consideration in its favor. Its advocates have from the beginning held out the hope that the adoption of such a treaty between the two English-speaking nations would tend to bring other nations into the paths of peace. The effect which it has already produced on the public opinion of Europe far exceeds these pleasing expectations. The favorable expressions of the press of Germany, France, and Austria have astonished even their own rulers. The gain in behalf of civilized methods of national intercourse has been enormous. It has led to serious talk in favor of reducing the armies and navies of Europe, those awful burdens and fearful menaces to the happiness of mankind. We are not anticipating too much when we express the conviction that the conclusion of this treaty will be followed by similar treaties between ourselves and other first-class Powers, and that every such treaty will carry the principle of arbitration further, until the nation that stands out and refuses to adopt it shall become the object of general opprobrium among civilized peoples.

Senator Sherman's acceptance of the State portfolio made it necessary for him at once publicly to recant on the Cuban question. Only a month ago he deliberately voted for a resolution recognizing the independence of the Cuban republic. Less than a year ago he was the most frantic man in the Senate in insisting that this Government should interfere in the Cuban war. Twenty-five years ago he was for interfering in the previous Cuban rebellion, and, as Hamilton Fish's diary records, when asked by the Secretary of State whether his proposal would not be in violation of our treaty with Spain, he replied that he did not know we had a treaty with Spain. The choice

of such a man, at the present juncture, as head of the State Department, would be most indecent and alarming unless he would consent to announce a thorough change of heart. Mr. Sherman has found no difficulty in altering his sentiments. He is now positively against any kind of interference in Cuba. If the Spanish Government grants reforms, "that is all that is necessary." Why, he sagely asks, should our Government interfere? The significance of this unparalleled conversion lies in the fact that it unmistakably arrays McKinley against the Jingoes. The Secretary that is to be must in this matter speak for the President that is to be. This is only to credit Mr. McKinley with common sense. Foreign complications leading to business disturbance would wreck his administration before it got out of harbor. If he is to have any chance at all, it must come through peace and business stability. It is certain, therefore, that he will do everything in his power to restrain the wrath of the Republican Jingoes. But can he do it? A party that has been for four years raging like a lion for a foreign war, may not find it so easy to reform and lead the sweet submissive life of a lamb, even in the green pastures of power and patronage.

The speech of Senator Mills of Texas on the recognition of the independence of Cuba furnished Senator Hale an opportunity to present a memorandum touching the right of Congress to make such recognition. This is a very strong argument against the existence of such a power. It is the document about which the debate will certainly revolve if the question comes up for debate. The continued torpor of Don Cameron makes this an improbable contingency. Meanwhile attention should be drawn to the first paragraph of Mr. Hale's memorandum, which is of a practical rather than a constitutional type. He calls attention to the fact that the Cameron resolution demands recognition of "the independence of the republic of Cuba," without specifying its boundaries. The boundaries of the island of Cuba are well known and need no definition, but the boundaries of the republic of Cuba are not coextensive with those of the island at present. "This," says the memorandum, "raises some doubt as to whether the intent of the resolution really is to acknowledge a present state of independence as distinguished from a hope of early future independence," etc. No such doubt exists in Wall Street. The only doubt there is as to how much money the shorts made on the decline when Cameron's resolution was agreed to by the committee.

The failure of the House to pass the Pacific Railroads funding bill, or any bill on the subject, leaves the Government in danger of losing its entire claim except the small amount covered by the sinking fund established by the Thurman act of 1878. The first-mortgagees have an undoubted right to foreclose. It has been contended in some quarters that a foreclosure could not cut out the Government's claim, because the Government cannot be made a party to the suit for foreclosure without its own consent. This would be a monstrous doctrine if it could be maintained—no less than a denial of justice between two classes of private citizens simply because the Government happens to have a collateral interest in the litigation. It is true that the Government cannot be brought into court without its own consent, but neither can the Government defeat the ends of justice by merely hanging back and doing nothing. In a much stronger case than this, the case of the United States vs. Lee, which was an ejectment suit brought by the son of Robert E. Lee against the Government for possession of the Arlington estate, the United States Supreme Court held this language:

> "Courts of justice are established not only to decide upon the controverted rights of the citizens as against each other, but also upon rights in controversy between them and the Government, and the docket of this court is crowded with controversies of the latter class. Shall it be said . . . that the courts cannot give a remedy when the citizen has been deprived of his property by force, his estate seized and converted to the use of the Government without lawful authority, without process of law, and without compensation, because the President has ordered it and his officers are in possession? If such be the law of this country, it sanctions a tyranny which has no existence in the monarchies of Europe, nor in any other government which has a just claim to well-regulated liberty and the protection of personal rights." (U. S. vs. Lee, Otto xvi, 196.)

The Arlington estate was restored to Custis Lee, and the Government then bought it from him for $150,000. The case is not identical with that of the Union Pacific first-mortgage bondholders, but the latter is a much stronger one as regards the principle involved—that the Government cannot defeat the rights of private parties by refusing to come into court when those rights are under review by the judicial tribunals. The case is now a very embarrassing one for the reason that it is very doubtful whether it would be an advantage to the Government, in a pecuniary sense, to pay off the first mortgage and take the property, which is merely the main line without branches or terminals.

Senator Wolcott's bill for an international bimetallic conference was introduced by Senator Chandler on Monday. It provides for the appointment of five or more delegates to any conference that may be called by this or any other country, and appropriates $100,000 to cover any expenses that may be incurred. This is all vague enough, and so is the aim of the conference as described. It is to be called "with a view to securing by international agreement a fixed relative value between gold and silver as money, with free mintage at such ratio." No ratio mentioned, no attempt to regulate bullion value, no specification of how many or what nations are to make the agreement, no details of any kind—everything left freely open "with a view." If a conference is called, there will certainly be no lack of views. Experience shows that on no subject can the human mind produce so many and such varied views as on free international bimetallic coinage. Three conferences of the kind have already died from a surfeit of views, but there are plenty left for a new one. Meanwhile Mr. Wolcott is "sounding" English bimetallists at a great rate. He has met Mr. Balfour, and has, we think, made a tactical blunder in going to dine with a Rothschild. It is true that this Rothschild is in favor of doing something for silver and, incidentally, for himself. This, however, will never be believed in the great bimetallic regions of our fair land. The simple yeomanry have been too often told of "the Rothschilds" as the great cornerers of gold, purchasers of railroads for the sole purpose of wrecking them, and gloaters over the calamity of the poor farmer deprived of his wonted silver. If the Rothschilds now come out for silver, it will show conclusively that we do not want it, and must go in for wood, hay, or stubble.

Senator Burrows, fresh from communings with the fountain-head at Canton, sadly gives it as his opinion that there will be no reciprocity arrangement in the next tariff. There cannot be if sugar is taxed. Free sugar was the one thing that led to Mr. Blaine's historic hat-smashing and the reciprocity treaties which came, like a conjurer's cabbages, out of the hat. But this year sugar must be taxed, and it is the reciprocity treaties that will have to undergo the smashing. Congressman Dolliver, it is true, has got up a brilliant little reciprocity scheme of his own. He would have the President generally empowered to put heavy duties on imports coming from countries which did not treat us "right" in the matter of our exports. If Germany thinks our meats are not wholesome, and gets up all sorts of vexatious regulations about inspection, etc., just let a smart sur-tax be clapped upon German imports, and the astonished Dutchmen will fairly clamor to be allowed to eat our pork, trichinæ and all. It was suggested to Mr. Dolliver that this would be in contravention of our treaty with Germany securing her the "most favored nation" treatment. It was enough for him to reply that he did not "think" so. That is the great way of meeting legal or economic or moral objections. If you only resolutely "hold" the contrary, or "maintain" that the objections are not well-founded, or "assert" that some way will be found to surmount

them—why, of course, everything becomes clear sailing at once.

Tariff-making is going to be a very different thing in 1897 from what it was in 1890—so different that it is no wonder the most faithful are a little staggered at the new doctrines now given out as orthodox. Higher duties, of the mysterious kind which are to keep out foreign goods and at the same time increase the revenue, are among the least of the novelties. The Wilson tariff has increased exports to a total never before reached; the new bill is to change all that. Imports under the Wilson bill have fallen off; under a properly protective tariff they will increase again. The balance of trade "in our favor" (to use the pet phrase of protectionists) was never greater. According to McKinley's own logic of 1890, we got more than $300,000,000 of gold out of Europe last year and added it to the wages of our workingmen. We know we did, for there are the figures which cannot lie. But this, too, is all to be changed. Surely times change and tariffs change in them.

The monthly statement of this country's foreign trade, issued Friday by the Bureau of Statistics, completes the very extraordinary record of 1896. For the month of December the excess of exports from the United States over imports was $59,271,093; for the twelve months this excess reached the enormous figure of $325,322,184. The two noteworthy facts embodied in this statement are the increase in December exports over any preceding month last year, and the rise of the year's entire export trade to the largest total in our history. Last year's exports from the United States foot up something over one billion dollars; the exact figures are $1,005,878,417. This is $35,000,000 larger than the total exports during the calendar year 1891, hitherto the highest. Since the export movement has been increasing month by month, there is little doubt that the amount for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1897, will also exceed even the billion-dollar exports for the fiscal year 1892. The meaning of such an export trade is illustrated best by comparison with previous years of trade activity. It will be remembered that our industrial prosperity during the period following 1879 was largely based on the immense expansion of the export trade. Yet the total exports during the fiscal year 1880 were only $835,638,658, and for 1881, $902,377,346.

While this continuous expansion of our export trade during the last twelve months has been in progress, the import trade has been as continuously contracting. It was very generally believed that, after the sound-money vote of last November, engagements of foreign merchandise for import would expand enormously. But the increase has been very slow; in the face of December's rising export trade, imports were $4,000,000 less than in the corresponding month of 1895, and $9,400,000 below the month's record in 1892. The result for the full year 1896, from this simultaneous rise in exports and fall in imports, is an excess of exports reaching the wholly unprecedented sum of $325,322,184. This balance in our favor is $173,000,000 larger than the similar export balance in the calendar year 1891; it exceeds by at least $20,000,000 the largest export balance in our history. It is scarcely a matter for surprise, in the face of such conditions, that Europe is borrowing heavily in our money markets in order to stave off what would otherwise be a rapid fall in foreign exchange and large gold imports to the United States. But such operations can in the nature of things be hardly more than temporary; they add to the already accumulated balance of trade indebtedness by Europe to the United States, and eventually they will press for settlement. Meantime the Treasury's gold reserve, which stood at $44,500,000 last February, and at $100,000,000 with the opening of September, has already passed the high level of $140,000,000.

The *Tribune* heads its article on the Indianapolis sound-money conference "A Bankers' Agitation"—which discloses an animus. It was not a bankers' conference. Bankers had nothing to do with calling it, and took very little part in its proceedings. No banker was elected as a delegate from New York, Boston, Philadelphia, or Baltimore, unless ex-Secretary Fairchild may be considered such; but officers of trust-companies are not bankers in the sense that the *Tribune* here wishes to be understood. No banker made a speech there. Banking influence was completely wanting. The next charge is that the conference had a political aspect. "It was a faint penumbra," says the *Tribune*, "of the worst beaten administration in American history — an administration which found not one-tenth of its party friends to uphold it." It is true that the conference came to the conclusions advanced by Mr. Cleveland and Mr. Carlisle. It is equally true, however, that those who started the Indianapolis movement were and are mostly Republicans of the McKinley type. Mr. H. H. Hanna, the chairman of the executive committee, and the prime mover in the whole affair, is a man of this political complexion. It is safe to say that every man in the conference, or concerned with it in any way, voted for McKinley and desires to support his administration. What is the object, then, of putting the conference in a false light, as though it were some kind of a political dodge, intended in some way to benefit the Cleveland administration. How can anybody have an interest in doing that? Why should several hundred busy men leave their homes in midwinter and travel thousands of miles to serve as a "faint penumbra of the worst beaten administration in American history"? This article of the *Tribune* and one on the same page tendering support to Platt on condition that he will reform and be good, must be taken as signs of mental decay.

Illinois has escaped from the threatened disgrace of absolute conquest by the Republican machine. The audacity of the managers has wrought their overthrow. The State has always maintained an exceptionally high standard for its United States senatorships from the time of Douglas and Trumbull forty years ago. It is not, therefore, as though it had grown accustomed to Quays and Camerons, Hills, Murphys, and Platts. To propose that such a commonwealth should send to Washington as Gen. Palmer's successor an illiterate "boodle Alderman" of Chicago, was consequently so terrible a shock that the outburst of public indignation frightened the managers, and at last caused them to drop the Madden candidacy. It seems strange that the nation should congratulate a State upon escaping a disgrace the very possibility of which ought to be incredible, but in these days of machine power even the success of Madden seemed, until the end of the contest, the most probable outcome.

Inquiries are being made of us whether we think the *Sun* is to get nothing for its support of Platt except a regentship of the university for its managing editor. We know nothing about the matter, except that nobody with our knowledge supports or has ever supported or admired Platt gratuitously. All his followers get something for thinking highly of him, which is only fair. It, of course, seems singular that the *Sun* should go out of its own party in search of its rascals, but there is no real difference between rascals. If you admire Croker or Paddy Divver, you can find no difficulty in admiring Platt, on the same terms. Besides, we do not believe people read the *Sun* for opinion or doctrine. They read it for entertainment. It amuses them to see the old editor throwing mud at somebody or eulogizing scoundrels. It is like listening to low comedy every night in the week. Undoubtedly the effect on the younger men is to develop cynicism and flippancy of tone about politics and everything else, and to make them think champagne and terrapin are the only real forces in modern society; but it does not change their views. We see some of the effects, however, in our machine politics, our feasts with "vaudevilles," and our general *insouciance* about public affairs. The whole country seems a "big dinner," with dancing-girls at the dessert.

THE NEW YORK SENATORSHIP.

THE Platt programme was carried out on Thursday at Albany to the letter in the Republican caucus. Mr. Choate received 7 votes, and Platt 142. Moreover, the Platt nomination was "jammed through," as everything concerning Platt has to be, without speeches. He gave orders that there should be no speeches about him or his qualifications, and the legislators obeyed humbly. When it was all over, Mr. Pavey, conscious of his fault as a supporter of Choate, in order to escape his merited chastisement moved that the nomination be made "unanimous"—an empty and rather silly form, wholly out of place in any proceeding supposed to have principle behind it. To make it "unanimous" means, if it means anything, that everybody in the caucus finally believed Platt to be better fitted to be Senator than Choate, which, as a matter of fact, we presume nobody did.

The transaction is now complete, and it is interesting and instructive as showing how far we have got in our departure from the early anticipations of the founders of the Government. It was their expectation, as set forth in the 'Federalist,' and measurably realized during the first eighty years, that Senators would be elected on account of their character and intelligence, and their prominence in the community as good citizens, so that the choice of the legislators would commend itself to the voters outside. Our Republican Legislature has unanimously rejected such a man in favor of a man probably the most despised in the community, secretly; who has neither character nor intelligence fit for legislative purposes. It has unanimously rejected a distinguished orator for a man who is never known to have made a serious speech. It has rejected a man of spotless life for a man who is popularly believed to be the most of his time engaged in bribery and corruption. It has rejected a man intimately acquainted with the whole system of our Government and laws for a man who has never given any proof of such knowledge, except as much as may be necessary for the purchase of officials.

It has, again, rejected a man whose life has been eminently public—that is, whose mental and moral qualities have been for forty years subjected daily to the estimation of his fellow-citizens—for a man who never appears in public, and is believed to show all his interest in public affairs by the secret and illicit use of money. It has rejected a man who handles no money but that which, in the opinion of all men, he has honestly earned, or of which he does not render a full account, for a man who handles a great deal of money believed to have been unlawfully and dishonestly obtained, who makes a bad use of it, and renders no account whatever. It has rejected a man who believes firmly in the American practice of legislation through open discussion for a man who is opposed to all discussion, who insists, like a thief, on silence in all his transactions, and has introduced into our system a new process of law-making called "jamming through." It has rejected a man who, before any assembly or tribunal in the world, whose language he spoke, would raise the fame of his country for wit and eloquence and reflection, for a man who is unable to appear before any assembly or tribunal without a humiliating display of ignorance and speechlessness. It has rejected a man who is careful in his career to do and say nothing calculated to degrade his own government, to bring its law into contempt, or shake popular confidence in its efficacy and durability, for a man who has passed nearly his whole mature life in practices calculated to bring American institutions into disrepute and falsify the predictions of their founders.

We are living in a time when, for one cause or another, the great Eastern States, rich and populous as they are, have lost their weight in the Senate, through several years of representation by voiceless men of small reputation, and the destinies of the Union have been largely committed to semi-barbarous communities in the extreme West. We have chosen at this time to send to it probably the most insignificant Senator who has ever entered it, for he has not even the wealth to which some of the worst Senators owe their prominence, and for legislative purposes he is more incapable than Hill and more mischievous than Murphy. We have, too, chosen a period when the popular excitement against moneyed corporations has put our government in danger and inspired deep alarm about the future, to send to the Senate a man who owes everything, probably even his livelihood and that of his children, to having for years been the agent through whom corporations purchase legislators to "jam" bills or block them, as they shall direct, who owes all his power and notoriety to the yearly receipt of corporation money, for corrupt purposes. After this performance our bankers, and presidents, and millionaires still expect to convince the enraged masses easily that they are useful to America!

We, therefore, if we are to see a change for the better, think this senatorial election at Albany extremely important, because it may be said to set before the eyes of the country, in the most conspicuous possible way, a confirmation of the views of intelligent and observing men for some years past, concerning the road on which we are travelling. Everything has turned out exactly as they predicted. We have something now more substantial than newspaper denunciation. We see that those who supposed in 1870 that the passage of a charter by the Legislature "owned" by a boss, could never be repeated, were mistaken; that the same situation has come about again, through exactly the same causes, and that as long as these causes are left untouched, declamation about the effects is idle. Politics is not a science, but neither is the conduct of individual life, and yet we can predict national ruin from unchecked corruption as certainly as we can predict individual ruin from reckless extravagance.

THE INDIANAPOLIS CONFERENCE.

THE monetary conference of commercial bodies at Indianapolis finished its immediate business on Wednesday of last week, and adjourned subject to the call of its executive committee. Altogether it may be considered a great success, exceeding the expectations of those who initiated it. So far as the declaration of principles is concerned, there was absolute unanimity, the expression of which was marked by the greatest enthusiasm. The maintenance of the gold standard, and the redemption and retirement of the Government's legal-tender notes, and their replacement by banknotes were the three points of doctrine which brought the delegates together on a common platform. This unanimity teaches the important lesson that the men of affairs in the United States have made up their minds on these subjects, that their conclusions have been the result of experience, and that they are now prepared to battle for the policy which they believe to be necessary to prosperity in business. Inasmuch as the conference was a spontaneous gathering, being as far as possible removed from a "put-up job," and having no conceivable object except the public weal, its action must have a wide and beneficent influence. It is a part of the programme also to push the work so happily begun, by means of a permanent organization embracing the whole country, and not to desist until the currency question is settled on a basis conformable to the experience of the civilized world.

The mode of procedure adopted in this important undertaking was evidently the result of a compromise between two opposing views of policy. One of these contemplated the immediate appointment of a commission by the conference itself to investigate and report a plan of currency reform. The other proposed to ask Congress to pass a bill for the appointment of such a commission by the President. The plan actually adopted provides for both—that is, Congress will be memorialized at the session which is expected to be called in March, to provide for the appointment of such a commission, failing which the executive committee of the conference is to appoint one consisting of eleven members, "to make a thorough investigation of the monetary affairs and needs of this country in all relations and aspects, and to make appropriate suggestions as to any evils found to exist and the remedies therefor; and no limit is placed upon the scope of such inquiry or the manner of

conducting the same, excepting only that the expenses thereof shall not exceed the sums set apart for such purpose by the executive committee."

Congressman Walker, chairman of the House committee on banking and currency, opposed this plan as involving too much delay. He thought that the present Congress ought to take the initial step, because, if it were postponed to the Fifty-fifth Congress, it would be practically carried over to the Fifty-sixth. The answer to this is that nothing prevents the present Congress from acting on the lines suggested, and that Mr. Walker is the very man to set the ball rolling. He is the organ of the committee that has this matter in charge. If he can induce the present Congress to take such action, we shall applaud him to the echo, and we think we might safely guarantee that no objection would be raised by any member of the Indianapolis committee.

Mr. Fowler of New Jersey proposed that a committee of one from each State should be appointed to coöperate with the committees of Congress in the preparation of needful measures. This was rejected since it was believed to be impracticable to constitute a working committee in that way. Although Mr. Fowler's motion was not agreed to, he won the hearty applause of the convention for his speech, which seems to have been of uncommon excellence. He said that national bankruptcy would some day befall us unless the Government should go on and assume the functions of a bank of discount as well as a bank of issue, or should provide a system of taxation with special reference to the gold reserve, or should retire its demand notes altogether and leave the banking business to the banks exclusively. The last, he contended, was the only safe policy. Government notes were not only the most hazardous but the most expensive kind of currency.

This is a proposition which is very likely to be disputed, but what are the facts? Simply these, that the Government suspended payment on its demand-notes for seventeen years in succession, whereas in not more than four of these, if any, could suspension be accounted necessary. On the other hand, the longest bank suspension the country ever experienced was only four years, and even that was precipitated by the Government itself. Mr. Fowler's proposition can be easily maintained. The Government is liable to suspend at any time. It would have suspended two or three times since 1893 but for the lucky discovery of laws on the statute-book which Congress would not now pass. In other words, if the credit of the legal-tender notes had depended upon any Congress that we have had in recent years, it could not have been maintained. We should have been bankrupt before now and wallowing in free silver and irredeemable paper.

OUR RULER THE SPEAKER.

We have not lately heard so much about the Speaker of the House being a Czar as we did in the early weeks of 1890. But there are attributes of czarship more important than counting a quorum; and on the 12th inst. an event occurred at Washington which shows the absolute and autocratic power of the Speaker in the most convincing way.

A strong effort has been making by the advocates of the Nicaragua Canal bill, which involves an appropriation first or last of $70,000,000 to $150,000,000, to get a vote on it this session. The entire congressional delegation from the Pacific Coast waited upon Mr. Reed to ask that the next three days in the House be assigned to the bill. They showed him a petition for such action signed by a large majority of the House—all the Republican members except about twenty, and sixty Democrats. But the Speaker told them it would be impossible to grant their request. Why? Oh, he said that the time had already been assigned to other business. But this, they knew and he knew, was only another way of saying *Sic volo, sic jubeo.* Thus we have the spectacle of a great majority of the representatives of the freest people on earth forbidden by one man even to speak or vote on a bill which they are extremely desirous of passing.

The delegation went away sorrowful, even angry, but hopeless. They had no remedy. What! cannot an overwhelming majority of the House of Representatives do what it wants to? No, it cannot. It is absolutely bitted and saddled by the Speaker. He dictates everything. He says what bills shall pass; he says what bills it shall be permitted even to discuss. All the business of the House is arranged by the committee on rules, but that committee is the Speaker's creation and docile servant. What he tells it to do it does. Even if it did not, he has in reserve a right which dominates the House—the right of "recognition." This means that he determines who is to speak and who is not to speak, who is to call up a bill and who is not. As a matter of fact, every day's proceedings are carefully blocked out beforehand; the men who are to be "recognized" are known in advance (their names are on the Speaker's list), and those who are not to be "recognized" will clamor in vain. Sometimes a man not down on the programme does succeed in breaking in, and then the Speaker asks, "For what purpose does the gentleman rise?" If it is for something that the Speaker does not favor, the gentleman is told that somebody else is "recognized," and that he is to sit down at once. Through the Speaker's power of "recognition," which has over and over again been voted by Congress to be irresponsible and absolute, Mr. Reed can defeat the Nicaragua Canal bill or any other bill. He may prevent any man from getting the floor to call it up.

There is nothing new about this. Mr. Reed is only following and strengthening the precedents set him by his predecessors, and which make the Speaker of the House the most powerful man, as regards legislation, in our public life. The growth and consolidation of his power have been fully traced in Miss Follett's laborious and luminous monograph on 'The Speaker of the House of Representatives.' She records a letter of Mr. Carlisle's to Samuel J. Randall and others in which he formally and expressly asserted the right of the Speaker to say what bills should be considered in the House. There was then a majority of the House ready and anxious to pass a bill repealing certain internal-revenue taxes. They appealed to Speaker Carlisle to "recognize" somebody to call it up. After two days' deliberation Mr. Carlisle wrote them a letter in which he said: "I consider that it would not be proper, under the circumstances, for me to agree to a course of action which would present for the consideration of the House" the bill which a majority of the House wanted both to consider and to pass. This was in 1887.

It is a wise democrat that knows his own rulers. The absolute control of the Speaker over national legislation passes, for the most part, unperceived by press and people. Even the luckless Congressmen who are run over by the Speaker do not clearly see how the system works. They know that some terrible power heads off their bills, but they do not personify it, as they should, in the Speaker. We are bound to say that the Speakers have, as a rule, exercised their autocratic power for the public good. The Blair bill could not be brought to a vote in the House as long as Mr. Carlisle was Speaker. Mr. Reed throttled the free-silver bill of 1890. His killing of the Nicaragua Canal bill is an undoubted benefit. Almost anything, in fact, which the Speaker prevents Congress from doing is a cause for rejoicing. The presumption is that the thing Congress wants to do is a bad thing. If we could only be sure of always having a benevolent tyrant as Speaker, the system would not be a bad one.

As it is, however, its real operation is concealed, and that is a very bad thing. The Speaker has an enormous power, but it is a tacit power. It is power severed from responsibility. He never openly says that he is responsible for the legislation of the House, but he is and should be held so. Speaker Reed's quiet revelation of his power and determination in connection with the Nicaragua Canal bill is his own condemnation of his course in the last session of Congress. He could have prevented the swollen appropriations and the deliberate creation of a deficit. He could have stopped the Venezuelan and Cuban madnesses of last winter. He could have had the House come out squarely for the gold standard and a progressive currency reform. These things he might have done and perhaps made

himself President. That he did not do them was not because he lacked the power. Now that he himself confesses that he has the power, and now that the paralysis of a Presidential candidacy is, for the time being, removed from him, let us hope that he will find courage to match his power, and will organize and control the next House in the interest of economy and sound finance. Possessing the power of a ruler, let him acknowledge the responsibility of a ruler, and rise to it.

ENGLAND AND SOUTH AFRICA.

THIS winter promises to be the most exciting one England has known for many years, owing to the united revolt of the two Irish parties, and the coming home of Cecil Rhodes to be inquired into. The Irish revolt, an Irish Conservative member tells us, brings home rule nearer, in his opinion, than it has ever been before; and the arrival of Cecil Rhodes, and his appearance before the Parliamentary Commission, bid fair to revive all the old hostility between the English and Dutch in Africa which excited so much anxiety last year. In England the feeling about the Jameson raid was very much what it would be here about a filibustering expedition to Cuba. Men condemned it with their intellects and approved of it with their hearts. The Government was strongly opposed to it from the outset, but, had it succeeded, would undoubtedly have condoned it and accepted the consequences—that is, have taken over the Transvaal from Jameson.

When it appeared, however, that his raid had roused Dutch anger all over the continent, and promised, had he succeeded, "a racial war," and still more when the inquiry at Cape Town revealed the fact that there was a good deal of stock-jobbing behind it, and that Cecil Rhodes was cognizant of it, there was a considerable change in public feeling. People got a little provoked with Jameson for coming so near getting the Government into a serious scrape with men who could fight so well as the Boers, and Rhodes went under a cloud, and resigned his office at Cape Colony and prepared to come to England. The telegrams, too, discovered in Jameson's bag, and the telegrams produced at Cape Town in an inquiry instituted by the Legislature there, which enabled old President Krüger to floor Mr. Chamberlain, completed the English disgust with the whole matter. There was no good diplomatic answer to Krüger. Mining stocks were low, and the Matabeles, a formidable native tribe, had risen in rebellion, and were slaughtering and plundering the frontier settlers.

This was Rhodes's opportunity. Beating a hasty retreat from England, he betook himself to suppressing the Matabele insurrection. After some fighting, he went into their camp unarmed, accompanied only by his secretary, and, in an interview with the chiefs, actually talked them into submission. His friends in England, too, had time to raise their heads and write numerous articles in his favor, recounting his services to the Empire, showing the number of square miles he had added to it, and the place he had given South Africa among coming states. He had, in fact, made "Rhodesia," the name given to the new dominion, one of the glories of the Victorian reign. A reaction set in in his favor. The Cape Town population, in so far as it was English, turned to him again, and forgave him his connection with the raid. They feasted him, and presented him with addresses, and he in return took on a tone of defiance to the home Government, and predicted the coming of a great South African republic. The Town Council at Cape Town addressed him congratulations on the "courage and skill he had shown in making peace with the natives," and expressing the hope that he would speedily return to Africa and "devote his great powers to the material development of the vast industrial settlement in the north with which his name was associated." A "reception committee," too, called a public meeting at Cape Town, and passed a resolution admiring "his great and noble work."

But the Boers of the Transvaal took a very different view of him. A party of them, headed by a local notable, Judge Jorrsen, called on President Krüger, at Pretoria, on New Year's Day, to pay their respects, and the Judge said:

> "We do not presume to make to your Honor any suggestions of a political character, but we must declare as loudly and distinctly as possible that we can find no words to express our feelings in regard to the position taken up during the last few days by Cape Colony. The chief criminal in that despicable assault on our country was undoubtedly Cecil Rhodes. A few months ago a Parliamentary Commission found itself forced to give the following verdict: That the part taken by Mr. Cecil Rhodes in the organization of the raid made by Dr. Jameson was not in accord with his duties as Prime Minister of the Colony. This was only six months ago, and that same man is now being fessted during a triumphal progress through the Colony. In the east, in the west, at small towns and in the principal towns, he is glorified as the hero of the day, and even more as the hero of the morrow, regarding whose return to South Africa people expect everything. This is an insult to you, to us, to the whole republic."

Cecil Rhodes thus returns to England with a double load of obloquy, incurred partly by endangering British relations with the Dutch, and partly by having been a little insolent to the imperial Government. The inquiry in London can hardly avoid finding, as the inquiry at the Cape found, that Rhodes was privy to Jameson's raid, and his principal support will have to come from the stockholders in the Rand mines and from the Irish, as he contributed handsomely to home rule in the Parnell days. Had he held his tongue about the South African Republic, the imperialists would probably have rallied to him, but he has distinctly foreshadowed separation. That he is a man of very great ability there is no question, and, if he lives, doubtless he has a considerable future in store for him. He was educated at Oxford, where he graduated from Oriel College, after an unsuccessful attempt to get into Christchurch, where he was rebuffed by the then Master on account of his weakness in Latin. His strength of character was shown in not giving up the attempt, and in overcoming at Oriel the prejudice excited by his rejection at Christchurch. A trial of strength and numbers is clearly approaching between the Dutch and English, and he will probably play a conspicuous part in it.

LEIGHTON AND WATTS.

LONDON, January, 1897.

THE Royal Academy, in economical mood, has made an end to its winter shows of Old Masters. It seems that in the beginning, in 1870, Lord Leighton was one of the chief supporters of these exhibitions, and always afterwards took an active part in their organization and the keenest interest in their success. So the Academy explains in one of its own publications. No sooner is Lord Leighton dead, however, than his fellow-Academicians take the opportunity to be rid of the Old Masters, who, it appears, provoke a disastrous contrast with the new. Besides, the winter show has not proved a paying concern, and, presumably, a Royal Academy of Arts exists for no other purpose than to assure its own financial prosperity. There have been people to consider the exhibition of old masterpieces the "winter garment of repentance," worn by the Academy to atone for its spring indiscretions—the one good thing to come out of Burlington House; and there is no question that the academical decision means a very serious loss to all true lovers of art.

Certainly, the collection of Leighton's pictures, now hung, makes but a poor substitute for the glorious array of Titians and Rembrandts and Velasquezes that so often covered the same walls and gave a little color and splendor to the dull grayness of a London winter. Not that the collection is without its interest. So much has been said about Leighton in the short year since his death, so much ill-considered praise has been lavished upon him, such virtuous indignation has been expressed when his greatness has been as much as questioned, that it is a distinct advantage to have an immediate opportunity for the study of his life's work. Moreover, it so happens that at this very moment an exhibition of Mr. Watts's paintings is being held in the New Gallery, and for years, especially during the seventies and eighties—things have improved a little of late—Watts and Leighton were two of the most prominent of the very small group who rescued the Academy from the slough of commonplace into which the average Academician was fast dragging it. Neither was in sympathy with modern movements, though in Mr. Watts's technique some critics have discovered the origin of *pointillisme;* neither pretended to be in open rebellion, like the gallant young Pre-Raphaelites who started out in life practically at the same time, though Mr. Watts, of course, was their senior by several years. But both struggled against the feeble mediocrity into which English painting had sunk, both struggled to revive the grand manner of the old men and to preserve the dignity of art: Leighton by a return to classicism, Watts by

recourse to a didacticism which, as a rule, critics are readier than painters to think possible. The result was that the greatness of their intention alone was enough to make them tower above their fellow-exhibitors at the Academy.

What Leighton could do when not bound by the rules which he set for himself, you can see in his drawings and his sketches—drawings made in chalk on blue or brown paper that are old-masterly in their excellence and vigor: sketches of places, full of the play of light and air; sketches for his pictures, rich in color, splendid in arrangement as those which Rubens so often dashed in as notes for his huge canvases. The show includes a large number of these studies and drawings, and to see them, without knowing the finished paintings, would be to acknowledge Leighton a master. Some of his earliest portraits, too, reveal the same strength, the same power. There is one of "Miss May Sartoris when a child," a little girl in a dark-blue riding habit, against a bold, beautiful hilly landscape, that a Courbet would not have been ashamed to own; a second of "Miss Ruth Stewart Hodgson," another little girl in a crimson coat, her round full face staring straight at you, her feet planted firmly on the floor where the border of an unseen rug makes an amusing line across the canvas—that Carolus-Duran, at his best, might have claimed. But these are the exceptions. In most of Leighton's pictures you look in vain for the qualities that delight you in the sketches.

Perfection to Leighton seems to have meant an indescribable dulness of technique, an indifference to texture, a smoothness or waxiness of surface that suggests the chromo. A fine sense of composition he had at times: he shows it in pictures like the "Garden of the Hesperides," though close by is the awful "Perseus and Andromeda," as reminder of how completely that sense could desert him. He had distinct feeling for color, as the big "Cymon and Iphigenia," so unsatisfactory in many ways, forces you to admit. But somehow, in his eagerness to give to every niche and corner of his design that perfect finish which he either believed was imperative, or knew the British public demanded of him, he managed to make composition and color completely ineffectual when any one of his larger pictures is looked at from the necessary distance—the only distance from which it can be seen as a whole. Indeed, it is doubtful whether he ever improved upon his "Cimabue's Madonna carried through Florence," the canvas which first made him famous in 1855, when it was exhibited and was at once bought by the Queen. It is in the Academy now, and, as the work of a young man, is unquestionably promising; ambitious in size and design and not altogether lacking in decorative effect. Judged apart from the fact of his age, it would be found crude enough; there is no life, no special observation in the figures of the procession that stretches across the canvas—faces and costumes all smell of the studio; there is no real Italian light or color in the landscape seen above and beyond the high wall that serves as background to the pageant. And yet the picture, as a decoration—and certainly it is as mural decoration that such a work must be considered—tells on the wall far better than the much finer "Daphnephoria" hanging opposite. This was painted twenty-one years later, and is, as it should be, a much more mature and accomplished piece of painting. There is greater elegance in the composition; the procession passes with a more rhythmic pomp and splendor. There is greater grace in the figures; I know of nothing lovelier in any of Leighton's pictures than the group of singing girls, long draperies swaying with their slow-stepping movement, faces delicately uplifted in melodious praise. And below to the right is the white town of Thebes dominated by a great temple set on a hill; and behind the figures a thick grove of trees shuts out all the sunny Greek landscape. It ought to be charming. But so overloaded is it with detail, so conscientiously carried out to the last degree of finish, that across the room nothing is left of it. It would fade into insignificance by the side of one of Puvis de Chavannes's designs, its confusing detail overshadowed by the Frenchman's simple flat masses of color and large, dignified outlines.

I have spoken more at length of the "Cimabue" and the "Daphnephoria" because, of the large pictures, they are the two in which Leighton fails least signally. In others, as in the "Captive Andromache," the composition is more discordant; or, as in the "Hero" or any one of the single figures, the perfect finish degenerates into mere Book of Beauty prettiness. To see Leighton thus alone, unrelieved by the usual Academical feebleness, is to be struck less by the largeness of his aims or intentions than by the indifferent merit of the results. I, at least, have not much doubt that, with years, his reputation as a painter will dwindle, while he will be remembered for his sketches and studies, his book illustrations (to which, unfortunately, no place has been given in the present collection), and his all too few sculptures—the "Sluggard" and the "Athlete" and the little sketch models for his pictures, which are now to be seen in the Academy.

To turn from Lord Leighton to Mr. Watts is to be confronted with very different problems in art. That there may be no mistake, Mr. Watts is careful to explain himself in a prefatory note to his catalogue. The great majority of his pictures, he says, "must be regarded rather as hieroglyphs than anything else, certainly not as more than symbols, which all Art was in the beginning, and which everything is that is not directly connected with physical conditions." His intention is frankly didactic; a thread of thought will be found to connect the whole series of his paintings together, "and to show that the object in work has been to suggest, in the language of art, modern thought in things ethical and spiritual." There is not space here to quarrel with Mr. Watts's theories and principles. The truth is, had he been less an artist his ideas would long since have meant his artistic death. If he is impressive in his work, it is despite, not because of them. And he is impressive; moreover, succeeding just where Leighton is most at fault. His genuinely great compositions, however surcharged with ethical meaning, hold their own. There is a large "Court of Death," not yet completed, and eventually to be presented to the nation, now placed at the far end of the long room at the New Gallery. The minute you cross the threshold, you see it, you feel it, you recognize its power. You may not know what it is all about, but you are conscious of the well-grouped figures, the large, well-balanced masses, the sweep of the lines, the simple grandeur of the scheme; you imagine it as it would look in the shadowy chapel of some dim cathedral or over the high altar of some gorgeous sanctuary. Admirers of Mr. Watts will tell you that it impresses because of his modern conception of Death as the kindly deliverer, the comforter, in contradistinction to the old grinning skeleton of the mediæval painter. But you are no more impressed after the hieroglyph is deciphered, after the riddle is read, than you were before, when you were aware only that you were looking at a fine composition, vigorously brushed in upon the canvas.

It is the same with almost every picture shown by Mr. Watts. The meaning or moral is the last thing you think of, whether it is in the majestic "Love and Death," with the strange, imposing white-draped figure towering above the boy, beautiful in his nakedness; or any one of the three splendid panels, "Eve Tempted," "She Shall Be Called Woman," "Eve Repentant," which are so sumptuous in color that you forget the clumsiness of certain details (the hands, for instance), and would like to see them decorating a palatial hall, as the work of Tintoret and Veronese decorates the Palace at Venice. I repeat, the more obvious is Mr. Watts's ethical intention the less beautiful is his picture. His Uldra and Nixies, his "Paolo and Francesca," his "Dweller in the Innermost"—these, and all kindred canvases, so highly extolled in our days of sham mysticism and Celtic revivals, one would gladly forget for the simpler (simpler in theme, that is) "Ariadne in Naxos," with its perfect landscape and graceful figures, or the "Fata Morgana," with its wealth of color, or the best of the portraits.

It is the fashion to say that Mr. Watts paints the soul in a portrait. I confess I do not know what this means. But I do know that sometimes he renders the beauty and character of a face as few men can, as in the portraits of himself, of Mr. Swinburne, Sir Edward Burne-Jones, Mr. Morris, above all Mr. Walter Crane; that sometimes he presents a full-length figure with a distinction and charm that few of the old men excelled, as in the wonderful "Mrs. Percy Wyndham." But quite as frequently he has produced portraits so insignificant, so absolutely devoid of character and vitality, that, from another painter, they might pass as the veriest pot-boilers. However, if there is one fact the show of his collected work proves incontestably, it is his inequality, his unevenness—an attribute, some say, of genius. The quality of his painting varies with almost every canvas; the man who creates almost the masterpiece one day, condescending to mere rubbish the next. But for this very reason, perhaps, he interests where Leighton merely bores. One would rather have some sign of individuality, even if clumsily expressed, than characterless uniformity, however scholarly.

N. N.

THE CIVILIZATIONS OF NORTH AFRICA: PHOENICIAN, ROMAN, ARAB.

CARTHAGE, November 26, 1896.

SCHOLARS and travellers who have, during the last few centuries, studied the history of the countries round the Mediterranean or described their condition, have been struck by nothing so much as by the contrast between the northern and the southern shores of the great inland sea. For the last eight hundred years, and most conspicuously for the last four hundred, the countries on the north have been the seats of a brilliant and progressive civilization, which in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries was amazingly productive in literature and art, and which in more recent times has continued to advance in all that makes for

material prosperity as well as for political enlightenment, peace, and order. Meanwhile the lands to the south remained plunged in a darkness that seemed during the six hundred years to grow always deeper, and a barbarism as cruel and repulsive in the beginning of the nineteenth as it had been in the fourteenth century. Till the French entered Algeria, some sixty-five years ago, the whole south coast of the Mediterranean was a theatre of bloodshed and brutality unsurpassed in the world. Morocco, Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, were known only as nests of piracy; and, within two days' sail from Marseilles or Leghorn, the condition of mankind and the arts of life were at as low an ebb as they had been in the darkest part of the Dark Ages. People had come to think of this as a natural thing, and supposed that Africa was by some permanent historic law destined for barbarism as Europe was for civilization.

No such contrast would have occurred to the mind of any ancient observer. He would have rather inclined to call North Africa a part of Europe, more advanced than most parts of the northern side of the Mediterranean, and essentially belonging to the circle of Mediterranean civilization. Herodotus, indeed, describes much of Libya as in the hands of savages. But there was a line of civilization along the coast in his days from Egypt, the oldest seat of art and culture, past the Greek settlements of Cyrene, Barca, and Tripolis, to Carthage, the greatest commercial city of the world. After the fall of Carthage, Roman government and Greco-Roman civilization struck deep roots in North Africa, and, during the first four centuries of our era, the African shore belt, the Nile valley, and the less arid or mountainous parts of the interior, formed the most productive and the most prosperous provinces of the civilized world, while literature, and especially oratory and Christian theology, flourished as nowhere else within the western dominions of Rome; certainly more than in Italy herself. Down till the time of St. Augustine—that is, till the earlier part of the fifth century—Africa, safe from the assaults of the northern and eastern enemies of the Empire, had preserved an exceptional peace and prosperity, which the inhabitants of Syria and Macedonia and Gaul must often have envied. Even the strife of rival pretenders to the imperial throne had comparatively seldom stained her plains with blood.

North Africa—and I speak now only of the country between the Great Syrtis and the Straits of Gibraltar, for the fortunes of Egypt have often run in a quite different channel—North Africa has had two civilizations planted in it, and has twice seen civilization destroyed. A Semitic and an Indo-European race have been the planters; an Indo-European and a Semitic race the destroyers. The second of these destructions has been one of the most complete recorded in the annals of mankind. Christianity, as well as letters and arts, was utterly blotted out, and the revival which occurred in the earlier days of the Semitic destroyers presently passed away, leaving the country wretched and forlorn down till the coming of the French in our own time.

The first people to bring civilization among the wild Berber tribes were the men of Sidon and Tyre. From a very remote time, probably as far back as the time which we describe as the Homeric age, they had begun to establish first their trading factories and then their fortified settlements at convenient spots on the African coast. These settlements grew into such cities as Utica, Hippo Zarytus (now Bizerta), Hadrumetum (now Susa), and Carthage. Carthage soon outstripped and reduced to dependence the other Phœnician colonies, and after a while began to conquer the fertile region to her south and west, subduing the Libyan tribes that lived nearest to her. She did not care, however, to acquire any far-reaching dominion in the interior, and used the native population rather as a market in which she could buy slaves and soldiers than as material to be Phœnicized and turned into permanent subjects. Neither Punic arts nor the Punic language seem to have spread widely among the people, who were of a race and type dissimilar from the Phœnician. Carthage remained isolated, a ruling city, whose citizens did not seek to permeate and assimilate the people of the land. The soil was tilled either by native cultivators, or, near Carthage herself, by slaves; so no Punic peasantry grew up. There were towns governed by suffetes like Carthage herself: we are told that, just before her fall, Carthage counted three hundred subject to her. But these people were subjects, not citizens. Even the industries that produced the wares which the Carthaginian traders bore away over the western Mediterranean and the coasts of the ocean, were carried on by slave labor, and not, it would seem, by Punic artisans. Thus Carthage remained a city and never grew into a nation, and the failure to expand and multiply made her influence upon Africa comparatively shallow, as well as limited in its range to the fertile country round the city and to the neighborhood of the maritime towns. It was also the cause of her downfall when the great struggle with Rome came. Rome had, besides her own peasantry and her military colonies, the martial population of middle Italy to fall back upon, and was never really in danger save when that population seemed likely to turn against her. Carthage had no such resource; her free Libyan subjects were neither numerous nor loyal, her soldiers were nearly all mercenaries, and when the invader was in Africa and had overthrown one army, another could not be raised. If the efforts the Carthaginians made in subduing Sicily, Sardinia, and eastern Spain had been spent in making Africa Carthaginian, the Punic wars might have had a different issue.

What civilization the Phœnicians did give to Africa was a material civilization, only slightly artistic or literary, and not in the least political. Though the constitution of Carthage itself was both strong and elastic, and received the praise of Aristotle, no sort of political organization seems to have been extended to any part of the Carthaginian dominions, whether insular or continental. Punic art (so far as one can judge from the objects preserved in the museum at Carthage) was rude and monotonous, inferior to that of Etruria, and at best a coarse imitation of Greek models. Books were written, but apparently only on practical subjects, and none of them is known to us except by meagre extracts, preserved in Roman works, from Mago's famous treatise on agriculture. The contrast between the Phœnicians and the other small but even more remarkable Semitic race to which they were so nearly allied, is in this respect remarkable. Israel showed, in Old Testament times, no aptitude for trade, but a striking aptitude for poetry and for the expression of moral emotion. Phœnicia, so far as we know, wanted both these gifts, but had developed a commercial capacity exceeding that of any other ancient race. The Hebrews were a pastoral or agricultural people; the Phœnicians, traders and manufacturers. The fondness for art which we find in the Babylonian and Assyrian Semites was equally absent from Phœnicians and Israelites. The feature common to both these two latter peoples was a certain intensity of national life and passionate energy of temper—an energy in which they surpassed the Greeks, and which enabled them so long to struggle against Rome, whose real resources were far greater, and whose strength of national character, equal to that of the Carthaginians, suffered far less from intestine discords. To be capable of producing really great men is not a bad test of the fibre and quality of a race. The race that produced Hamilcar, Barca, and Hannibal, not to speak of some other brilliant admirals and generals, would even by this have proved itself to stand high among the races of the world.

When Carthage was destroyed in B. C. 146, Rome took over her dominions, gave them a regular governmental administration, and built up a Greco Roman civilization in which probably, before long, no distinctive Punic element remained, except the worship of certain special deities and the use of the Punic alphabet and language. The alphabet has survived to become that of the Berber tribes, and continues in the Sahara down to modern times. The language remained as the common speech of the coast until the end of the fourth century A. D. Roman government and civilization were ultimately extended all over North Africa, which became (as has been observed) one of the most populous, wealthy, and cultivated parts of the Roman world. Carthage, restored to greatness in the time of Augustus, was now the second city of the empire, with a population which is said to have approached a million; and Africa was the granary of Rome. The ruins of countless towns, scattered all over the plains south and west of Tunis, and of the numerous villas with their beautiful mosaic pavements, the most beautiful, it would seem, yet discovered anywhere, give a lively impression of the populousness of the country and the easy life of the upper classes. But the Emperors did not trouble themselves to completely subdue and Romanize the wild tribes of the mountainous or arid interior, just as they left almost untouched the mountaineers of rugged Albania and the tribes of the Isaurian and Cilician highlands. Had these tribes been made Roman in feeling, they might have been a valuable bulwark. But they remained outside, and when the central power decayed in the fourth century after our era, the hill-tribes and the nomads of the desert became troublesome, just as the Picts and Scots did at the same time to the provincials of Roman Britain. They had retained their martial habits and a practical independence under their chiefs, probably to a large extent their heathenism, while the provincials had lost the habit of using arms, and did not know how to organize themselves for defence when the Emperor, pressed by his Teutonic and Persian enemies, was unable to send them help. Thus when the Vandals, who had begun their wanderings from the shores of the Baltic, crossed the Straits of Gibraltar, they found wealthy but unwarlike Africa an easy prey.

Then came the first of the two devastations which Africa was to suffer. The Roman, though he utterly demolished Carthage, had left the rest of the country unharmed, and, under his sway, civilization had spread far more widely over it. The Teuton, however, being a barbarian, exceptionally rude and

fierce among the Teutonic barbarians, destroyed and did not rebuild. He was a Christian; but he was also an Arian, and, unlike the Arian Goths, he hated the Orthodox Africans fully as much as they hated him. There was therefore much pillaging and ruining of churches as well as of the dwellings of wealthy provincials; and there was no fusion of the Vandals with the provincials during the hundred years which followed the Teutonic conquest. Recent archæological explorations confirm the impression made by the scanty records of the Vandal conquest, that with it the destruction of Africa began. Cities disappear from history and are heard of no more; public works are neglected; the fabric of society shows signs of dissolution. Meanwhile the Vandals had from their capital, Carthage, reëstablished by their naval power a West Mediterranean Empire like that of old Punic Carthage, for it included Sardinia and Corsica and the Balearic Isles. But this extension of dominion was useless to a race who seem to have lacked the gift of political creation. The Vandals remained conquerors or pirates; they did not trade and they could not organize.

The end, however, had not yet come. Civilization made another effort. Justinian, who conceived that the country still belonged to the Roman Empire, sent Belisarius with an army to recover North Africa. His victory was swift and easy. The Vandals had no support from their provincial subjects, who welcomed the imperial troops as deliverers; and the feeble resistance made by a race who had been so formidable sixty years earlier, seems to show that either their numbers or their fighting qualities had declined under the sun of Africa. They vanish, their remnants mingling with the provincials, and are heard of no more. They were the only Teutonic race that ever entered Africa; and eleven hundred years were to pass before another came to the opposite end of the continent. The Dutch occupied the Cape of Good Hope in the middle of the seventeenth century, and the English came in the beginning of the nineteenth.

The African provinces do not seem to have gained much beyond the cessation of Arian persecution by being linked anew to the Roman Empire. They were a long way from Constantinople, now the capital of the empire, and had lost the sense of community with the Greek-speaking provinces. They were sorely troubled by the irruptions of the wild Moors of the mountains and the nomads of the desert, and not only was the old organization decaying, but the area of order and prosperity seems to have been more and more narrowed to the level lands along the coast. The use of Latin itself was dying out, and the Berber tongues were those most spoken by the people. Then came the Arab invasion of the seventh century. Left to themselves, for the Empire was too hard pressed in Asia to help them, they made but a feeble resistance. The first great battle, fought not far from the present site of Kerwan, in A.D. 647, overthrew the Roman Governor (then himself in revolt against the Emperor). A second irruption in A.D. 665 permanently established the Saracenic sway; and in A.D. 697 Carthage herself was stormed and destroyed. We know little of what followed. Christianity quickly disappeared, and has never again raised its head among the native population. But there seems to have been a certain revival both of agriculture and of industry, for in the tenth century the sugar cane was grown at Kerwan and cotton at Sfax, and the manufactures of these and other towns were sold far and wide. The country from Tripoli to Tunis was evidently rich and populous, though there is nothing except the mosques of Kerwan to show that civilization had here produced any development of learning or thought or art comparable to that which existed in Bagdad or in Cordova under the Eastern or the Western Khalifs. Such as it was, this prosperity was destroyed by a new immigration of wild desert Arabs in the eleventh century. What with their devastations and what with the intestine wars of rival princes, the country began to sink, and never again recovered itself. For twelve years (A.D. 1146-1158) the coast towns from Tripoli to the Gulf of Tunis were reclaimed for Europe by the fleets of King Roger of Sicily. But the Norman, who might have done so much for these hapless regions, was forced to relax his grip, and Africa relapsed into a barbarism which has made these fertile lands desolate and dreary, and left in them only a sixth or seventh part of the population they might support. The Semite has been the last enemy as he was the first planter of civilization here. The Tunisian Arab, whose huts one sees round Kerwan to-day, is as much a savage as the nomad Libyan whom the Phœnician settlers found when their ships began to trade along this coast thirty centuries ago.

Will the rule of France and the influx of Italian and Maltese immigrants replant a new civilization? Alexander Dumas said, "Africa begins at the Pyrenees." Shall we at some future time be able to say, as the ancients would have said, "Africa begins at the Sahara"? This is an interesting question. I shall hope to return to it in a concluding letter. C. E.

Correspondence.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "A Californian Teacher," writing in your issue of December 31, 1896, besides raising general objections—which seem to me entirely inconclusive—against the system of accredited schools as a device for connecting secondary with collegiate education, makes certain representations concerning the actual operation of the system at the University of California. Those representations are so comprehensively misleading that I beg leave to offer a few comments upon them. In the first place, it is distinctly intimated that the accrediting system was established there within recent years as an expedient for increasing the number of students, and thus outstripping Stanford University. This expedient, it appears, has been successful: "With the institution of the present system of accredited schools, the flood-tide in favor of Berkeley has set in, as far, at least, as quantity is concerned." On the implied comparison in respect of quality, it would be neither seemly nor profitable to express a difference of opinion. For the rest, the actual facts are these:

The accrediting system was begun in 1884, some seven years before Stanford University was established. During the past three years, in which time the number of students has increased most rapidly, these additions, so far from being welcome, have caused a serious straining of the educational and financial resources of the University. In certain departments the teaching-staff has been overworked; the buildings have been so overcrowded as actually to necessitate the erection of tents for the accommodation of classes; and more than once the year has ended with a serious deficit in the treasury. This has been due, of course, to the fact that, in a college which charges no tuition-fee, added numbers mean an increased demand without any increase in the resources for meeting the demand. The Regents of the University at one time debated the question of charging a tuition-fee for the express purpose of reducing the number of students. The project was abandoned, as I understand, because it was believed to conflict with the University's charter.

"A Californian Teacher" further charges that the University has in general sought numbers at the expense of lowering its standards. In point of fact, the admission requirements have been slowly but appreciably raised within recent years. What those requirements are, for candidates who take the entrance-examinations, any one who cares to look into the University Register and the pamphlet of specimen examination papers may find out for himself. The requirements are somewhat less than those of Harvard and Yale; with these exceptions they compare favorably, so far as I know, with the conditions of admission to any other college in the country. Now, admission by certificate is a more difficult, not an easier, matter than admission to the University of California by its entrance-examinations. This is illustrated by the fact that pupils in preparatory schools—pupils, often, of no exceptional ability—frequently enter the University by examination six, or even twelve, months before they could have been admitted by certificate. Both University and schools discourage this practice; but that it is possible shows that the accrediting system is by no means recognized by the pupils themselves as a short and easy road into college. The University throws the greatest safeguards around the system. By visitation, by frequently demanding from each school specimens of its examination-papers and written work, and by comparing the work of students from different schools after they have entered college, it is entirely capable of keeping the schools up to the established standard.

Finally, there is no evidence for the assertion of "A Californian Teacher" that the University hesitates to remove from the accredited list schools that have fallen behind in the quality of their work. About two years ago the University refused to accept the certificates, in a certain subject, of the largest and one of the best equipped high-schools in the State. It is *not* a general complaint of Californian teachers that the accrediting system of the University makes life too easy for them. This fact will perhaps make the singular communication of the writer in the issue for December 31 seem the more singular.

I am, sir, yours very truly,

Arthur O. Lovejoy.

Cambridge, Mass., January 8, 1897.

THE PROPER EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is an incisive editorial paragraph in the January number of the *School Review*, a journal of secondary education published by Chicago University, entitled "Cant concerning Co-education." "Co-education" usually refers to work in college, but the editor here treats the education of girls in schools

for boys. His remarks are, however, applicable to the wider sphere. He begins by saying that "a common form of intellectual dishonesty results from the ever renewed attempt to find logical grounds for supporting, as the ultimately best attainable, something which is historically a mere makeshift of necessity." He shows that history knows no formal education but male education, and that when "it came about that girls were considered as having intellects and capacities well worth training and developing, the boys' schools had the field," and girls were, of necessity, let into them. "We let the girls into the boys' schools because that was the easiest and the cheapest way to dispose of their demand for an equal education with boys." The girls now outnumber the boys in the schools, and yet these remain "boys' schools."

"Let there be an end," he exclaims, "of the hypocritical hypnotism by which we are all made to proclaim that a secondary curriculum must always and ever be sexless. Whether there is or is not sex in intellect, there certainly is sex in life. Women as a class do not do, and do not want to do, the same things as men. . . . There is much talk about differentiating courses of study so as to give boys with different aptitudes and, consequently, different potential careers all an equal chance. Let us give the girls an equal chance, and not longer impose upon them and upon ourselves by specious pleas for equality by which is meant identity."

The appearance of an article like this in a journal published by a co-educational college that has a number of secondary schools affiliated with it, in which girls and boys are instructed together, might strike one as strange; but a little thought will show that it is precisely in such an environment that thoughts like these would naturally be evolved. The writer says that "it is dangerous now for one to suggest that the boys' schools are not exactly the very best places in which to bring up girls," and yet he is brave enough to add that "our high schools and academies are modelled for males, they plan to turn out accomplished males, and the females who gain admission to them are turned out just as male as possible, fitted mainly and often craving after some masculine pursuit."

It may seem strange that one who has been for many years encouraging the instruction of women by the professors of a man's university, should repeat, with any degree of sympathy, such utterances as these. I wish, therefore, to say that my incentives all these years have been a sense of justice and a feeling of patriotism. I have felt that woman ought to have access to the best instruction, and that she should be the judge of what is desirable for her. I knew that ninety per cent. of the teachers of boys and girls in New England are women, and I wished to see the greatest opportunities brought within the grasp of these teachers, for the advantage of the state, because it was clear to me that unless the teachers of the schools had the best instruction, they could not fit the boys under them to do well in college. All the while I have held that experience only could tell us whether the collegiate education given to men is the best that women shall ever find. The words of the *School Journal* show that others are looking at the interesting problem in the same way.

ARTHUR GILMAN.

CAMBRIDGE, January 14, 1897.

HINDU AND INDIAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It is not often that the critic catches Mr. Howells in a slip, particularly in literary matters, but surely here is one.

In his very interesting article on "The White Mr. Longfellow," in the August number of *Harper's Magazine*, after speaking of the meetings of the Dante Club, Mr. Howells says (p. 336):

"At the last of them, Lowell had asked him, with fond regret in his jest, 'Longfellow, why don't you do that Indian poem in forty thousand verses?' The demand but feebly expressed the reluctance in us all, though I suspect the Indian poem existed only by the challenger's invention."

The poem to which Lowell referred is, of course, the 'Rāmāyana' of Vālmiki, and Mr. Howells was undoubtedly thrown off his guard by the use of Indian instead of Hindu.

SAMUEL BALL PLATNER.

ADELBERT COLLEGE, CLEVELAND, Jan. 12, 1897.

Notes.

LORD ACTON will edit for the Cambridge University Press (New York: Macmillan) "The Cambridge Modern History" in twelve volumes of about 700 pages each, covering the period from the end of the Middle Ages to the present day. Mr. Bryce, Mr. Lecky, Mr. Morley, Mr. Frederick Harrison, Mr. Sidney Lee, and Prof. Jebb are some of the editor's colaborers. The same firm announces an 'Encyclopædia of American Horticulture,' under the editorial supervision of Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell University. The articles will be signed by the respective specialists. The three large volumes contemplated will bear date 1900.

D. Appleton & Co. announce 'The Early Correspondence of Hans von Bülow,' edited by his widow, and translated by Constance Bache; 'The True Life of Captain Sir Richard F. Burton,' by his niece, Georgiana M. Stisted; 'Memoirs of Marshal Oudinot,' from the hitherto unpublished souvenirs of his wife; 'The Story of Extinct Civilizations in the East,' by Robert Anderson; and 'Our Juvenile Offenders,' by Douglas Morrison.

The Riverside Edition of Mrs. Stowe's Writings (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) proceeds with a volume of 'Stories for the Young,' another of 'Religious Studies, Poems, etc.,' two containing 'Oldtown Folks and Sam Lawson,' and one each for 'My Wife and I,' 'We and Our Neighbors,' and 'Poganuc People and Pink and White Tyranny.' The introductions do not call for remark except in the case of 'Poganuc People,' where Mrs. Stowe's own key to the historic and autobiographic character of the work is given; and of 'Oldtown Folks,' for a like revelation, as well as for Prof. Stowe's account of his remarkable visions during early childhood. These would indicate that he was an undeveloped "medium," in modern spiritualistic language. One may suspect that children oftener than they can tell are attended by like invisible companions, even if we but call them creatures of the imagination. Their reality to the boy Stowe was perfect. This instalment contains several very interesting portraits of Mrs. Stowe.

Messrs. Longman have issued the twenty-eighth and last volume of their well known "Badminton Library." This volume deals with the 'Poetry of Sport,' and is edited by Mr. Hedley Peek. We find here, as elsewhere in the series, evidences of a praiseworthy endeavor to do full justice to the subject, and also to satisfy the reader that this particular volume is one that no sportsman's library should be without. An essay by the ever-ready Andrew Lang on classical sport is apparently thrown in for the purpose of raising the literary tone of the book, which, in spite of this essay and of sundry quotations from Shakspere, Spenser, and others, is somewhat depressing. Mr. Peek condemns in caustic terms the reader who fails to find in his pages an affirmative answer to his question, "Is sport a fitting subject for the poet?" but we are compelled to admit that, with the few brilliant exceptions which are familiar to every schoolboy, his selections leave us in the ranks of the condemned. Among the best are some modern parodies, and the lines on the rule of the road which first appeared in the *Sporting Magazine* for September, 1793:

> "The rule of the road is a paradox quite,
> For when you are travelling along,
> If you keep to the *left* you'll be sure to be *right*,
> If you keep to the *right* you'll be *wrong*."

Students of the socialistic movements taking place on the continent of Europe may find some matter of interest in two works recently published by the Longmans. One of them, by Mr. Bertrand Russell, consists of six lectures on 'German Social Democracy,' in which the author gives a critical and historical account of the theories and labors of Marx, Lassalle, and other leaders, as well as of the political influence and aims of the Social Democratic party. Mr. Russell appears to be a collectivist, but his tone is moderate and his analysis of Marx's theories is destructive. The second work is a translation from the Italian by Richard Jenery-Shee of Count Edward Soderini's 'Socialism and Catholicism,' which also contains an account of the theories of the German Socialists named above, with an array of such antidotes as are offered and recommended by the Roman Catholic Church.

The same publishers issue a seventh edition of Mr. William Leighton Jordan's 'The Standard of Value,' a collection of newspaper articles, letters, clippings, and quotations of a heterogeneous character, all intended to demonstrate the iniquity of maintaining the gold standard. Mr. Jordan sneers at the timidity of such half-hearted bimetallists as would wait for international agreement, and, after the manner of our American agitators, declares that England is a big enough country to maintain bimetallism "without the consent of foreign nations."

In his pleasant little book on 'Old English Customs' (New York: New Amsterdam Book Co.), Mr. P. H. Ditchfield has satisfied, in no small measure, a very real want. His purpose has been to describe the customs actually still extant in various parts of England; and, though he has not quite succeeded in banishing paragraphs beginning "There used," he has kept pretty closely to the limitation imposed, with the result of impressing us anew with the variety and vitality of local usages. No arrangement of the matter has been attempted beyond a following of the calendar; and the contents are of very varying degrees of interest. But on the whole it is a useful as well as an entertaining collection; the more to be commended since the author is satisfied with narration, and rides no hobby, pre-Aryan or other. With his concluding aspiration that "those who are in a position to preserve any existing custom in their own neighborhood will do their utmost to prevent its decay," we shall all be in general sympathy, though it must be confessed that there are some customs, here set forth, about the

maintenance of which serious qualms of conscience might very well arise. It is the common difficulty when evolution becomes conscious.

We cannot give any similar approbation to another book of the popular antiquarian order, Mr. W. E. A. Axon's 'Bygone Sussex' (London: Andrews & Co.). It is a collection of odds and ends, ranging from lesser mediævalisms to stories from the Newgate calendar (not all *virginibus puerisque*), plentifully interspersed with very minor local poetry, some of it the compiler's own. We refuse to believe that the history of Sussex is so barren that it could not furnish forth a volume a good deal more likely than this is to create "a strong and healthy local sentiment." Of course there is an occasional grain of wheat in the chaff, and such books seem to find readers. We can readily picture them — retired business men, in easy garden chairs upon the lawns of villas around Hastings. But to the serious student such books are enough of themselves to justify the adjective appropriated to the antiquarian, to wit, "pottering."

Another volume of 'Eminent Persons: Biographies reprinted from the *Times*' has been published by Macmillan. It is for the years 1891–92, a safe interval. Even an American would hardly challenge the claim to eminence of more than three or four of this group of thirty three, of which the summits are Sherman, Moltke, Lowell, Parnell, Manning, Freeman, Whittier, George Bancroft, Renan, Tennyson, Owen, and Airy, besides Prince Napoleon, Grévy, Boulanger, Tewfik Pasha, Sir John Macdonald, Lord Granville, Bradlaugh, etc. These are not great character-sketches, but they contain details which entitle them to a place in a reference library.

One more link has been added to the chain of evidence which binds German literature to the English of the eighteenth century: J. Barnstorff, in 'Young's Nachtgedanken und ihr Einfluss auf die deutsche Literatur' (Bamberg: Buchner) has with great industry traced the influence of the author of 'Night Thoughts' in the works of Klopstock, Wieland, J. P. Richter, and several minor poets. In the case of Klopstock he has considerably enlarged the list of parallel passages pointed out long ago by Ebert, Cramer, and Hamel. Prof. Franz Muncker, in a brief preface, has some friendly words of commendation for the young author whose premature death prevented him from giving the finishing touches to his essay and seeing it through the press.

One of the most valuable of recent contributions to Dante literature is Alfred Basser mann's beautifully printed and richly illustrated quarto, 'Dante's Spuren in Italien: Wanderungen und Untersuchungen' (Heidelberg: Winter). The author makes a pilgrimage through Italy, and follows the traces of the poet in all the places which he is supposed to have visited, or which are referred to in his works, or which contain frescoes or other delineations of scenes from the 'Divina Commedia' such as are found in Rome, Florence, Orvieto, Pisa, and Lucca. Especially interesting are the illustrations from Codices, of which several facsimiles are given. Besides an excellent map of Italy showing the author's wanderings, there are sixty-seven plates, some of which are reproductions of Alfred Rethel's admirable xylographs of Death. The work is somewhat in the same line of investigation as Ampère's 'Voyage Dantesque,' published in 1839, but is much more thoroughly done, and also far excels the French volume in typographical and artistic execution.

In celebration of the five hundredth anniversary of Gutenberg's birth, the exact date of which is not known, but which occurred during the last five years of the fourteenth century, Alfred Bröckel, librarian of the City Library of Mainz, has prepared a work entitled 'Gutenberg, sein Leben, sein Werk, sein Ruhm,' and just published in fine style by Emil Roth of Giessen. This volume, which is beautifully bound and profusely illustrated, contains all the information available concerning the life and labors of the inventor of the art of printing, and is sold for the moderate price of $1.25.

The *Musenalmanach* for 1897, edited by Dr. Otto Braun and published by Cotta in Stuttgart, contains contributions from fifty German authors and six illustrations by prominent artists. The literary contents are poetical with the exception of three novels: "Unsere Carlotta," by Isolde Kurz, "Der schwarze Engel," by Ernst Eckstein, "Das hässliche Nixlein," by Hans Hoffmann, of which the first is by far the most original in conception and artistic in execution. The first number of the *Musenalmanach*, edited by Schiller and published by Cotta, appeared just one hundred years ago, so that the present issue may be regarded in a certain sense as the centennial celebration of the founding of the famous annual.

'Die Universitäten in den Vereinigten-Staaten Amerikas: Ein Beitrag zur Culturgeschichte,' by Athanasius Zimmermann, S.J. (Freiburg im Breisgau: Herder), begins with an historical sketch of education in the English colonies of North America from 1621 to 1775, and of the growth of higher schools during the period of the Revolution and the conflicts with the mother country from 1775 to 1812. Then comes a chapter on "The Period of Experimentation" from 1820 to the present time, followed by brief biographies of Horace Mann, Henry Barnard, Francis Wayland, Dr. Barnard Sears, and other prominent educators, and a deserved tribute to Dr. Henry T. Tappan in connection with the University of Michigan. There are also chapters on "Catholic Institutions of Learning," "The Great American Universities of the Present," and "The University Education of Women," to which the author as a Jesuit is naturally opposed, believing that the injuries to social and domestic life outweigh all the advantages of superior intellectual culture. We have a list of authorities, a short section on scholarships and fellowships, and tables of the universities, colleges, and preparatory schools in different States, with the number of professors, students, and books in the libraries, and their financial resources.

In a pamphlet of forty-four pages, entitled 'Das Bibliothekwesen in den Vereinigten-Staaten' (Hamburg: Seppel), H. Bonfort gives a concise and, on the whole, very correct account of the growth and character of public libraries in the United States. American libraries, he says, unlike the universities of the New World, owe little or nothing to similar institutions in Europe, but have developed on new lines, unhampered by time-honored traditions and bureaucratic red-tapeism, and thus, through their admirable organization and management, excel all others in accomplishing the purposes for which they are founded. He praises especially the libraries of Massachusetts, and the efficiency of women as librarians, which seems to have been a revelation to him. Among the gifts to the library of Cornell University, the magnificent historical collection of ex-President White and the valuable donations of Prof. Willard Fiske should have been mentioned.

The ninth volume of Jules Lemaître's 'Impressions de Théâtre' (Paris: Lecène, Oudin & Cie.) is interesting in that it shows the distinct tendency of the writer to greater conservatism, and to a repetition, at times, of the ideas so frequently enunciated by Francisque Sarcey in his delightful *chroniques*. M. Lemaître treats the younger school of dramatists fairly, analyzes their works conscientiously, endeavors to pick out the beauties which they contain, even if latent; but he does not enjoy the new school, and cannot see its value. He goes further than this: he does not deny directly the power of Ibsen, for instance, but he cannot see that Ibsen has done anything not already done, and usually better done, by Dumas *fils* or Augier. It is this intensity of national feeling which comes out repeatedly in the present series of "Impressions," as well as the almost regretful criticism of the wholly contemporary weak school of writers who mistake the disgusting and the excessive for genius, or at least talent of a high order.

In the first editions of his 'Vie de Saint François d'Assise,' M. Paul Sabatier omitted all that referred to the famous Indulgence of Portiuncula. Having since convinced himself of the authenticity of the documents in support of this indulgence, he has added to his book a chapter in which he treats the question at length. The scene of the audience is dramatically told. This new chapter will be included in future editions, but is also published separately by Fischbacher.

The eighth part of Mr. Quaritch's 'Contributions towards a Dictionary of English Book-Collectors' is distinguished by a facsimile of Mr. Gladstone's recent letter to this famous bookseller on the subject of collecting; by another of Mr. James Lenox's last letter to Mr. Quaritch; and by a copy of Edward FitzGerald's bookplate, designed by Thackeray in his usual inartistic manner. The accompanying letterpress on FitzGerald goes into minute details of his literary purchases, not without interest to the poet's admirers, and, we suppose, hitherto known only to the first publisher of his Omar Khayyám.

The cheerful fifteenth annual report of the managing committee of the School of Classical Studies at Athens, 1895 96, is accompanied by several instructive photographs of the excavations at Corinth which bore such rich fruit in determining the sites of ancient structures. Attention is called anew to the plaster casts of objects found by the School and to photographs, for sale by Dr. Clarence H. Young, Columbia College; as well as to lantern slides for the stereopticon—of topography and antiquities—procurable by loan or purchase, at a moderate price, of Prof. B. Perrin, 133 Farnam Hall, Yale College.

Under the title of "The Smoky Pilgrims," Prof. Blackmar of the University of Kansas contributes to the *American Journal of Sociology* (Chicago) a brief study of two related families of shiftless and vicious paupers kept alive for twenty years in the Kansas town where they were stranded on their nomadic migration. Portraits from life reinforce the characterization of each member. Loose sexual habits have introduced a colored strain into the family line, in conformity with the recorded observation that mixed marriages at the North are usually between white women and colored men.

In the January number of his *Land of Sunshine* (Los Angeles, Cal.), Mr. Lummis begins the reproduction of rare documents relat-

ing to the Spanish-American portion of the Union with the 'Reglamento para el Gobierno de la Provincia de Californias' (Mexico, 1784). He gives a facsimile of the title page at scale (as we judge), then condensed facsimiles, page by page, of the entire work in a first instalment, too small to be readable for itself without a *loupe*, but serving perfectly to check the accompanying translation in fair type. This innovation upon the current picturesque matter of the monthly cannot fail to commend it to public libraries.

The new quarto form of the semi-monthly *Chap-Book* (Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.) makes a brave showing typographically, barring an affectation in paragraphing the Notes. The margins are generous indeed; the title-page is rubricated. Mr. Henry James begins a serial story, "What Maisie Knew."

The Siberian Railway is making rapid progress, according to an account by Mr. J. Y. Simpson in the January number of *Blackwood*. Sixty-two thousand workmen are employed—on the western section, Russians, Siberians, and Italians; on the eastern, convicts, Chinese, and Coreans. The best are the convicts, whose faithfulness is rewarded by the lessening of their terms of exile—a third, for instance, in one class. Technical schools for the education of engineers have been opened in three of the large towns on the line. Emigration has been encouraged by grants of land and low fares on the railways, with the result that a tide has set in from Russia far beyond the capacity of the road to handle. In the first five months of 1896 there passed through Tcheliabinsk alone 170,000 persons. Towns are springing up in great numbers along the western section, which runs through a "black-earth" country. In anticipation of a great grain crop (Siberia raises now 432,000,000 pounds of grain for export), the Government is constructing a railway to connect the Ob with the Dvina, so that the expensive transit through Russia to the Baltic or Black Sea may be avoided. A large sum has also been appropriated to improve the navigability of these rivers.

A recent number of the *Geographische Abhandlungen*, edited by Prof. Penck of the University of Vienna, is occupied with a minute account of the lakes of the Salzkammergut, by Dr. J. Müllner ("Die Seen des Salzkammergutes und die österreichische Traun"), together with an atlas of detailed maps and profiles, prepared with governmental aid. Lakes of three kinds are recognized: main valley lakes, lying in the course of large streams as they issue from the Alps upon the piedmont foreland, and occupying part of a moraine-walled glacial amphitheatre; upper-valley lakes, lying near the head of a valley beneath steep mountain slopes, and enclosed by morainic walls; and mountain lakes, lying upon the highlands. All are intimately connected with glacial action. Associated with some of the lakes are morainic divides in former valleys, whereby streams are now turned to flow inwards towards the Alpine axis, instead of continuing on a more normal outward course. Both text and atlas supply a profusion of minute details on lacustrine morphology.

The Catalogue of Geological Bibliographies undertaken by vote of the International Geological Congress at its fifth session in Washton, 1891, is lately published (Paris: Gauthier-Villars), under the competent editorial direction of Emm. de Margerie, who has devoted several years of faithful labor to bringing into accurate and uniform arrangement the great body of material supplied by his colaborers. It forms a volume of over 700 pages, and must prove an indispensable work of reference to all studious investigators in its science. An analytical table of contents leads with comparative rapidity to any desired part of the work, and a reference to the indicated pages brings quickly before the eye all that has been done in the way of special bibliography on the selected subject. Geologists everywhere should express to M. de Margerie their indebtedness for his patient and necessarily tedious labor.

The International Association for Comparative Jurisprudence and Political Economy, which was founded a year or so ago in Berlin, and already includes a long array of jurists, economists, and administrative officials, announces a competition which may, perhaps, prove attractive to some American scholar. It offers a prize of 1,600 marks for the best essay giving "a comparative survey of the principles which prevail in the colonies of the most important countries as to the acquisition and colonization of land by settlers, and of the economic results of such principles." Essays may be in German, French, or English, and must reach the Secretary, Kammergerichtsrat Dr. Kronecker, 241 Kurfürstendamm, Berlin, W., before April 1, 1898. They will be adjudicated upon by a board of judges, including, besides three high German function aries, representatives of other countries, among whom we notice Mr. James Bryce for England, Prof. von Martens for Russia, Prof. Philippovich von Philippsberg for Austria, and Prof. Ashley of Harvard for the United States.

Perhaps with reference to the communication from Detroit in our last issue, concerning "School and Home," a correspondent sends us the constitution and by-laws of "The League of Parents and Teachers for the Improvement of the Secondary Education of Girls in New York City," founded on November 13, 1896, by the Committee of Sixty of Barnard College. The League holds regular meetings on the first Wednesday of every month, "at which either topics of general interest are discussed, or lectures given by some person of authority in matters relating to education." The corresponding secretary is Mary E. Rayson, 176 West 75th Street.

—Bacourt, France's minister plenipotentiary to this country in 1840-42, and who had been Talleyrand's First Secretary of Legation in London in 1830-34, naturally measured Americans by the English standard. Hence, while conceding perfect politeness to Martin Van Buren, he saw in that President only "la parfaite imitation d'un gentleman." In 1873, Mr. Lowell, in Bacourt's own country (where Taine could say "the gentleman is not found") wrote of the Duke d'Aumale: "He is a *distingué* person in a high sense, with a real genius for looking like a gentleman." This humor is embalmed by Dr. Murray under the word *distingué* in the new instalment of the Oxford Dictionary (Macmillan). Byron, apparently, in 1813 started the vogue of this exotic in English. But Lowell is sole sponsor for three other words in *dis-*, viz., *dissaturate*, in 1866, *dissensualize*, in 1854, and *disprivacied*, in 1848, in the "Fable for Critics." The last is curious, for Dr. Murray will not overlook in "The Cathedral" (1870) the same poet's

> "By throngs of strangers *undisprivacied*,"

showing how the intervening twenty-two years, which completely made over Lowell the man, could not obliterate this particular word-fancy. There is another negative word in prospect which will upset the provisional claim for *disproportionableness* that it is the longest word in the language—twenty-one letters, nearly an alphabet. But here already is *distinguishableness*, with nineteen, only awaiting its *in-* to rival the former sesquipedalian. Dr. Murray quietly dismisses a different pretension by citing Ouida ("[American speaking] I *disremembered* to ask") with other English authorities only, from 1836 down, for a word which he brands "chiefly dialectic." A real Americanism, the vulgar pronunciation of "*deestrict*" for district, is not recorded here in any manner. American, too, by survival, is the "distance" on our race-course, the English turf knowing it no longer, as we are here informed, though we have an English quotation as late as 1870, "A *distanced* horse cannot start again." No doubt the incarnation of the noun in the verb to *distance*, 'to outstrip,' will long endure.

—Several obsolete words in this section (extending to *distrustful*) will bear remark. We might wish that Howell's *disterr*, 'to exile,' had held its own, together with *disparish*, 'to disappear,' and *disparition*, matching *apparition*. As for *disorient* (1655) and *disoccident* (Marvell, 1672-3), they might any day be evoked beside the living 'to *orient*.' Together they furnish one of numerous examples in our language in which the same meaning is conveyed by contrary words; each having the sense of 'to confuse as to the points of the compass,' 'to embarrass,' etc. Why *dispalate* should have failed to flourish beside its hardly elder synonym *disrelish* is apparent only if we consider that the noun *relish* has a positive as well as a neutral sense, *e. g.*, "a breakfast relish," "to eat with a relish." On this principle *disoffice* gave way before *disservice*, and *disopinion* likewise before *disesteem*. The Elizabethan *disposed*, 'in a jocund mood,' has been reduced to the rank of neutral, requiring a qualifying adverb. We need hardly regret *dispeple*, 'to publish,' which dates from 1297, and derives from Old French *despeupler*. But suppose it had survived to bother us along with *dispeople* (1490), our phonetic reformatory friends would have grudged us the reading aid of the silent *o* in the latter word to distinguish one from other. Dr. Murray marks obsolete Chaucer's *distrait* [destrat], 'distracted in mind,' and notes that the word is usually treated as an alien—*i. e.*, printed in italics—when signifying 'absent-minded.' This is well exhibited in Thackeray's adopting the feminine form, "She was very *distraite*," while Kingsley, no doubt foreshadowing ultimate naturalization, writes, "She was *distrait*." We quote, for another locution, Dr. Murray's first citation under this word: "One of those Sort of Men who are very often absent in Conversation, and what the French call," etc. (Budgell, 1711). Dr. Johnson is held up to animadversion for having altered *dispatch* to *despatch*, which we are accordingly advised to eschew, albeit perhaps the word came to us *via* Spain, after "*des*pachar." But we must forbear. It is pleasant to find Burke's will (1797) cited for "*disposing* mind," and to trace "Man purposith & God disposith" to À Kempis's 'De Imitatione' (in translation, 1450). "A distinction without a difference" is at least as old as 1579. The good news comes that the letter D is now wholly in type.

—There can be no doubt, we imagine, that Dr. Myra Reynolds's Chicago University disserta-

tion, of 290 octavo pages, is the most detailed and comprehensive treatment yet made of 'Nature in English Poetry, between Pope and Wordsworth.' Shairp's 'Poetic Interpretation of Nature' is a more original treatment and of greater literary value, Veitch is as thorough in his keen study of 'The Feeling for Nature in Scottish Poetry.' Biese's 'Die Entwicklung des Naturgefühls in Mittelalter und in der Neuzeit' covers a wider range than Dr. Reynolds's work, but is utterly inadequate in its study of Wordsworth and numerous precursors of Wordsworth. The treatments of the period by Gosse, by Dr. Phelps of Yale, by Symonds, and others, are summary. Miss Reynolds alone seems to have had the courage to read and discuss exactly what was said, and when, by something like 150 poets, concerning natural colors and odors; concerning sounds of winds, of waters, of birds; concerning mountains, the ocean, the sky, night, storms, flowers, trees, and animals; concerning topography, country life and town life; concerning God in nature, and the joy, peace, wisdom, and ethical stimulus that are derived by man from nature. The results of the study receive untechnical statement in a final chapter. The author is surprised to find how completely the ideas of the early nineteenth-century poetry were represented in the germ in the eighteenth century. "Before Wordsworth most of his characteristic thoughts on nature had received fairly explicit statement." The work is a good example of the kind of literary investigation which may legitimately be called scientific, as opposed to very much that is not.

—'La Synergie Sociale,' by Henri Mazel (Paris: A. Colin & Cie.), is a book full of excellent intentions not always happily, or, indeed, wisely expressed. The object of the author is laudable in the highest degree, but his manner of fulfilling it is at times almost intemperate. That object is the importance of what he terms "social synergia," a term defined as "the harmony of the active loves of each individual." This love, he next explains, is "concord between citizens first, then between subjects." Another definition, given near the end of the book, is "active devotion." M. Mazel holds that the decadence of France, such as it plainly appears to him, is due precisely to the disappearance of synergia from the nation. It must be confessed that he makes, in the course of his exposition, many strong points, and does reveal many causes of the weaknesses which even the most patriotic of Frenchmen must needs recognize. The work is divided into three parts—the Past, the Present, and the Future. In the first of these M. Mazel paints a picture of the world's history up to modern times, in which he gives proof of remarkable powers of evocation and description. Indeed, this part recalls the superb chapters of Michelet, in his History of France, in which the Middle Ages are made living to the reader. From a literary point of view, this is incomparably the best part of M. Mazel's book. In the second part he describes the French Revolution in language calculated to make the late Paul Albert, who looked upon it as the greatest event in the history of the world, rise from the grave in indignant protest. But M. Mazel, while he does indulge in excess of language to which we are not accustomed outside of Victor Hugo's novels, here again proves his position and makes his point. He believes in inequality, in the élite, and absolutely disbelieves in the masses, the *turba*, which has never produced and never can produce any great work or any great invention. Hence he desires the return to hero worship, for "it is the heroes who cause the world's progress: civilization springs from powerful individualities, and not from aggregations of large numbers of men." It should be added, finally, that M. Mazel writes in a style which lends considerable attraction to his subject.

—A recent number of the *Far East* contains an unsigned article on "The New Japanese Cabinet" which, in style and thought, is wholly that of Shimada Saburo, the ever-strenuous advocate of the responsibility of the ministry, not to the Emperor, but to the Diet—and, in this article, to "the people." The leading paper, a highly important and unusually significant one, treats of the nature of Japanese civilization. For the first time from a native writer, we have a clear and unreserved avowal that the known history of the Japanese begins as late as that of the Germanic nations. His whole thesis is to prove that the Japanese, so far from being an old nation, is one of the youngest. That traditional conception of the Western mind which associates Japan with China in hoary antiquity is a radical error. Before the Christian era the Japanese archipelago was a waste and empty land, with a few scant tribes of savages. Although the invaders from Tartary streamed over the sea at various times later than the Christian era, civilization, writing, and the means of recording time came only in the sixth century, with Buddhism. Then began what may be called history. The author insists that Japan should be classed, not with China, India, Persia, and Egypt, but with Germany, France, and England. The so-called "Oriental characteristics" wrongly attributed to the Japanese are generalized ideas based upon observations of the present social conditions of the old nations of Asia. Shut off from competition with the world, isolated from the struggles and energies of Europe, with only Korea and China for neighbors—nations with whom there was neither sympathy nor competition—"Japan may be compared to a bright young man without brothers or sisters, without comrades in his plays and in his studies, brought up by a kindly grandmother." The author grieves over the absence, from the sphere of influences shaping Japanese history, of the Renaissance, the Reformation, modern philosophy, the French Revolution, the progress of inventions, and the rise of the American republic. He shows the defects of Confucianist culture, which ignored the entire world of ideal living—a grave defect, remedied by Buddhism, which gave that idealistic temper to the Japanese mind best seen in the refinement of taste, in art and manners. With subtlety and a consummate literary art, that has enabled him to escape the censor, the writer criticises (though with hasty step as if to get past the danger-point) the ideals of government in Japan, past and present. He shows how his countrymen have missed the idea of personality which gives tone to Western life, as well as the spirit and method of scientific inquiry. In a masterly way, yet winningly, he points out the limitations under which Japan has labored in her past career. He calls his countrymen to new endeavor, and pleads "for the sympathy and prayers of the best people of all lands," that Japan's task of adjusting old life and institutions to new environment may be perfected. The author, Yokoi Tokiwo, has been twice a student, while in mature life, at New Haven. He is one of the foremost non-sectarian Christians now in Japan.

—The further examination of the Egyptian papyrus containing epinician odes by Pindar's contemporary, Bacchylides of Ceos, reveals an interesting detail in the ode celebrating the victory of Hiero of Syracuse. Here there is a digression dealing with the myth of Meleager, which is dragged in as certain of Pindar's similar digressions appear to be. This fault, then, so far as it is evident in both poets, would seem to attach rather to the conventional form of the established epinician ode than to the poets who adopted it. Another and more important point seems to be clearly made out in regard to the three compositions of Bacchylides described by Prof. Dyer last week as not clearly written in commemoration of victories, but as having an unmistakable connection with the games. They now prove to be examples of a species of lyrical composition known as the dithyramb. These of Bacchylides are apparently intended for performance at athletic festivals, but are not connected with any person or victory. Students of Greek literature will recognize the importance of this discovery, since no example of a dithyrambic ode has till now been known, in spite of the fact that practically all the great lyric poets of Greece wrote in this style, which was also much in favor with minor poets. Indeed, Suidas alludes to an important work by Damagetus of Heraclea which was entirely devoted to the dithyrambic poets. The nearest to a complete dithyrambic ode hitherto known is a beautiful fragment of Pindar consisting of twenty-one lines. If we now are to have three dithyrambs by Bacchylides, they will afford a most interesting subject of consideration to students of the Greek tragedy, since tragedy is known to have developed from the dithyramb—originated, say some, by Arion himself, though others more credibly trace it to a later singer, Lasus of Hermione, who lived at Athens under the Pisistratidæ, and is supposed while there to have taught Pindar his dithyrambic innovations. It looks, then, as if the new discovery was to have a very remarkable importance, since it now bids fair to supply us with an essential link, hitherto missing, in the evolution of the Greek drama.

THE ELEVENTH CORPS AT CHANCELLORSVILLE.

The Battle of Chancellorsville: The Attack of Stonewall Jackson and his army upon the right flank of the Army of the Potomac, at Chancellorsville, Va., on Saturday afternoon, May 2, 1863. By Augustus Choate Hamlin, formerly Lieutenant-Colonel and Medical Inspector, U. S. Army, Historian Eleventh Army Corps. Bangor, Me.: Published by the Author. 8vo, pp. 196, with nine maps in colors.

In this book the Society of the Officers and Soldiers of the Eleventh Army Corps may be said to have officially challenged the aspersions upon their conduct in the battle of Chancellorsville. By resolution passed at their annual meeting in December, 1895, they adopt the work of Dr. Hamlin as their own, both in its vindication of the soldierly conduct of the corps as a whole and in its arraignment of Generals Hooker, Howard, and Devens.

If Dr. Hamlin was not the official historian of the corps, his book would still command attention by the ability with which he has ar-

rayed the evidence which is now made accessible by the publication of the Official Records, together with the material from private sources which time has brought to light. Nothing can appeal more strongly to the sympathies of fair-minded men than the deeply earnest protest of some ten thousand intelligent and patriotic soldiers that they have been, for thirty years and more, maligned and abused; that they have been falsely charged with cowardice, and with causing the defeat of a great national army by a senseless and unnecessary stampede. What they say through their advocate makes, as it ought to make, a serious demand upon future writers of history to weigh with careful scrutiny and just balance the proofs and the arguments which they offer. There is no denying that they have borne for a long time a fearful burden of military opprobrium. The larger number of those who survived that awful day in the spring of 1863 have by this time followed into another world their comrades who fell on the field; but only the greater duty is laid upon the living to vindicate their fellow-soldiers as well as themselves, if they have been wronged.

In various forms they began their cry for justice within a week from the day of battle. Some of their officers asked for official investigation, for leave to publish their own reports, for courts of inquiry, for leave to testify before the Congressional Committee on the Conduct of the War. It was thought impolitic by the War Department to make a public investigation, as being more likely to give aid and comfort to the enemy than to bring any advantage to the national cause. The Eleventh Corps men still sought through the press to get a modification of the popular judgment. They have not been wholly unsuccessful. In his paper on Chancellorsville in the 'Century War-Book' General Couch spoke the sentiment of intelligent military men when he said that any other corps of the Army of the Potomac would have broken before such a flank and rear attack as the Eleventh Corps was subjected to. Still, the bad name had been given, and it stuck. Underwood and Dodge, writing histories of the campaign, did something to remove the wrong judgment, but a full examination from the corps point of view seemed still the only adequate remedy.

Dr. Hamlin examines, first, the composition of the corps. As to nationality, he tells us that instead of its being a German corps, as is currently believed, probably three-fifths of it were Americans by birth, comprising some of the best native material from the East and the West. Of the German regiments and officers of rank, he shows that they were not adventurers, but patriotic naturalized citizens, well educated, well drilled, of good discipline, comprising many men of distinguished attainments in every department of learning and of public and private activity. Some of the officers were soldiers who had made brilliant reputations in the armies of Germany and France. The fourth chapter of the book, on the "Personnel of the Eleventh Corps," is itself a valuable contribution to the history of the civil war.

The author next examines the actual position of the corps on the field, and shows that it constituted the right wing of Hooker's army, being deployed along the turnpike leading from Chancellorsville through the wilderness to Orange C. H. Its line was nearly east and west, facing south, reaching from the Dowdall Tavern a mile and a half westward. Its extreme right flank was bent back so as to oppose one brigade to any attack that might come along the turnpike against that end of the line. Jackson, with more than twenty thousand men arrayed at right angles to the turnpike, came against this exposed flank where only one brigade was in position to oppose him, and no change of front by the corps was attempted until the Confederates were at close quarters with the single flank brigade. That the division to which it belonged (Devens's) was rolled up and driven off in a disorganized mass, was a matter of course. Dr. Hamlin seems very logically to draw his conclusion that here was no question about the courage or cowardice of the rank and file, but one of responsibility of general officers, pure and simple.

Carl Schurz's division was formed to face Jackson in time to do some stout fighting, but was partly broken by the retreating masses on the road at its left, and far outflanked on the right. The artillery did good service, and Jackson did not gain more ground without paying severely for it. Still, Schurz also was forced to retreat, though he fell back with deliberation and in creditable order. Steinwehr's division (minus its strongest brigade, which had been detached) also made good resistance, but it could not gain a good position, and Jackson's impetus, with the decisive advantages of a flank attack and great superiority of numbers, was sufficient to drive the whole corps back close to Chancellorsville. It had taken some two hours to do this, and the aggressive power of the Confederates was exhausted some time before Jackson fell in the early evening.

Concerning two of the three divisions of the corps, therefore, it may be fairly said that they were not disorganized, and yielded ground under the pressure of greatly superior numbers in positions not of their own choosing, and where they fought at such disadvantage that they could not be expected to maintain themselves. As to the other division (Devens's), it was struck in flank, at the end of its thin line of deployment, where resistance was, by every military rule, futile. It was knocked to pieces, of course. The army machine is not made to be used that way; as well expect a ship to sail over rocks and reefs as if going through the water.

Where, then, was the fault? Dr. Hamlin's array of evidence shows that there was no lack of warning. Again and again notice was sent in from the pickets and from reconnoitring officers that a very heavy Confederate force was forming for attack in the Wilderness forest on the right flank and rear. The officers making these reports were as well worthy of credence as any others in the army; yet their earnest and reiterated assertions of the fact were received, apparently, with contemptuous scepticism, not even worth the pains of personal verification by the superior commanding officers. The facts constitute a psychological problem, as well as a military one, of a very curious character. General Hooker received information from his centre corps about noon that Lee's army appeared to be retreating across the front, toward Orange C. H. This seems to have been received as indubitable fact, without inquiring what else such a movement across the front might mean. Sickles moved his corps out "in pursuit," and the centre was thus stripped of the troops which, in a few hours, were sadly needed to support the overwhelmed right flank. The "pursuit" was not swift enough or strenuous enough to interfere with Jackson's movement, and went far enough only to put Sickles's corps out of the combinations for several hours. It thus contributed to Jackson's success as if he had commanded both armies. One would have thought that the news of a force forming for attack beyond the right flank would have given at once the right meaning to Lee's "retreat." It did nothing of the kind. It seems to have been regarded only as proof of the panicky character of Eleventh Corps officers. So the awakening came when Jackson had smashed Devens's division—not before.

Some light is thrown on the matter by looking back at the history of the corps in the campaigns of the previous year. It had been Sigel's corps, part of MacDowell's army, and afterwards part of Pope's. It had hardly served with the Army of the Potomac, and had suffered from the jealousies which were so rife during all that year. Howard was newly assigned to the corps command and Devens to his division. It was scarcely possible that they should be free from the prejudices of what had been McClellan's army. Hooker, by temperament, was likely to feel them in an exaggerated degree. The corps was looked upon as a dubious quantity of questionable quality, that was to be "licked into shape" under new leading and instruction. Reports of danger on the flank, under such circumstances, would be very likely to seem panicky—just what was expected. A longer acquaintance between commanders and subordinates would probably have made such misunderstanding impossible. The reports and correspondence of the subordinates show that they were exasperated to the last degree by the consciousness of being misjudged. No situation could be better prepared to breed trouble.

It is not yet possible, perhaps never will be, to divide the responsibility equitably between Hooker, Howard, and Devens. Dr. Hamlin gives proof of the warnings which went to the division commander, but we cannot tell how far they were transmitted. The scepticism expressed by Devens might be only the reflex of the condition of mind at headquarters of the corps and army. He could not foster insubordination by openly blaming his superiors. More complete means of doing justice may some day come to light. This book may fairly be said to close the first chapter of the debate by showing conclusively that the question is one of generalship, and not of soldierly quality in the rank and file.

Dr. Hamlin very properly "carries the war into Africa." He takes up the analysis of the Union and Confederate records to show that some of those who have been loudest in jeering at the Eleventh Corps are quite vulnerable. That the Eleventh was overwhelmed by vastly superior forces under Jackson, no one now denies; but he boldly avers that the desperate and triumphant contest that evening at Hazel Grove was with an imaginary enemy. Into this we cannot go.

The book treats at large only one feature of the battle, the attack on our right flank on Saturday afternoon, May 2. It is that alone which specially concerns the Eleventh Corps. Yet the character of the whole contest affects the judgment of every part. Hooker was beaten by Lee with but little more than half his numbers. He had abandoned the initiative and accepted a purely defensive rôle before Jackson made his attack. He was already strategically defeated unless he took advantage of Lee's temerity in widely separating the two wings of his inferior army. This Hooker seemed incapable of doing. He hugged the delusion that Lee was retreating till Jack-

son gave him a rude awakening, and then his paralysis of will and intellect became even more complete. With a commander so plainly overweighted by his responsibilities and so easily beaten, the historian does not need to look further to find reasons for unsatisfactory results on any part of the field.

In one respect Dr. Hamlin might, with a little trouble, have made his book much more valuable. By giving in foot-notes the references to the Official Records which he has analyzed, it would have been easy for us to verify his work. It is a serious fault in a narrative that is necessarily controversial, to omit a full and accurate system of references, by volume and page, to the author's authorities. On the other hand, the ample series of maps copied from Col. Michler's official surveys could hardly be improved. The colors guide the eye admirably and make each sketch intelligible at a glance. Being compiled so as to show the actual situation at nearly every half hour, they make, of themselves, a history of the field that is a model for work of the kind.

The military histories of our time are noticeable for their refusal to accept an official narrative as beyond appeal. Moltke was warmly opposed to the debate of any matter supposed to be set at rest by the staff history issued from headquarters. Yet the German and French presses teem with books radically controverting the official story, and it must be added that they very often show good reason for doing so. It is a satisfaction to every lover of historical truth to see this fearlessly and fully done. The controversies over modern events are wholesome because they give us a fulness of evidence which makes our opportunity of reaching truth incomparably better than in any former time. In every sense Dr. Hamlin's is a useful and welcome addition to the material for our military history.

RECENT LITERARY CRITICISM.

English Prose: Selections, with critical Introductions by various writers and general Introduction to each period. Edited by Henry Craik. Vol. V. Nineteenth Century. Macmillan. 1896.

Essays. By Arthur Christopher Benson. Macmillan. 1896.

That Dome in Air. By John Vance Cheney. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896.

Idyllists of the Countryside: Being six Commentaries concerning some of those who have apostrophized the Joys of the Open Air. By George H. Ellwanger. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896.

Essays in English Literature 1780–1860. By George Saintsbury. Second series. Scribners. 1896.

A History of Nineteenth-Century Literature 1780–1895. By George Saintsbury. Macmillan. 1896.

THE fifth and last volume of Mr. Henry Craik's 'English Prose' is meant to cover the 19th century. It contains, like its predecessors, an extensive and skilfully made selection of characteristic passages from a large number of good authors (ranging, in this instance, from Scott to Stevenson), with a general introduction and brief prefaces. For the selection, as we have hinted, we have nothing but praise. The introductions, however, are not equally acceptable. Some of them are good, and most of them are at any rate harmless, but, taken together, they do not give one an impression of much critical vigor or much felicity of style on the part of their writers. Perhaps the worst of the lot is the general introduction by Mr. Craik himself, which seems to us both dull and pedantic, in spite of its manifest struggles to be neither. Characteristic is the following sentence, in which the most hackneyed of truisms is produced with a solemnity almost comic: "It is a common fallacy to believe that simplicity is always due to nature; it is quite as often due to the highest art." Another passage, almost equally characteristic, deserves to be quoted for the rich quality of its unintentional humor: "That common form of intellectual perversity which thinks that it has sufficiently marked the place of Johnson in prose style by calling him turgid and sesqui pedalian, inevitably leads its victims into a parody of his formality which lacks the faintest reflection of his virility and force." If the Doctor could read this, he would, we fancy, straightway begin to ruminate the "desperate saying" of the Florentine that, though we are bidden to forgive our enemies, we are nowhere commanded to forgive our friends.

Nothing better than this sentence of Mr. Craik's has appeared of late, if we except the definition of modern simplicity in Mr. A. C. Benson's 'Essays,' propounded with like seriousness:

"Modern simplicity," says Mr. Benson, "must show the spareness of asceticism, not the leanness of anæmia. It must arise from the repression of luxuriance, not poverty of spirit. Strict simplicity implies the rejection of all startling and glittering tricks of style, and consequently it implies a lowly patience in pursuit, with an indefatigable zeal for the selection of the precise, the majestic, the supreme."

Mr. Benson's "Essays," we hasten to add, are not to be judged from this passage. They are gently, but often subtly, appreciative; the subjects—Marvell and Henry More and Vincent Bourne and Gray and William Blake, to mention no others—are interesting; the critic's temper is always amiable; his judgments are usually sober, and never eccentric. In a word, Mr. Benson's book, though not a great book, is a good one, of the kind to make friends and keep them. We hope for a second edition, in which the plaintive preface shall be cancelled; for Mr. Benson should take courage—he is no *vox clamantis*, and he need not call himself names.

Under the title 'That Dome in Air,' Mr. John Vance Cheney has collected a number of his papers on poets and poetry, chiefly American. These little essays, all or most of which were originally intended for popular lectures, are agreeable to read, and show the author's well known delicacy of taste, but they can hardly be regarded as of permanent value. Mr. Cheney entertains some rather mystical views about the relations of poetry and religion, which find expression—none too clearly—in the first paper of the series.

There is no questioning Mr. Ellwanger's love of nature and the nicety of his observation. He is also an appreciative reader, a graceful writer, and not a bad critic of men and books. All these qualities come out in his 'Idyllists of the Country Side,' a pretty little volume, with no mission (thank Fortune!) but to please and refresh. The six papers of which it consists concern Walton, White of Selborne, Hardy, Jefferies, Thoreau, and Mr. Burroughs—very various people, certainly, associated only by virtue of their common trait of love for the country. The best papers are, perhaps, those on Walton and Gilbert White, but all are agreeable, and there is no nonsense about any of them. It is absurd to *discuss* a book like this. The thing to do is to read it, or parts of it, as the fancy takes one, and be cheerful.

Most of Mr. Saintsbury's volume of 'Essays' is good, honest homespun, but there is one very purple or rather crimson patch, the paper on "English War-Songs." At first one fears that the hue of this particular fragment comes from a baptism of blood, but we are inclined to think that the dye is made of less costly materials—perhaps even of one of those innocent, non-coagulating mixtures which flow freely upon the stage without giving the spectator any real cause for alarm. Be that as it may, the paper is no doubt very fierce and truculent, and "calculated" to do much damage in the ranks of those whose canons of criticism are Quaker guns. At the outset Mr. Saintsbury scowls fiercely at "the curious little sectarian heresy which calls itself the Modern Spirit," because he thinks it regards as "a barbarous and exploded crudity" the belief that "the two things best worth doing in this world are fighting and love-making." We are sorry that Mr. Saintsbury should go out of his way to bully "the Modern Spirit," for, whatever its faults, we cannot see that it has ever done him any harm. For ourselves, we had supposed that the curious little modern heresy was, in this particular, really a doctrine of older date, and not unconnected with a venerable and sacred institution for which Mr. Saintsbury has at all times a genuine respect. However, it is only fair to say that this part of Mr. Saintsbury's article shows some signs of being meant for humor—and we have never yet felt quite sure of Mr. Saintsbury when he is working his humorous vein. Still, we believe we are safe in saying that there is no humor in what follows. It is the passage which gives the test of good "war-poetry":

"If, in the case of a certain number of persons of different ages, educations, ranks, and so forth, it induces a desire to walk up and down the room, to shout, to send their fists into somebody else's face, then it is good and there is no more to be said. That it does not cause these sensations in others is no more proof of its badness than it is a proof that a match is bad because it does not light when you rub it on cotton wool."

Such observations prompt the hope that Mr. Saintsbury locked his door, and put his pipes and bric-à-brac in the cupboard, and threw the poker out of the window, before he actually sat down to the composition of an essay which forced him to recall so many pieces of good war-poetry.

The same author's 'History of Nineteenth-Century [English] Literature' has, as was to be expected, a good deal of merit and some grave faults. To cover English literature from 1780 to 1895 in less than 500 pages is not easy, unless one is content with either superficiality or dry bones. Mr. Saintsbury is not content with either. He is very widely read in modern literature, and, though not always quite accurate, can certainly measure knowledge with any of his critics. He also likes to be sprightly, and he usually succeeds in being interesting. In the present case he was, of course, obliged to omit much that he would have liked to insert, and to condense resolutely. That he has done this without spoiling his book is much to his credit; but one cannot help wishing that he had taken more pains with structure and proportion. There is a hurry and bustle about the narrative and the criticism alike which is rather wearying than

exhilarating. We are more than once told that the writer cannot stop for this or that, and we get the impression of being continually requested to move on. The plan of the book, with its alternating short biography and brief criticism, helps to produce a feeling of worry and distraction. To Mr. Saintsbury's prejudices we need only advert: they are here, and their name is legion, but they are so frankly self-confessing that they can do little harm except to the very feeble. It is a pity, however, that they carried him so fast and so far when he was "writing up" Byron that he forgot to mention "The Vision of Judgment."

We had thought to add a word on Mr. Saintsbury's style, but the subject is too hackneyed. Such phraseological gems as "a singular though scanty vein of original lyric snatch," and "but he is a failure of a considerable poet, and some fragments of success chequer him," may be had for the asking.

FIELD-MARSHAL BOYEN

Das Leben des Generalfeldmarschalls Hermann von Boyen. Von Friedrich Meinecke. Vol. I. 1771–1814. Stuttgart: Cotta. 1896.

It is the boast of the German army that no one regiment is better or worse than the other, but that all are educated to a high average of military knowledge; and as in the army, so in official life, the Germans, and particularly the Prussians, point with pride to a long succession of excellent administrators in every department of the Government. Most of these excellent men live and die unknown to the outer world, for they are trained to regard themselves merely as a small part of a huge machine. Occasionally, however, great events call the attention of historical students to particular parts of this state machinery, and then only are we apt to discover the existence of such men as Boyen. The great war minister Von Roon might never have been heard of but for the war of 1870. We might never have heard of Boyen but for the happy circumstance of his having left behind him an autobiography of the most precious kind, recently edited by Prof. Nippold of Jena. The present Life purports not merely to contain all that Nippold gives, but to constitute a history of Boyen and his times. It is an ambitious project, which the author modestly recognizes in his preface by explaining that he was urged to this work by Von Sybel.

The importance of Boyen lies in the fact that he was an honest and patriotic Prussian soldier, who, after the battle of Jena, devoted his whole energy to the reform of the army, and courageously urged his views upon the very weak King, Frederick William III., knowing all the while that he was making himself unpopular with that monarch and running the risk of military disgrace. He was a loyal friend and supporter of Scharnhorst, and when that great man died in 1813, Boyen persevered in the reforms already instituted, and, until his own death in the early part of this century, never flagged in his zeal for a popular army. The King of Prussia, on the contrary, desired to be surrounded by professional soldiers only. He looked with great distrust upon a people in arms, for he feared lest popular dissatisfaction might express itself too forcibly. He regarded military officers as the only citizens capable of understanding the meaning of "honor," and was strongly prejudiced against permitting other than nobles to enter the army. It is doubtful whether he would ever have made war with Napoleon in 1813, had not his people risen in rebellion, not only against the French, but against their king as well.

Boyen was born in 1771 in Prussia. His father was a page at court. The childhood of young Hermann was a happy one so far as worldly surroundings are concerned; in this respect contrasting strongly with the poverty which was the lot of his great colleagues, Gneisenau, Blücher, and Scharnhorst, who all grew up as ragged, barefoot farmer lads. We are told that he had a tutor at the early age of four, that he wrote a novel when he was only nine, and that he entered the army as gentleman corporal at the age of thirteen. These facts are of no great importance, so far as Boyen is concerned, but illustrate the character of the times he lived in. The rulers of Prussia, to this day, become officers in the army when they are ten years of age. It is a relic of the days when fathers nominated their sons to favorite regiments, as they now sometimes place their children's names as candidates in a club, a public school, or similar institutions where time counts in favor of the candidate.

The youngster who entered the Prussian army in those days was subjected to a training designed to make of him a man indifferent to personal comfort. Frederick the Great was on the throne, and the officers' life, in his day, was not one of pleasure. Boyen tells us that he was made to sleep in the same room with two private soldiers, and that he received as military godfather a sergeant who gave him what was then regarded as the training of an officer. There was no book-learning worth mentioning, in that army, and no such thing dreamed of as the present general staff. The soldiers of Frederick looked upon a book-worm as one who could not possibly do good field work, and we must admit that they were partially justified by the results of the Seven Years' War. Mr. Meinecke, on page 19, traces the strength of Frederick the Great's army largely to its moral and religious character, but he does not bring evidence to the support of this statement. He does not dwell upon the fact that about half of Frederick's soldiers were mercenaries, who were kept from deserting by the most rigid discipline only, and that he recruited his men without particular reference to their origin. We are more inclined to the opinion that Frederick the Great accomplished what he did with his mercenaries because men are attracted to a successful general; and in Frederick they found a leader who kept them well fed, well clothed, and well supplied with booty.

At the age of sixteen, when with us a lad enters West Point, Boyen had completed his military apprenticeship, and was admitted to his regiment as an officer (1787). Boyen chafed under the purely routine character of a soldier's life in a small town of East Prussia, and hailed with delight an opportunity which presented itself of seeking professional instruction at the university town of Königsberg. Here, three years before, had been established a rough sort of military school, principally for the instruction of artillery and engineers, who were regarded in those days as mechanics, rather than soldiers, somewhat as on board men-of-war those officers were regarded who had exclusive dealing with the steam-engines. Seven of these military schools had been established in Prussia after the Seven Years' War, but there was no systematic plan of education in the modern sense of that term.

Germany's great philosopher, Kant, was then at the height of his popularity, delivering lectures at the University; his 'Kritik der reinen Vernunft' had appeared in 1781, and in 1788, the year when young Boyen first listened to his teachings, there had issued from the press his 'Kritik der practischen Vernunft.' Kant was the great thinker of Königsberg, and Boyen listened attentively to his lectures, and tried to understand them, but it is doubtful whether he got a great deal of benefit from this study, much as his biographer might wish to have us think so. There was, however, a political economist also at the University, whose name did not become so famous as that of Kant, but who exercised upon young Boyen an influence of the greatest importance. His name was Kraus, and Boyen recalled with pleasure conversations with this man on the subject of national wealth and economics generally. He at least made a complete convert of Boyen; explained to him the machinery of taxation, the relations of export to import; taught him the truths which Adam Smith had first published to the world in his 'Wealth of Nations' (1776); showed him the mischief which was being done all over Europe by systems of so-called protection which impoverished the state and led to useless wars. This was strange teaching for a soldier to enjoy, but, stranger still, it was the only teaching that proved of any real value to Boyen during the dark years of Prussia, when military questions resolved themselves principally into the economic one of how money was to be raised out of a bankrupt community.

The very weakness of Prussia between 1806 and 1815 forced a monarch trained to absolutism to confess at last that he was helpless and in danger of being driven from his throne. Only in this extremity did he permit himself to call upon his people for assistance, and to this we owe the fact that this weakest of monarchs secured the assistance of a galaxy of great men, such as Stein, Hardenberg, Scharnhorst, Gneisenau, and Boyen. To-day a War Minister represents chiefly the spending of money. In his time Boyen, the soldier, had the education of a finance minister, and was able not merely to plan a war budget, but at the same time to justify it on economic grounds.

In 1794 he was far in advance of his time in opposing the partition of Poland, a step not only dishonest at the hands of Prussia, but which has done her great injury down to our time. Boyen urged that Poland be held intact as an independent Power, foreseeing that the trade relations between that country and his own might be of great value, whereas if Russia absorbed a large part, it would be an economic loss to Europe. During the campaign of 1794 Boyen became confirmed in favor of light skirmishing troops as a part of every body of infantry, for he had there noticed that many of the Polish successes had been owing to loose-formation fighting. Kosciuszko, the great Polish leader, could have taught the Prussians many valuable military lessons gained by his experience in the American war, but the Prussian army of 1794 was not disposed to learn anything new from Poland, from America, or, least of all, from France. Only Jena made way for the new teaching.

Boyen in our day would have been a member of the Cobden Club and have devoted himself largely to advancing popular reforms. In his own he was regarded as a radical, if not a dangerous revolutionary character, tolerated by the King only because he was an exceedingly useful public servant. In creating the great army which fought against Napoleon, Boyen insisted, and successfully car-

ried his point, that there should be no distinction of rank or birth recognized among those who sought to serve their country. He was thoroughly opposed to the pretension that nobles alone could fill important military offices; in fact, he made the army a democratic institution, in which every man of every degree had to serve, and in which were no distinctions except those required for purposes of military discipline.

It would have been of great service to the student had Mr. Meinecke provided an index to this first volume of his, to say nothing of a map; but for such luxuries as these we must wait until such time as German scholars realize that labor is not in itself a great object, and that books are none the better for being difficult to read.

TWO WHITMAN BOOKS.

Walt Whitman the Man. By Thomas Donaldson. New York: Francis P. Harper. 1896.

Whitman: A Study. By John Burroughs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

Mr. Donaldson's book is a novelty in Whitman literature. We have had before books at once for him and against him, but none drawing the line between the more and the less admirable where Mr. Donaldson draws it. He reminds us of the good woman who thought little of Shakspere's writings, but admired the man. This is, if not precisely, very nearly Mr. Donaldson's attitude towards Mr. Whitman, as he invariably calls him, in refreshing contrast with the "undressed familiar style" his friends sometimes affect. His opportunities for knowing Whitman well were excellent—from 1862 to 1873 in Washington, and from 1873 until the latter's death in 1892 in Camden, N. J. His book deals almost exclusively with the Camden period. It will not be received with enthusiasm nor even gratefully by members of the Whitman cult, and yet no book or article written heretofore has given such an agreeable idea of the man. It was the man that attracted Mr. Donaldson. About the poet he was not so sure. "He did some things unusual, some things great, many things mediocre." But then Mr. Donaldson has known few men who are always great. "Col. Robert G. Ingersoll is one who never lets down, and always sits erect on his one distinct and concededly great saddle." Mr. Donaldson would not himself call Whitman's works poems, but "A Collection of Thoughts." The value of them lies in their democracy. Whitman groped at times for "something back," some knowledge of the universal mystery. "But, like all other human characters, he never found it, and has never expressed it." In general, Mr. Donaldson is convinced that as a poet and a writer Whitman has been taken much too seriously.

About the man he has much to say that is trivial; much, too, that is interesting and significant. Whitman was very poor for some years after he went to Camden, but was rendered as comfortable as he cared to be after his wants were made known. Mr. Donaldson lets all the left hands know what the right hands did, and the particulars are very creditable to human nature and to himself; for though he does not vaunt his prominence among Mr. Whitman's benefactors, neither does he conceal it. It may seem an exception to the statement that Whitman never asked for help, that he asked people to buy his "Author's Edition" for ten dollars, a most exorbitant price. Whitman's physical habits are given with the particularity of his own catalogues of the human anatomy and physiology. He was very cleanly, but equally untidy. There are facsimiles of his manuscripts in evidence. These he would roll up, tie with a string, and throw into the woodpile in the corner of his room. He did not use tobacco, and used wines and liquors with great moderation. "He used his knife as a divider and his fork to eat food with. He was not a sword swallower." Mr. Donaldson found him very simple, and unconscious of himself as a great man or beyond the common. "When he was eating off a dry-goods box for a table and drinking milk warmed over a coal-oil stove, and a few crackers with it, he would ask you to dine with the dignity of a prince, and never apologized for or mentioned the food." His house in Camden "was a coop at best," dear for the money that it cost, but selected because it had a tree in front of it and some lilacs in the back-yard. Then, too, it was near the ferries. It was in the business part of the unsightly town, but he thought it "a restful place," saying, with exceptional humor, that, "when he wanted almost entire seclusion and absolute rest, he spent the day in Philadelphia." A guano factory near by made the atmosphere intolerable for his visitors. "Did you ever smell anything like it?" said one of them. "And the old fiend sat there and chatted as though the balm of a thousand flowers encircled him."

As for his conversation, Mr. Donaldson admits and shows by example that it was meagre, slow, and very commonplace. Of course those who are members of the cult will say that he was talking with Mr. Donaldson and husbanding his pearls. "There were two Whitmans," says his friend, and it was unlikely, the cult will say, that Mr. Donaldson would find the deeper one, as did Messrs. Burroughs and Gilder and Stedman. One aid to conversation Mr. Whitman lacked to an extraordinary degree: "He read less of books than any man of literary pursuits I ever knew or heard of." Here was the negative basis for a towering egotism. Indeed, the enormous claims made for his originality often suggest more pointedly the narrowness of his critics' reading than anything else. But Mr. Donaldson protests again and again that Mr. Whitman as he saw him was not an egotist, except possibly in the last years of his life, when physically and mentally he was breaking down, and he resents Mr. Traubel's account of a dinner given him in 1891 as making his egotism appear much greater than it was.

On the side which Mr. Donaldson knew least about, Mr. Whitman was a silent, meditative man, who liked to be alone. To his nurse, who was with him a long time and was an excellent fellow, he had little to say. Women had slight attraction for him and children a good deal. There is one grindstone that Mr. Donaldson sees through with a perspicacity which has been denied to Whitman's admirers generally, viz., that if he was a poet *of* the people, he was not a poet *for* the people. "If Mr. Whitman has any popularity among the masses as a poet or writer, his book-sales fail to show it." "If his literary work is to live otherwise than as a book for thinkers and expounders, or as a curiosity, the present public opinion of him must essentially change. . . . The masses do not read him." His political convictions were at first Republican and afterward Democratic. "He looked upon the Northern abolitionists as generally fire-brands and inciters to insurrection, and full brothers in this to the Southern fire-eaters." The accounts of his hospital work are meagre and offer nothing new. After he came to Camden, his life, whatever it had been, was altogether clean and sweet. As to his earlier life Mr. Donaldson quotes his confession to John Addington Symonds that it had been "jolly bodily," with "episodes of passion and permanent attachment"; the second of these phrases being, of course, a paraphrase of Whitman's bill of particulars.

Mr. Burroughs's book is a very different one from Mr. Donaldson's. It has literary value, of which Mr. Donaldson's is innocent. But it has less of this than when he writes of birds and other natural things. Writing of birds, his style is sympathetically musical; writing of Whitman, it is often Whitmanese, and the effect is very droll. His book is the most elaborate study of Whitman's poetry that has yet been made. It is much fuller than Mr. Symonds's, and much more satisfactory than that upon the whole, but it deals less courageously with certain parts. It slurs the "Calamus" section of 'Leaves of Grass,' which troubled Mr. Symonds a good deal. He wrote that he could not have resisted the baseness of its implication if Mr. Whitman had not written him that his man-friendship rhapsodies were quite innocent.

Mr. Burroughs's estimate of Whitman is as exalted as any that has preceded it. He thinks it "highly probable that future scholars and critics will find his work fully as significant and era-marking as that of any of the few supreme names of the past." But he does not do much to justify himself in such a liberal estimation. His treatment is too vague, and the examples which he gives of Whitman's poetry are often damaging and discouraging. These and the extracts from his letters confirm the adverse judgment of Symonds on his taste. To say that it was execrable would not be too severe. The "Biographical and Personal" section gives a strong impression of Whitman's filial devotion to his mother, with an aggregation of hospital horrors in his letters to her into which Zola, when writing 'Lourdes,' might have dipped his pen for a more ghastly hue. The picture of his hospital work is very engaging, but omits the fact that his kisses and caresses were too soft for some of the soldiers of the manlier sort and were repelled. "With all his rank masculinity, there was a curious feminine undertone in him which revealed itself in the quality of his voice, the delicate texture of his skin, the gentleness of his touch and ways, the attraction he had for children and the common people." This hints at something true to which some persons would give a different interpretation.

In order to exalt Whitman, Mr. Burroughs finds it necessary to depreciate all other poets, but he can blame Whitman, too—a little—if only for the sake of giving to his page a more judicial air. In the matter of the Emerson letter he thinks Whitman was guilty of very bad taste. He concedes the egotism of the man more frankly than does Mr. Donaldson, and in some particulars unduly:

> "He enjoyed hearing himself lauded as Colonel Ingersoll lauded him in his lecture in Philadelphia, and as his friends lauded him at his birthday dinner parties during the last two or three years of his life; he loved to see his name in print, and items about himself in the newspapers; he sometimes wrote them himself and gave them to the reporters."

But in general the rejoinder on this head is the very stale one that Whitman identifies himself with the American population and

with universal man. There are many facts which do not fit into this theory. The charge that Whitman was a *poseur* is parried skilfully, but here also the concessions justify the charge.

There is much excellent criticism in Mr. Burroughs's book; it has many excellent rejoinders to criticisms that have been made upon Whitman's poetry; but it would be vastly more effective if it oftener gave us chapter and verse to prove the lofty claims he makes for his distinguished friend.

The Life of Roger Sherman. By Lewis Henry Boutell. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

THIS book, of 350 pages, is a timely and valuable contribution to the biographical literature of the country, not only for the record it gives of a distinguished statesman of the eighteenth century, but for the contrasts it offers to some of the features of the present time. The three most conspicuous figures in the history of Connecticut during that century were Jonathan Edwards, Roger Sherman, and Oliver Ellsworth. Edwards was born in 1703 and died in 1758. Sherman was born in 1721 and died in 1793. Ellsworth, the youngest of the three, was born in 1745 and died in 1807. Edwards's life covered fifty-two years, Sherman's seventy-two, and Ellsworth's sixty-two. Edwards undoubtedly had the most powerful and piercing intellect of the three. His great mental force was expended (not to say wasted) in constructing and expounding theological and metaphysical theories. Ellsworth was conspicuous as a statesman and diplomatist, but his dominant title to fame is to be found in his masterly juristical work in organizing the judicial powers of the Federal Government. He worked in a new field, with new materials, and the results of more than a century of the severest tests have demonstrated his claim to a high place among the most distinguished statesmen of the last century. Roger Sherman, of whose life and labors Mr. Boutell has given us a plain, clear, but not very animated sketch, was one of the most solid and clear-headed public men New England ever produced and honored. Though he was born in Massachusetts, his active life was spent in Connecticut and in the service of that State and the nation.

His education was exceedingly limited, partly gleaned from the "common schools" (and very *common* they were), and partly by his own efforts, unaided by others, so far as we can gather from this biography. He was a shoemaker and farmer, and worked with his hands till he was past twenty-two. Though he studied, or (as it was termed in those days) "*read* law," it does not appear that he ever practised much at the bar; but he successively, and often simultaneously, held and efficiently performed the duties of nearly every office of his town, county, city, and State, except those of Governor and Lieutenant-Governor. In addition to all these various occupations, he was also a merchant. His crowning title to eminence, however, is to be found in his services in promoting national independence and laying the foundations of the Federal Government. His labors in these fields were so conspicuous and successful that they are known to every tyro in our national history.

He had what has been termed the "genius of common sense." Though nearly destitute of book culture, as well as of what is called the "literary instinct," he had, what is vastly more valuable, a clear head and a quiet temperament, invigorated by an indomitable will. His sagacity in public affairs has rarely been surpassed. His moral nature seems to have been without a blemish, and to have operated as the guide and support of his public labors as well as his private life. Though religious in the best and mildest Puritan sense, he appears to have been absolutely free from cant and that fussy enthusiasm which blazes out suddenly and expires as suddenly. Considering his want of book knowledge and literary training, his speeches and writings exhibit a singularly clear, cogent style, and a comprehensive grasp of the questions—often great and complicated—which he discussed and expounded. He was not, to use an expression of Napoleon's, a "manufacturer of phrases," but he wrought in great public affairs with the same unerring skill and efficiency which he applied to the making of boots and shoes, raising corn and potatoes, and conducting his mercantile enterprises. In all the stages of his active and laborious life his integrity was absolute, and, as Marshall says of Washington, "was not only untainted but unsuspected." His word imported absolute verity, and it can be said of him, in the language of Lord Bacon, that his "mind turned on the poles of truth." He was as wise as he was straightforward, and his whole life justified the unique praise of one of his most distinguished contemporaries, that "Sherman never said a foolish thing in his life."

It is a circumstance as honorable to his fame as it is rare in human annals, that several of his descendants have proved worthy of their ancestor. Roger Sherman Baldwin, Governor and Senator in Congress and one of the ablest lawyers in Connecticut; William M. Evarts, Secretary of State, Attorney-General of the United States, and Senator; Rockwood Hoar, Judge of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts and Attorney-General of the United States; and the present United States Senator Hoar—all grandsons of Roger Sherman—have reflected light on the character of their ancestor. But reading this unpretending volume forces on us a painful contrast between Sherman and the other great leaders of his day and those who seem to direct our public affairs at the present time. An old chief justice of Connecticut, pious as well as learned, once said: "A Democrat is a stench in the nostrils of God." If he could arise from the grave and inspect the leaders of both political parties now, he would not fail to include in the scope of his caustic remark more than one party.

The effort of the author of this Life of Sherman to gather humorous anecdotes was not very successful; he had rather a barren field from which to glean. But he gives one very pretty story relating to Mr. Sherman's young daughter Mehetabel. When Gen. Washington was about to leave the house of her father on one occasion, the young miss opened the door for him. The General put his hand on her head and said, "You deserve a better office, my little lady!" "Yes, sir," she replied, with a courtesy, "to let you in."

The Monetary and Banking Problem. By Logan G. McPherson. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

THIS book is the outgrowth of some articles published last summer in the *Popular Science Monthly* which received commendation from economists and bankers. While we can hardly expect anything very novel or original on so well worn a theme as this, there is always room for improved methods of presentation and for views from new standpoints; and in some respects Mr. McPherson's treatment of his subject is striking and suggestive. There is nothing more perplexing to the ordinary mind in the whole monetary problem than the manner in which the enormous mass of exchanges, all apparently for money, are effected by means of an extremely limited supply of that commodity. On this point Mr. McPherson is worth quoting. He says:

"This fact, that the total value called for by the paper representatives of value at any time in existence, although expressed in terms of the units of value originally designating coins, vastly exceeds the value of the metals as coined or held in bullion by the sources whence coins are issued, together with the fact that no man willingly and knowingly exchanges commodities for paper representatives of value without believing that he can obtain the worth called for by these representatives, leads to the perception that, after all, it is not the metals, however precious, but property of all kinds that is their basis, and that these paper representatives of value are superseding coins in designating and measuring the value of the commodities for which they are exchanged."

In other words, transactions by means of credit or the paper representatives of credit, although expressed in terms of money, are really dependent on the existence of property. Money is necessary only for small change; the use of drafts or checks might easily be extended far beyond its present limits. The inference is obvious that such a system as that of the Scotch banks is a natural development of commerce, and that legislation calculated to prevent or obstruct this development is unwise. According to American standards, the paper money of Great Britain is extremely limited in supply; were we to have so small a *per-caput* circulation, the outcries of the demagogues would rend the skies. But the prodigious business of Great Britain goes on without the least inconvenience from this cause. Theoretically, the currency may be called inelastic; practically, whatever elasticity is required is furnished by the increase or decrease of the number of checks and bills, together with the exchange of comparatively small quantities of bullion for banknotes.

Mr. McPherson contends earnestly that the value of commodities depends on the amount of human effort expended, under the law of supply and demand, in their production, and not on the amount of gold and silver that is in existence. It is unnecessary to consider what is involved in this theory, for it involves trains of reasoning far beyond the capacity of the class of readers for whom this book is intended. Much more practical is the author's account of the Canadian banking system, which he heartily commends. His book is written in a clear style, and with sufficient illustration to make it comprehensible to those unfamiliar with the subject; and as it is published in an attractive form, it will no doubt receive attention.

Talks about Autographs. By George Birkbeck Hill. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

DR. GEORGE BIRKBECK HILL is known as the editor of Boswell's Johnson, of all similar editors the one who might best be called a Boswell's dignified Boswell. The qualities of mind that made him exalt Boswell's genius are agreeably revealed in his recent *Atlantic* articles, which now appear, with additions and illustrations, in a handsome volume. Dr.

Hill owns a fairly good collection of autographs. With this modest stock in trade and his own redoubtable knowledge of biography, he has ventured upon a kind of composition as yet little essayed, though not strictly novel—the *causerie* which turns upon nothing except an autograph. The author is so enamoured of this species that he thinks editing a scholarly letter would be an invaluable college exercise in literature. Dr. Hill's papers were on the whole worth reprinting, though the literary results are slender compared with the amount of commonplace. *Obiter dicta* form the tissue of the book, many trivial, others the interesting small-talk of a competent literary journalist, well-memoried and well-languaged.

There is no need of denying the axiom and the plea of collectors that in autographs much good literature and history is quietly inurned. Mr. Hill's own collection affords a good many little corroborations of well-known facts: that, for example, in Matthew Arnold liberal and conservative tendencies were painfully mixed; that Newman was peculiarly sensitive to the opinion of the world; that Froude was by nature incapable of strict accuracy and blind to criticism; that Southey, like Coleridge, combined exquisite sense of rhythm with insensibility to music; that Brougham left the Commons unwillingly; that Mrs. Hemans was too poetical for the strong taste of our masculine ascendants; that Garrison hated war as deeply as he hated slavery; that Gordon's greatness of soul extended to the least of his acts.

There is little in the book to excite adverse criticism. Dr. Hill's remarks about De Quincey are perhaps unnecessarily one-sided, and are certainly as severe as the facts warrant. "The Opium Eater" had undoubtedly an imperfect sense of the ethics of guesthood; but, as Mr. James Hogg has recently shown, De Quincey was capable of a delicacy of feeling concerning human relations which commanded the love of even the old Carlyle, the very man who reported with satisfaction Southey's savage words branding De Quincey as a traitor to the Coleridge family. In passing we may further note a slight slip of the pen, by which, in transliterating Ruskin's letter (p. 21), Mr. Hill has written *own* for *old*.

Joseph Thomson, African Explorer: A Biography by Rev. J. B. Thomson. Maps and illustrations. London: S. Low, Marston & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896. Pp. xv, 358, 8vo.

Joseph Thomson ranks next to Livingstone and Stanley among African travellers, not merely because of the magnitude and importance of his explorations, or of his extraordinary capacity as a leader, but also because of his singularly wise treatment of the natives. He started on his first expedition with the conviction "that it was not necessary, even in Central Africa, to sacrifice the lives of men in order to throw light upon its dark corners." At the end of his sixth, he was able to say that he had travelled thousands of miles amid savages, justly hostile to whites, "without shedding a drop of human blood." His career began at an unusually early period. At twenty-one he found himself, by the death of Keith Johnston, the leader of an expedition to explore the then almost unknown African lakes. Though without experience in the world or of men, other than his native Scotch village and two or three terms at the University of Edinburgh could give him, he accomplished all the work planned by the Royal Geographical Society. His crowning exploit was the crossing of Masailand to the Victoria Nyanza in 1883, for which he received the Founder's gold medal of the Society. Other expeditions were made up the Rovuma River on the east coast, and among the Atlas Mountains in Morocco, while diplomatic missions carried him to Sokoto and Gandu in the southwestern Sudan, and to the region west of Lake Nyasa in the interest of the Royal Niger Company and that of Mr. Rhodes. In addition he made numerous addresses to societies, and wrote, besides articles for leading monthlies, accounts of three of his journeys, a Life of Mungo Park, and, in collaboration, an African novel. This was certainly an extraordinary amount of work to be compressed into the narrow compass of eleven years. It was too much, for Mr. Thomson's strength was exhausted by the hardships he had undergone, and he died August 2, 1895, at the age of thirty-seven.

His brother has well told the story of this full life, and Mr. J. G. Bartholomew has contributed six admirable maps to the volume as a "tribute to the geographical work of his friend."

The Story of Architecture: An Outline of Styles in All Countries. By Charles Thompson Mathews, M.A., Fellow of the American Institute of Architects. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

Of making many architectural books there seems nowadays to be no end. Half-a-dozen small general treatises on the long neglected subject have lately been published in the United States, three or four of them in 1896. The latest—we could afford to have it the last—Mr. Mathews's 'Story of Architecture,' takes in the whole field more broadly than most, essaying to treat the history consecutively, as its title claims, though the architecture of Cathay and America has not much to do with the story. This is done in a newspaper style, animated but rather slipshod, that may suit popular reading, but hardly justifies the existence of the book. There is an American readiness of apprehension and haste of execution in it, a sufficient knowledge of the main facts, a not very discriminating appetite for generalization, a narrow use of authorities, a loose chronology, and a good deal of inaccuracy in detail. The idea of the story is pretty well kept in the simpler parts of the history; but in the more complicated and critical parts, the accounts of the Romanesque and the Renaissance, the treatment is rather helpless. Here is an example of Mr. Mathews's success in generalizing: "These and other peculiarities [curvature of horizontal lines and inclination of verticals], by no means confined to the Parthenon, soon brought the Doric style great popularity throughout Italy, Sicily, Peloponnesus, and the Islands of the Ægean," etc. The hospitality of his selection is suggested by the fact that, of two and a half printed pages given to Greek Corinthian architecture, a page is used in developing the fable of Callicrates and his basket. These things may be efficacious in holding the attention of the persons who will read the book, but they do not help the story of architecture.

Impressions d'Egypte. Par Louis Malosse. Paris: A. Colin & Cie. 1896. 8vo, pp. 357.

The first part of this volume is a charmingly written description of the scenes which meet the eye of the tourist in Cairo and during a trip on the Nile. It abounds in felicitous expressions and pretty word-pictures, in which sky, river, desert, ruins, and the fellahin are harmoniously blended. Guide-book learning is conspicuously absent from it, nor is it the continuous narrative of a traveller. It is simply the recorded impressions of one who has been able to surrender himself completely to the subtle influences of the land, and whose perfect enjoyment is marred only by the swarms of vulgar tourists, pertinacious donkey-boys and backshish-seekers—upon whose persecutions he descants with humorous indignation—and the English soldier.

M. Malosse can never forget that it is England, and not France, which is the guardian of Egypt. In the second part of his book he enumerates at length the many evidences of the beneficent influence of his country upon the land in the supremacy of its language, in the constitution of the Government, in the results of the labors of French engineers and archæologists, in the numerous schools and colleges supported in part by French subsidies; above all, in the universal affection which she has inspired. At equal length he dwells upon the ill success of England, in her fourteen years of "tutelage," in winning even the confidence of the people. He in fact gives her full credit for but one thing, the increased efficiency of the army. Of the reforms of the courts, of the addition to the country's wealth through scientific irrigation, of the reduction of the burdens of the peasantry, with the exception of the abolition of the corvée, his readers are left in ignorance. M. Malosse is here simply the mouthpiece of the discontented pasha, and his book is a strong argument for the continuance of the English occupation. He says, for instance, "that if, for any reason, England should be led to evacuate the delta and the valley of the Nile to day, there would not remain, at the end of a period relatively very short, the slightest trace of her rule" (p. 287). That is, "on the departure of the last British soldier from Alexandria," the kurbash and the corvée would speedily be restored, the old courts where justice was sold reëstablished, the slave-trade revived, the new irrigation works abandoned, the annual surplus changed to an annual deficit, taxation increased by a third, the army rendered impotent, the fellah again made the prey of the pasha, and there would recommence the scandalous régime of another Ismail.

Outlines of Economic Theory. By Herbert Joseph Davenport. Macmillan. 1896.

It can hardly be claimed that the world stands now in pressing need of more economic text-books; unless, indeed, they are much to excel those with which we are at present furnished. The supply of treatises on economic subjects has of late greatly increased, and it would be as well to allow us to digest what we already have before enlarging the stock. The book before us may fairly be described as a respectable achievement; the author is well read, his grasp of economic principles is strong, and he understands the questions of the day. But we apprehend that his work may be found superfluous. Its merit is not so distinguished as to secure it a place in the crowded competition, and the "general reader" will be likely to give the preference to some such book as that which Prof. Hadley has lately published.

Nevertheless, a book of this description may meet certain requirements. It is apparently the outcome of class room work, and is fur-

nished with a copious list of questions, which are certainly calculated to stimulate reflection and research, if not to secure conclusive answers. If they may not bring out the truth, they will promote the search for truth, which, according to high authority, is even better. Another feature of interest is the quotation of passages of considerable length from leading economic writers at the end of each chapter. These passages are well selected, and constitute an agreeable reinforcement of the doctrines stated in the text.

The tone of the author is moderate and his attitude conservative. He is not attached blindly to the "orthodox" school, nor is he carried away by the learning of Germany. He is aware of the danger of present socialistic tendencies, but he does not ignore the existence of the evils that encourage socialism. Altogether, we are disposed to regard his book as wholesome in its influence, and while we cannot insist on its recognition, we shall at all events not begrudge its making a place for itself.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, C. D. Ex Libris: Essays of a Collector. Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $3.
A Peculiar Irishman. New York: *Truth-Seeker* Co. $1.
A Professional Lover. By "Gyp." F. T. Neely.
Armatage, George. The Dog: Its Varieties and Management in Health. F. Warne & Co. $1.
Armstrong, William. An American Nobleman. Rand, McNally & Co.
Bates, Katharine L. As You Like It. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Bender's Lawyer's Diary and Directory for the State of New York. 1897. Albany: Matthew Bender.
Benner's Prophecies, 1897. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.
Boisot, Louis. A Treatise on Mechanics' Liens. St Paul: West Publishing Co.
Booth, Charles. Life and Labor of the People in London. Vol. VIII. Population Classified by Trades (Continued). Macmillan.
Bowen, Prof. B. L. First Italian Readings. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Brandt, Prof. H. C. G., and Day, Prof. W. C. German Scientific Reading. Henry Holt & Co. 85c.
Brooke, S. A. English Literature. Macmillan. 90c.
Browne, Sir Thomas. Religio Medici, and Urn-Burial. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Burnham, Elcy. Modern Fairyland. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.50.
Burrows, Prof. Montagu. Collectanea. Third Series. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Carlyle, Thomas. An Essay on Robert Burns. American Book Co. 20c.
Castegnier, Georges. Handbook of Greek and Roman History. American Book Co. 50c.
Chapple, J. M. Boss Bart, Politician. F. T. Neely.
Clarke, Ednah P. An Opal. Verses. Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Daudet, Alphonse. Sappho. Parisian Manners. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Davidi, Henriette. Practical Cook Book. Milwaukee: C. N. Caspar.
Eminent Persons: Biographies Reprinted from the *Times*. Vol. V. 1891–1892. Macmillan. $1.25.
Faunce, Rev. D. W. Inspiration Considered as a Trend. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Faust, Prof. A. B. Charles Sealsfield, der Dichter beider Hemisphären: Sein Leben und seine Werke. Weimar: Emil Felber; New York: G. E. Stechert.
Fisher, S. G. Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth. Philadelphia: H. T. Coates & Co.
Foote, Rev. H. W. Annals of King's Chapel. Vol. II. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Fortier, Prof. Alcée. Molière's Les Femmes Savantes. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Gardner, Prof. Percy. Sculptured Tombs of Hellas. Macmillan. $8.
Goodwin, J. J. Sketches off the Griddle. New York: P. J. Meeban. 25c.
Gould, Dr. G. M., and Pyle, Dr. W. L. Anomalies and Curiosities of Medicine. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders. $6.
Gould, J. M. Kent's Commentaries. 4 vols. 14th ed. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Grandgeorge, L. Saint Augustin et le Néo-Platonisme. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Grant, Charles. Stories of Naples and the Camorra. Macmillan. $1.75.
Guerber, H. A. The Story of the Romans. American Book Co. 60c.
Hamilton, M. McLeod of the Camerons. Appletons. $1.
Harriman, Prof. E. A. Elements of the Law of Contracts. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Higginson, Ella. The Flower that Grew in the Sand. Seattle: Calvert Co.; New York: F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Howe, W. W. Studies in the Civil Law. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Irving, Washington. The Alhambra. Illustrated by Joseph Pennell. Macmillan. $12.50.
Joynes, Prof. E. S. George Sand's La Mare au Diable. Henry Holt & Co.
King, Capt. Charles. Wildenbruch's Noble Blood, and a West Point Parallel. F. T. Neely.
Ladd, P. B. Commentaries on Hebrew and Christian Mythology. New York: *Truth-Seeker* Co. $1.50.
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLIX. Robinson-Russell. Macmillan. $3.75.
Lester, L. V. A Memoir of Hugo Daniel Harper. Longmans, Green & Co.
Life and Letters of William Barton Rogers. Edited by his Wife. 2 vols. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $4.
Maspero, Prof. G. The Struggle of the Nations: Egypt, Syria and Assyria. Appletons. $7.50.
Maude, Capt. F. N. Cavalry vs. Infantry, and Other Essays. Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.
Merwin, H. C. Jurisdiction, Practice and Peculiar Jurisprudence of the Courts of the United States. 2d ed., revised and enlarged. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Middleton, George, and Mills, T. R. The Student's Companion to Latin Authors. Macmillan. $1.50.
M'Kechnie, W. S. The State and the Individual. Glasgow: Mac Lehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Mortimer, Rev. A. G. Catholic Faith and Practice. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Müntz, Eugène. Les Tapisseries de Raphaël au Vat'can et dans les Principaux Musées ou Collections de l'Europe. Paris: J. Rothschild.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Vol. III. Disobst-Distrustful. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60c.
Root's Military Topography and Sketching. 2d ed. Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.
Russan, Ashmore, and Boyle, Frederick. The Orchid Seekers: A Story of Adventure in Borneo. F. Warne & Co. $1.75.
Russell, Abby O. An English Paraphrase of Horace's Art of Poetry. W. R. Jenkins. 60c.
Russell, Bertrand. German Social Democracy. Six Lectures. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Sargent, C. S. Silva of North America. Vol X. Liliaceæ-Coniferæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Stowe, Mrs. H. B. Oldtown Folks, and Sam Lawson. 2 vols. We and Our Neighbors. My Wife and I. Pocanuc People, and Pink and White Tyranny. Stories for the Young. Religious Studies, Poems, etc. [Riverside Edition.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 7 vols. Each $1.50.
The Chicago *Record* Cook-Book. Chicago: The *Record*.
Upton, Prof. Winslow. Star Atlas. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.15
Warren, Professor F. M. Balzac's Le Curé de Tours, and Other Stories. Henry Holt & Co. 75c.
Willard, Mabel C. Lowell's Vision of Sir Launfal. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 35c.
Williams, F. B. On Many Seas: The Life and Exploits of a Yankee Sailor. Macmillan.
Wilson, H. S. History and Criticism: Studies. London: T. Fisher Unwin.
Wilson, Prof. Woodrow. George Washington. Harpers. $3.
Woodward, B. J. Racine's Iphigénie. American Book Co. 60c.
Wright, Prof. Joseph. The English Dialect Dictionary. Part II. Ballow-Blare. London: Frowde; New York: Putnams.
Wright, Rev. John. Early Prayer Books of America. St Paul, Minn.: The Author.
Wundt, Prof. Wilhelm. Outlines of Psychology. Leipzig: Engelmann; New York: G. E. Stechert. $1.75.
Young, E. R. Three Boys in the Wild North-land. Eaton & Mains. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 28, 1897.

The Week.

THE Senate's hesitant and sullen attitude towards the arbitration treaty has greatly roused the religious press. All the denominational papers last week had emphatic and pointed remarks to make on the subject. It is a peculiar opportunity for such journals to do a great public service, and they are not at all backward about it. The *Independent* has some special dispatches from men of light and leading in England, like Messrs. Bryce and Lecky, urging ratification. On its cover, the *Outlook* prints an appeal to every subscriber to write at once to his two Senators to demand prompt ratification. The *Christian Advocate* does the same on its first page, and makes no concealment of its contempt for the base motives operative at Washington to obstruct the treaty. These are but specimens of what the religious press is saying and doing to show that its professions of devotion to the good of humanity are not idle. Its appeals are most timely, and we cannot doubt that they will be highly effective.

In connection with these appeals and remonstrances addressed to the Senate a strange theory has been broached. It is that it will not do to be too urgent or pungent, for fear that the Senate will reject the treaty out of sheer resentment. The situation is represented as a very delicate one. The pros and cons are being counted up, and it appears that there is a large number of doubtful Senators whom it would be very easy to exasperate into opposing the treaty if the newspapers say anything about it above a whisper. So we must all be very gingerly and diplomatic and mealy-mouthed, and take good care never to enrage our pettish Senators by looking hard at them. How absurd all this is! Is there no such thing, then, as a standard of official duty separate from personal pique? If the Senate can reject a treaty because pressed to ratify it, the same thing might happen in the case of any measure coming before it. We should then be in the situation of being compelled to keep silent about every pending bill, on pain of seeing it defeated if anything were said. The conception of the Senate as sitting in a high Olympic serenity, which it is dangerous to disturb by any outside clamor, is ludicrous. Outside clamor is the only thing many of the Senators care a fig for. If we all keep still, they will vote down the treaty and say they had no idea anybody wanted it ratified. So far as their outraged personal dignity is concerned, that is already enlisted against the treaty. They make no concealment of their desire to defeat it in order to wreak vengeance on the President and Mr. Olney. Are these the lofty legislators whose sensibilities we must be so careful not to shock? How did we ever get the Sherman silver-purchase law repealed except by the country's practically taking the Senate by the throat? The idea that we must all sit by in deferential silence till the Senate acts on the treaty, is the surest way to defeat it. It is a time to speak out, and to speak out loud. The Senate will not dare to reject the treaty in the face of a pronounced public sentiment in its favor; and we must remember that a public sentiment without voice or pen or threat is practically non-existent.

That colossal fabric of fraud and folly, the Nicaragua Canal bill, fell in ruins on Friday and buried Senator Morgan underneath, leaving him gasping and stuttering: "England is at the bottom of it; I'll vote against your arbitration treaty anyhow." Really, Morgan himself is at the bottom of it, and how he will ever get out it is impossible to see. The cause of the catastrophe was a communication from Señor Rodriguez, the Minister of Nicaragua, or of the Central American Republic of which Nicaragua is a part, to Secretary Olney, who transmitted it to Mr. Sherman as chairman of the Senate committee on foreign relations. The latter, although a friend to the project for a Nicaragua Canal, thought that the American people whose money was involved in the pending measure were entitled to know the facts; so he caused the letter to be read at the clerk's desk. Now the supporters of the bill say that this is fresh proof that Sherman is losing his mind; that the communication was a confidential one, and ought not to have been made public. Why should it not be made public? The Nicaragua Canal bill was a public measure. The debate was not in executive session. The reports upon which the debate was proceeding had all been published. All the lying that had been done had been public lying. Why should not the truth be made equally public? Señor Rodriguez, on the other hand, denies that his communication was intended to be confidential, or that he has any feeling of surprise or displeasure at its publication. On the contrary, he says he assumed that it would be transmitted to Congress, and would be made public in one way or another.

Señor Rodriguez's letter presents three main objections to the enactment of the bill by the Congress of the United States. These are (1) that the canal company has no rights in Nicaragua except such as are derived from a contract with the Government of that country dated April 24, 1887, which has already expired; (2) that the contract provided that the control of the canal should not be transferred to any government, whereas the pending bill provides for its transfer to the Government of the United States without the consent of or any consultation with Nicaragua; (3) that the contract requires the delivery to Nicaragua of 6 per cent. of all the securities issued or to be issued for the construction of the canal, which provision was wholly ignored in the pending bill. There were some minor objections to the bill which need not be recounted. The contract, Señor Rodriguez says, was forfeited both by failure to make the final surveys for the location of the line of the canal in the manner provided therein, and by failure to complete a specified amount of work within a certain time. In regard to the final surveys and location of the line, he says that whereas the contract provided that two of the engineers should be appointed by the Government of Nicaragua, the pending bill provides that they shall all be appointed by the President of the United States. "This provision," says Señor Rodriguez, "likewise conduces to the forfeiture of the contract." In other words, the pending bill ignores Nicaragua completely, and disposes of her land, her franchises, and her money as though she were one of our Territories like Arizona or Oklahoma.

This is wonderful, but still more so is the fact, commented on with biting severity by Senator Vilas, that Senator Turpie had pointed out all these defects, inconsistencies, and incapacities in a speech which had occupied parts of three days in the Senate, but had been delivered for the most part to empty benches. Mr. Vilas expressed the opinion that it had been the intention of a majority of the Senate to go ahead and pass this bill binding the United States to guarantee $100,000,000 of the bonds of a company that had no legal existence, no right to build a canal in Nicaragua or anywhere else in the world. Although a member of the Senate had taken the pains to point out these disabilities in convincing terms, the majority had declined even to remain in the Senate while he was speaking. And yet some persons, like Mr. Hoar, are very touchy when any newspaper or educational institution hints that the Senate is not attentive to its duties and that it has seen better days. Mr. Frye seems to be equally nervous. We strongly suspect that both of them intended to "go it blind" on the Nicaragua Canal bill, and would have done so but for the timely coming of Señor Rodriguez's letter.

Senator Turpie's remarkably good speech against the Nicaragua Canal bill causes us to regret that he lost his balance last week and caused several other Senators to lose theirs. Mr. Turpie had seen something in a Washington newspaper which implied that Secretary Olney and Senator Sherman (who is supposed to have been designated as Olney's successor) had come to an understanding that there should be no action by Congress on Cuban affairs at this session, so that the new Administration should have a free hand in dealing with it. He thought that this proceeding called for a protest on the part of Congress, etc., etc. Senator Sherman assured him that the printed story was false from the beginning, and here the incident might properly have terminated, but it appears that several Senators were loaded on this or cognate subjects, and they "went off" in rapid succession. Senator Hoar had received a communication from some educational institution insisting on prompt ratification of the arbitration treaty. Such doings on the part of college professors, clergymen, and other meddlers he considered ill-judged and in bad taste. In this view he was supported by his colleague, Mr. Lodge, and several other Senators. Senator Gray, on the other hand, thought that it was a good and wholesome sign to find the people interested in the work of the Senate. He was disposed to welcome that sort of "interference." He thought we did not have any too much of it, and he ended by asking Mr. Hoar what he proposed to do about it. "We can at least let the authors of this sort of premature agitation know that they are making a great mistake," replied Mr. Hoar. Now we do not believe that the authors of this agitation will ever agree with Mr. Hoar in considering it premature, however severely he may remind them that it is. That the Senate, which is a part of the treaty-making power, should take due time to deliberate upon this treaty, is not to be gainsaid, nor do we think that an unreasonable time has been occupied with it in the committee on foreign relations. Nevertheless, the spurring that it has received is, as Mr. Gray said, a sign of healthful public interest in an important public matter. So far from causing irritation on the part of the Senators, it ought to be received by them with joy and gladness.

There is much rejoicing among Northern Republicans over the reëlection of Senator Pritchard of North Carolina, but no sound-money man can view it with satisfaction. He owes his success entirely to his virtual acceptance of the Populist creed, having secured the support of enough Populist legislators to give him a majority by promising to vote for free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1. The only reservation which he makes is, that he will not insist upon a free-coinage rider to a tariff bill. If the elections in other States result as is expected, the Republicans will have with Pritchard 45 votes out of 90 in the next Senate, counting Teller and other former Republicans except the two Nevada Senators on that side; 46 if the Kentucky Legislature shall finally choose a Republican, and 47 if the Senate shall reopen the old controversy over the vacant seat from Delaware and seat Du Pont, whose claims were rejected a year ago.

The general impression among intelligent persons to-day is, that there is not much use in further argument with the persons in power in this State; that they are governed by a class of considerations which cannot be publicly revealed or publicly discussed, so that the work of any critic of public affairs, as far as regards them, has, for practical purposes, ended. The main work of a journalist with regard to them now is simple description of what they are doing and what they say. We find among the great multitude of despondent people only one source of comfort, and that is that the worst has come, and that, if American affairs follow their usual course, we must now be on the eve of improvement. We have apparently reached bottom, and any change hereafter must be for the better. With a Governor like Black, a common Troy politician, denouncing the "civil service" for having too much "starch," and assigning a notorious rogue to the place in the State service which affords largest opportunity for bribery and blackmail, for the simple reason that he secured his (Black's) nomination for the governorship, with a Senate confirming the appointment, through simple unwillingness to "antagonize" the Governor in his first year, and with a United States Senator elected for his skill in distributing blackmail, we shall clearly have reached the lowest point in the degradation of the State. These men can do nothing more without bringing on the interference of the courts, which, thank God, are still pure and upright. What they would doubtless do next, and what they logically ought to do next, if they had the power, would be to muzzle the press and close the churches and schools. But they must stop where they are until we get a chance at them at the polls.

We must all hope heartily that President Low's prophecies as to the excellence of the New York charter, uttered at the Princeton dinner, will be fulfilled. We could not refute a prophet if we tried, and we are all, both makers and critics of the charter, in favor of good government. But on one point we must "carp" at him a little. He testifies to the "faithfulness" and "singlemindedness" of the members of the draft committee, "without a single exception," evidently intending thereby to put Gilroy on the same level with himself and the others. But Gilroy's "faithfulness" and "singlemindedness" in the work of the committee do not meet the objections we made to his presence in that body. Gilroy only two years ago proved himself the most unfaithful Mayor New York has ever had. His appointees were so shocking that they had to be legislated summarily out of office on account of their badness. No such stigma that we can recall, in municipal history, was ever inflicted on a Mayor. He may have been "faithful" in drafting the provision for the Board of Improvements, but he appointed the worst Commissioner of Public Works we have ever had, in the person of a drunken and uneducated furnace-man. Nothing like this has ever happened in New York. He may be a good adviser on financial questions, but he is living in luxury without occupation, having supported a family of at least ten children on a small salary, but after making extensive asphalt contracts through Mike Daly.

President Low's chapter on "Municipal Government," in Bryce's 'American Commonwealth,' is so completely at variance with the position now held by him on the municipal-assembly provisions of the new charter, that we think he owes it to the public to make some explanation of his change of view. He took in this chapter precisely the position which we hold upon the proposal of the charter for a two-chambered assembly, namely, that experience has demonstrated the uselessness of hoping for good results from such bodies. He said that "whether these bodies have been composed of one house or two, the moment a city has become large they have ceased to give satisfactory results," and that "as a rule they have so far abused the large powers given them, in order to carry out to the utmost the idea of local self-government, that almost everywhere the scope of their authority has been greatly restricted." In regard to New York city, he said that every important function had been taken away except that of granting franchises; and if he had been writing a few years later he would have said that this also was restricted because of the scandalous abuses which its possession engendered. What are the considerations which have convinced Mr. Low that better results can be looked for now than at the time at which he wrote, which was only six or seven years ago? Why does he think now that it is desirable to disregard the results of experience? He must have reasons for his change of faith, and as there are thousands of people in the community who look with confidence, and properly so, to him as a leader in matters of this kind, he owes it to them to make these reasons public.

The following words, which stand at the head of the act of last year under

which the Charter Commission is doing its work, are worth considering at this time: "Passed without the acceptance of the cities of New York and Brooklyn." What this sentence records has perhaps been forgotten by many of our citizens. The act creating the commission and decreeing consolidation was submitted, as the Constitution requires, to the mayors of the two chief cities affected, and, after public hearings upon it, was returned to Albany by them with their disapproval. It was then "jammed through" the Legislature a second time, as it had been a first time, under the lash of Boss Platt. The commission has consequently been doing its work against the wish of the two cities most concerned, as expressed through their official representatives. This fact of itself is a sufficient reason why the charter, when completed, should be submitted to the people of the territory affected for ratification or rejection. The people of the two cities most concerned should especially be given this privilege, since, so far as they have been able to express their will thus far, they have expressed it against the work of the commission. To force them to accept the findings of a commission whose appointment they officially disapproved, without an opportunity to say whether they like it or not, is certainly not democratic government, whatever else it may be.

The vote by which consolidation was decreed was far from being a conclusive demonstration that the people of the territory concerned were in favor of it. The total vote in this city was only 166,505, and the majority in favor less than 37,500. Only about three-fifths of the people voting in the election expressed themselves at all on the subject. In Brooklyn the verdict was much less conclusive, for the majority in favor of consolidation in that city was only 277 votes in a total of 129,466. Nobody can deny that, at the time this vote was taken, very few people in this city had thought seriously about the subject. They certainly had not thought at all about the form which consolidation would take, or about the details of the new government which would have to be formulated. It is absurd to say, in view of these facts, that they must accept, at the hands of a boss-controlled Legislature, which has disregarded their expressed wishes in the matter, any form of government which the boss may choose to give them. If they were entitled to a voice on the question of consolidation, they are entitled also to a voice on the question of the government under which they are to live after consolidation has been effected—all the more so because that government has been formulated by a method of which they have expressly disapproved.

The *Times* publishes an interview with Mr. Haas, President of the Sloss Iron and Steel Company of Alabama, touching the proposed revision of the tariff. "Alabama iron needs no duty at all," says Mr. Haas. "It is underselling English iron in the latter's own country, and is laid down in New York, freight paid, at the price asked for English iron, plus the duty, at the English furnaces, and much cheaper than English iron with the freight added. If the Sloss Company takes any action at all, it will be to ask for a reduction or total abolition of the duty on iron." It is evident that Mr. Haas has been bought with British gold; that is, with the gold that the Britishers are paying him for his iron—in monthly instalments, no doubt. How else can we account for the fact that he is willing to consent to an entire abolition of the duty on iron? Is he not up to the trick of selling his iron to foreigners at lower rates than to Americans? If not, he can learn something to his advantage by joining the steel-rail combine.

The report of the Spanish Minister for the Colonies accompanying the decree granting administrative reforms to Porto Rico makes incidental acknowledgment of the extent and strength of the Cuban insurrection. In this respect it goes farther than any official Spanish utterance which we can recall. It admits that the rebellion was "from the first vigorous and menacing," and now, after nearly two years of tremendous exertions by the Spanish Government, all that is predicted is the pacification ere long of "the most populous parts of the island." The reforms extended to Porto Rico are in the form of decrees changing the organic law so as to give greater local control, both administrative and financial. Detailed regulations are to follow. The whole is frankly acknowledged to be but a qualified home rule. Not only is Spain's supremacy to be guarded, but, practically, her right to interfere and dictate wherever she pleases. The elastic phrase of the Queen's speech is, "provided always that the rights of sovereignty are maintained intact, along with the *conditions necessary* to continue them in force." Home rule such as Canada enjoys has never been contemplated. The greater measure of self-government conceded to Porto Rico will be extended to Cuba as soon as the insurrection is stamped out—perhaps before. There seems no likelihood, however, that the Cubans will now be satisfied with anything of the kind.

Russia's preparations to adopt the gold standard are described in the last budget report of the Minister of Finance. He refers to the conflicting rumors set afloat about serious changes in the plan, if not its temporary abandonment, but affirms that the main purpose—to fix the price of paper in gold—cannot be changed. M. Witte admits that some features of the plan are undergoing revision by the Council of State; but the chief thing is to accustom the Russian commercial public to the gold standard. This has been accomplished, in part, by the gradual assumption by the State Bank of the duty of cashing paper money in gold on demand, at the rate of 1 ruble gold to 1½ in paper. While the total note circulation amounts to 1,121,300,000 rubles, the Treasury's stock of gold now stands at 804,000,000 rubles, of which an amount equal to 70 per cent. of the paper currency is designated for its redemption. The Minister's description of the financial condition of Russia is rose-colored; the receipts, according to him, having risen far beyond the estimates, with everything promising in the future. Some of his statements are rather sharply challenged by the London *Economist*, though it admits that the success of the Siberian railway and the surprising agricultural and industrial developments along its line almost justify the Minister's extravagant prophecies.

There is a "Plate-Glass Bevellers' Trade Union" in London which recently brought on a strike against Messrs. Bailey, glass-silverers and bevellers. The strikers forthwith proceeded to "picket" the Messrs. Bailey's premises. About forty or fifty men surrounded the house, trying to get the remaining workmen away, intimidating and assaulting the new arrivals, following Bailey's brougham with hooting and yells, and marching past with banners. All this, according to Judge Wendell Holmes, they had a right to do if their motives were good—that is, if they intended, not to annoy the Baileys, but to improve their own condition; a Jesuitical distinction over which Pascal makes very merry in the Provincial Letters. All strikes of this kind are based on the assumption that men in Bailey's employment have a moral right to stay in it as long as they please on their own conditions, no matter whether Bailey wants them or not—a doctrine which lights up "Christian socialism" with a ray of humor. If it were applied to any other relation in life except that of employer and workman, it would fill the land with laughter. But the Baileys brought an action against the secretary, assistant secretary, the treasurer, and members of the executive council of the union, before a special jury in the Queen's Bench division. After the plaintiffs' evidence had been heard the union gave in, and acknowledged their fault, and asked the jury to assess the damages, which the jury did, and made them at $3,370, but the Messrs. Bailey said they never expected to get a cent of it. However, they got a perpetual injunction against the strikers, so that if these annoy the Baileys any more, they will be locked up.

FOR SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

We have not exerted ourselves overmuch in helping Major McKinley to form a cabinet, nor do we intend to begin now; but we shall briefly indicate some of the qualifications needed in the Treasury Department, in the absence of which there will almost certainly be trouble, both financial and political. A glance at the situation of the Treasury will show what is required of a Secretary, and how necessary it is for the success of the Administration that he should possess both financial training and decision of character. The first fact that confronts us is the deficit. Receipts are not equal to expenses. Worse still, Congress is incapable of either adding to the receipts or lessening the expenses. This is the most depressing fact in the situation. There is a large sum in currency in the Treasury, the proceeds of bond sales, which Congress seems determined to spend on public-building jobs, or river-and-harbor jobs, or Nicaragua Canal jobs, or in other ways, while doing nothing to choke the deficit, although the trouble might be cured by a bill not larger than one page, either by a few additions to the internal taxes or to the *revenue* items of the tariff. The reasons why this is not done are very plain, but we will not consider them now.

The fact that profligacy, deficit, and imbecility are running together is what confronts us. This is the first fact that the new Secretary has to grapple with. How shall he do it? Senator Sherman said at the last session that he ought to refuse to pay out more money than he takes in, no matter what the consequences might be. This policy implies that the Secretary shall select among the appropriations of Congress the ones to be paid and allow the others to pile up behind him. This is what Secretary Foster did in the last year of the Harrison Administration. The deficit, as everybody knows, was produced by the McKinley tariff. Its declared purpose was to "reduce the revenue," and it accomplished its aim and rather more. The borrowing policy enabled Secretary Carlisle to pay up the accumulated bills of his predecessor and to meet the extravagance of Congress. The time has come now to stop this spendthrift career. We need a Secretary who will give public notice that he will pay no bills in excess of his income. It is not at all certain that the forthcoming tariff bill will choke the deficit. So far as we are able to judge, public revenue is not the main thing to be considered in that measure. It is still uncertain whether the measure itself can pass the Senate in the shape that it comes from the House. Even if it does pass, the amount of revenue derivable from it will be an uncertain quantity for a year or more. For these reasons the new Secretary must be a man of resolution—one who will take a position regarding the balance between income and outgo, and maintain it at all hazards.

This is all the more necessary since the maintenance of gold payments depends upon it. If the recent election decided anything it decided that the gold standard should be maintained. It cannot be permanently maintained by borrowing. Everybody recognizes this fact. The reason why the Bryanites are so madly opposed to borrowing is that it enables the Government to maintain the gold standard. An end must come to borrowing, however. Public opinion has sanctioned it as an emergency measure, not as a permanent resource. The new Secretary must be a man versed in financial science and skilled in the art of presenting it to Congress and the public. The greatest problem that confronts the new Administration is that of settling the money question so that the Treasury shall get back to its original and proper function of collecting and disbursing the public revenues, and shall abandon the attempt to do a quasi-banking business in addition, which it took up in the stress of war. To get back to safe moorings, so that the business community shall not be in a constant tremble about the standard of value, is a matter of extreme delicacy. The Secretary of the Treasury ought to be a man who can speak with authority on questions of this class. He should be a man on whom Congress would lean for information and guidance as to doubtful points in banking science.

Such a man is Mr. Lyman J. Gage of Chicago, who does not seek the office, but, it is gratifying to observe, would not refuse it if it were tendered him, as seems possible. The choice of him would be interpreted to promise an earnest and intelligent effort on the part of the new Administration to carry out the purposes which the people had in view when they gave their votes to the nominees of the St. Louis convention. It is safe to say that Mr. Gage is a believer in the gold standard without any ifs or buts. He is not for bimetallism, national or international. He is a believer in a banking system regulated by, but otherwise independent of, the Government. We judge that he is in accord with the financial policy marked out by the Indianapolis conference. We draw this inference from the fact that this platform is supported by the group of business men in Chicago with whom Mr. Gage has always been associated. We believe that it was the intention of the promoters of the Indianapolis conference to ask Mr. Gage to serve on the proposed commission to prepare a plan of currency reform, not because he favors any particular plan, but rather because he is not committed to any particular plan. It is needless to say that, in the higher position to which he seems likely to be called, he will have the cordial support of the men composing that conference and of the commercial bodies which they represented. This means a great deal. It means that the business interests of the country will be united in support of the new Administration at the beginning of its term. Whether this support will last will depend on what is to happen later, but with Mr. Gage at the head of the Treasury there can be no doubt that the Administration will start under the best auspices.

We think, too, that Mr. McKinley will find in Mr. Gage the stanchest supporter of what the Governor of New York calls "civil service." In the efforts made with such success in Chicago to promote the merit system of filling public offices, Mr. Gage has always been a zealous worker, as in all other public-spirited enterprises. In short, he represents a high type of American citizenship, of the kind which neither seeks office nor avoids it. We presume that he would prefer not to be Secretary of the Treasury or anything else than what he is now, but that he does not feel at liberty to decline the position if his friends think that he can be useful to his country. It is a fact, too, that by taking the office he will make a heavy pecuniary sacrifice.

If the national finances were not in a critical state, it would be idle to expect that such a man as Mr. Gage would be called to the chair of the Treasury. If it were all plain sailing, some politician would probably be chosen, somebody skilled in manipulating conventions, getting votes at primaries, and distributing offices. Mr. Gage has no fitness for those employments, but, on the contrary, the greatest possible aversion to them. His selection for the place, if he be selected, will be a tacit acknowledgment by the President-elect and his party that there is something wrong with the finances, and that unless it is righted during McKinley's term there will be disaster at the end of it. Still, we must not expect too much. All that any Secretary can do is to recommend wise policies to Congress. He will have influence—indeed, his position as well as his personal reputation will give him that; but he cannot do everything. He will not have a bed of roses.

THE DECLINE OF CONGRESS.

Senator Cabot Lodge has been writing in the *Herald* a protest against the prevailing notion that the oratory and legislation of Congress have fallen off. He says:

"It is habitual in the newspapers and in conversation to sneer at the debates in Congress, as it is at everything connected with that body, and to speak of it always, as Mr. Maclay did of the first Senate in our history, and as succeeding Maclays have spoken of every Senate and House, as degenerate. Yet I have noticed a general willingness on the part of American citizens to accept a seat in either branch of Congress, and even a disposition to struggle for a place in this degenerate assembly. The truth is, that if any one will take the trouble to follow the debates—a privilege which the general public does not

now enjoy—he will find that, while there is unquestionably a certain amount of ignorance and cheap talk and empty declamation inseparable from any popular representative assembly, the discussion on the whole is carried on vigorously and effectively, and with a great deal of special information on the many and varied subjects which come before both the Senate and the House."

This suggests very strongly the remark that it is nearly as ridiculous for a member of Congress to go about maintaining, against the general opinion, that the body to which he belongs stands as high as ever, as it would be for an individual to go about maintaining that he was a far greater man than people thought he was. In the matter of reputation, the maxim, *securus judicat orbis terrarum*, is, as a rule, as correct as ever, with regard both to public and private men. Men or assemblies are almost without exception what the world, after long years of observation, considers them. The efforts of a man to dispute the prevailing opinion about his own merits either as orator, statesman, or legislator, are generally extremely ludicrous, and end in consigning him to lower depths than he could reach in any other way.

The reputation of Congress is not based on its oratory, because the public does not hear it. It is based on its conduct as a legislature; and the popular opinion about its oratory is a deduction from its statesmanship. People conclude, perhaps too hastily, that a man who acts like a fool cannot make a good speech. Mr. Lodge's conclusion, that Congress cannot be so bad because so many people want to get into it, is a fair specimen of the reasoning which has brought the Senate into disrepute. It reminds us of Horace Greeley's opposition to the increase of the salaries of the judges, on the ground that plenty of judges could be got for half the amount. It would not be possible for Congress to sink so low that thousands would not seek seats in it, as long as the salary of Congressman was $5,000 a year. The idea that the place is sought on account of the high reputation of the body approaches perilously near a joke. Besides this, everybody knows how Congressmen are selected. The fact that McClellan and Quigg sit for New York is full of instruction. It throws more light on the character of Congress than any number of illustrated articles.

Among the things which of recent years have brought the Senate into disrepute are, not bad oratory, but silly and corrupt legislation, such as the purchase of $4,000,000 of silver a month for simple storage in order to help the silver-miners; obstinate resistance for months to the repeal of this act, in defiance of the pronounced opinion of the country, and indifference to the effect on business; the introduction of a resolution by a prominent Senator (Mr. Lodge himself) proposing to put a discriminating duty on the goods of a friendly nation in order to force it to change its standard of value; and the instantaneous "standing behind Cleveland" in the Venezuela affair. This deserves more than a passing mention, because the Constitution put the power of declaring war into the hands of Congress in order to secure deliberation. Although Mr. Cleveland's message declared his intention to draw a frontier line for a friendly nation against its will, and to defend such line by force, and although it was considered a hostile message the world over, Congress, which knew nothing of the merits of the dispute, instantly voted him the money to carry it out, without any inquiry or deliberation. This was done, too, in spite of the often declared dislike and distrust of the President and his Administration by the majority. People naturally contrast with this the slow and unfriendly consideration bestowed on Mr. Cleveland's recent message of peace in the shape of the arbitration treaty. Months for peace, ten minutes for war, although the function of a legislature is not to fight, but discuss.

Another cause, and not the least of the causes of the popular contempt for Congress, is its inability to perform one of the primary duties of a modern government, namely, to regulate the finances and protect the credit of the country. Eighteen years have elapsed since the restoration of specie payments, which was only one step towards the curing of the financial disorder caused by the war; the others were the redemption of the remaining Government obligations, and the permanent release of the Government from the duty of maintaining a reserve for commercial purposes. In that interval Congress has shown itself totally unable to formulate any financial policy and pursue it. No man has arisen to a position of commanding influence in it on financial questions, and the talk of most on such questions has amused mankind and inspired distrust among investors. The time which was due to financial reform was passed in buying bar silver and treating the metal as a living entity. Another one of the leading functions of government is the protection of credit, that marvellous force which has come into existence almost in our own day, and is now the chief source of national prosperity. It is the principal care of every civilized state to-day, and probably the principal cause of the inactivity of the enormous modern armaments. Our Congress has for years displayed nearly as much indifference to it as Turkey, and has not hesitated to discuss and pass resolutions threatening interference in foreign affairs, which disordered the business enterprises and expectations of the whole country, and which no intelligent man expected to lead to any result. The author of the last of these has acted so suspiciously, by flight from the debate which he invited, as to spread the belief that he introduced it as a stock-jobbing transaction.

Most of these observations apply to the Senate only. We need hardly say more of the House than that seven years ago its presiding officer declared, with thanks to God, "that it was not a deliberative body," in order to secure the passage of a bill which many, including Senator Lodge, defended on the stump because it was likely to produce dearness of commodities, and which ended in producing out of doors the overwhelming defeat of the party. If the House be not a deliberative body, what is it? All popular assemblies which are not meant to deliberate, and are not organized for military purposes, under defined command, are necessarily mobs, and the day is distant, we trust, when civilized men will respect mobs. We have here recalled only a small portion of the things which have exposed Congress to popular contempt, and the remedy is not to write articles saying it is wise and eloquent, but to *be* wise and eloquent. Its career for the last ten years has caused great national despondency and distrust, which cannot be removed by self-praise.

A SOCIALIST EXPERIMENT.

On the 1st of August in the year 1895, a great strike broke out in the Ste.-Clotilde glassworks at Carmaux, in France. This was occasioned by the discharge of a workman, named Baudot, who had been absent from the shop without permission for a fortnight in order to take part in the Socialist Congress at Marseilles, to which he had been sent as a delegate. His fellow-workmen sympathized with Baudot and made common cause with him, and as another delegate, Pelletier by name, of Bousquet-d'Orb, had also been discharged for the same reason, the workmen of this second shop followed the example of Carmaux, and the strike became general. The whole Socialist party took up arms in behalf of the workmen, and many of its leaders installed themselves at Carmaux in order to direct the strike. They were opposed by M. Rességuier, the manager of the Ste.-Clotilde works, an able and resolute man, who put all his energy into the fight.

The usual incidents of a strike followed: assaults and violence of all kinds, general turmoil, and the destruction of business; and anarchy reigned for several weeks. At last, on the 1st of October, the management determined to light a single furnace. To this end it had recruited a new body of workmen at Bordeaux and at Rive-de-Gier, some of them being drawn from an independent half-Socialist workshop at the last-named place. After this, men, some of them from Carmaux itself, offered themselves for work in such numbers that a fortnight later a second furnace was lighted, and on the 11th of November a third, manned exclusively by Carmausins. The strike, in fact, was broken and defeated.

At this point, on the intervention of M. Jaurès, the Minister of the Interior (who

at that time was M. Bourgeois), sent down to Carmaux the director of the Sûreté Générale, M. Poirson, to ask the management of the Ste. Clotilde works to take back all the strikers and give them employment together with the new workmen, reducing, if necessary, the number of hours of labor or the number of days' work in the week. The management refused. M. Jaurès thereupon declared that "the glassworkers of Carmaux would go back to the shop only when they had founded a *Verrerie ouvrière* which should be an asylum for their militant brethren, and when the public power should have taken such measures as were necessary to assure syndical liberties." A bill to meet the latter purpose was, in fact, introduced into the Chamber of Deputies by the Socialist group. In the meantime the fourth and last furnace of the Ste.-Clotilde works was lighted. All the strikers came back and asked for work. The management made its choice. Three hundred and twenty persons were left unemployed, victims of a strike essentially political. In order to give work to these 320 persons the Socialist party determined to create a *Verrerie ouvrière.*

The first step was, of course, to get together the necessary capital. This proved to be a not very difficult task, and was accomplished mainly through the energy and activity of M. Henri Rochefort, though not much of the money came from his own well-filled pocket. A certain Mme. Dembourg subscribed 100,000 francs, 205,000 francs were brought in by subscription tickets at a franc apiece, other considerable sums were granted by workingmen's societies, so that on the 26th of last October, when the *Verrerie ouvrière* was inaugurated, its direction had 415,000 francs either in hand or in the plant. There had been a good deal of discussion as to the place where the new works should be begun. Carmaux had suffered greatly from the strike, and naturally was anxious to reap whatever benefit might accrue from the new venture. But another town near by, only sixteen kilometres off, had been almost destroyed by the great strike of 1882, in which the town had lost through emigration some 8,000 of its inhabitants. One whole quarter of Albi had become as desolate as a graveyard, and land there had almost lost its value. What influence this had on the location of the new *verrerie* we do not know, but the foundation was made at Albi and not at Carmaux.

Another preliminary question that caused some trouble and much debate among the chiefs of the party, was the determination of the end to which the profits of the new shop should be devoted. It was thought dangerous to divide them among the workmen, and so expose them to the temptation of becoming capitalists themselves. This question was finally settled by agreeing to turn in all such profits to the treasury of the Socialist propaganda. At last the works were formally opened with much oratory on the part of the eloquent M. Jaurès and his associates. It is said that no glass was made on this occasion, but a good fire was built in the furnace, and the chimney smoked. The glass-making part of the works, in fact, is hardly yet in full running order, and many of the glass-workers have been and are still engaged in the construction of the buildings. Perhaps no glass-working would have been done yet if an order had not been received from an important house in the east of France for 200,000 bottles; for, after all, the money which the syndicate had in hand was not enough to justify them in lighting their furnaces. With this order as security they were able to borrow 100,000 francs from the enemy, as it were—that is to say, from a great Paris bank—and this is their working capital. This step must have been painful, but it was necessary, and yet it was only a beginning of troubles.

The Albi of Socialist dreams was to be a paradise. The yoke of the tyranny of the patron was to be shaken off, workmen were to lead there a quiet, peaceful life, of perfect freedom, with but faint memories of their troubled past. No abuse of power would occur there, no painful restrictive rules, no fines, no sudden discharges. The régime of the Rességuiers was passed away and done with for all time. The facts unhappily correspond but faintly to the dream. The workmen at Albi found from the beginning in full force a directive authority far more rigorous than the old patron was, a table of rules more Draconian than any they had ever known. Even the sacred right of grumbling was taken away from them. Far from being allowed, as before, to curse the patron, or insult him, or even call him a blood-sucker, they are now forbidden to indulge in any injurious criticism upon the directory, under pain of suspension or dismission. Four workmen have just been sent away for this reason, and that is not the only constraint to which the workmen have to submit. The internal regulation of the shop is very severe, and its discipline is very strict. In the old days they protested against fines and were constantly demanding that these should be abolished; now they have to pay, and pay dear, for the slightest tardiness or absence. They find, to their surprise, that the little finger of their present masters is heavier than the whole hand of the masters against whom they rose.

These are the first results of the Socialist experiment at Albi. What does the story teach? Nothing but an old lesson, drawn from long human experience, easy to be seen and read of all men, and yet, it would seem, very hard to learn. This is far from being the first time in the world's history that the tyranny of the Lords Brethren has proved less tolerable than the tyranny of the Lords Bishops.

DIVERSIONS OF FEELING IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

DUBLIN, January 10, 1897.

IT would be difficult to recall in political movements such another fiasco as that which has, since the autumn of 1890, befallen the British Liberal and Irish Home Rule parties—then triumphantly and enthusiastically marching together, under able leaders, apparently to a large majority and assured victory at the next election; now leaderless, dispirited and disorganized, with a majority of 150 against them securely seated for several years to come.

There must be causes for this apart from the fall of Mr. Parnell and the retirement of Mr. Gladstone. It has been due mainly, as far as Great Britain is concerned, to the unexpected development of sentiments that we must now recognize in the average British elector—the love of domination, the disinclination to relinquish in any degree his assumed right to interfere in the affairs of others, the desire to obtain and retain power at home and abroad wherever he believes that power will forward his interests and give greater scope for the exercise of British abilities. In Ireland it has been due mainly, among Protestants, to their fear of Catholic domination; among the ascendancy classes, to their desire to retain ascendancy; and, through religious and class sympathies, both have succeeded in permeating the British electorate with their opinions. Under the calm brought about by recent land legislation and the hopes of home rule, the Home-Rulers could no longer appeal to the sympathies of the same electorate by citing cases of cruel imprisonments and arbitrary evictions; and Ulster came with full effect to wave the bloody shirt concerning the "mightbes" under home rule. These, much more than Irish divisions, had most to do with breaking up the Liberal party. Irish divisions may fatally affect the progress of events in the future, but they furnished no real ground for the change. However otherwise separated, Irish Nationalists are united regarding main issues, and their divisions answer a prominent objection of the Protestant minority, that an unbreakable, overwhelming majority would always oppose them in an Irish parliament.

There are, however, other tendencies less apparent, that have strengthened what may be termed reactionary imperial feeling. Formerly those directly interested in government were drawn from a comparatively small class in the country. The civil and military services are now practically thrown open to all through open competition. There is scarcely a school without a boy or girl hoping to pass some examination and obtain Government employ. With the extension of the franchise and the spread and acceptance of trades-unions a new element has entered into politics—"labor." That far-reaching parliamentary resolution regarding all public work being executed at trades-union rates has subjected every imperial and local institution in the three kingdoms to the constant supervision of the labor party. It has become the direct interest of vast federations of workers that as much public money as possible should be spent, and it is only recently that they have realized the extent to which political power may advance their interests. We cannot affirm what the ultimate effect of these influences on old party lines may be. Here in Dublin the United Trades, formerly a Nationalist body, lately supported the candidacy of a Conservative Lord Mayor because it would

deprive a Home-Ruler of a second term, and involve the expenditure of some two thousand pounds in new liveries and carriages. The removal of bodies of troops, the shutting up of barracks in Irish towns, is now often objected to in Parliament by Home Rule members because of the loss of custom to their constituents. Extensive new barracks have lately been added to the ring of ten military posts encompassing Dublin. A National M.P. of the old type proposed to oppose the expenditure as unnecessary, and as illustrative of the stringency by which Ireland was being governed. He was warned on no account to oppose the interests of the trades in the expenditure, "with whom, before everything else, the principle of *airgead sios** weighs."

Every extension of imperial power, every increase of wealth, all centralization, tends to increase the size and importance of London. Including the county in which it stands, it already monopolizes one tenth of the parliamentary representation—as much as is enjoyed by Scotland. This large number, exercising an immediately environing influence, will be found increasingly an obstacle to wise decentralization. (Your capital, Washington, I believe, sends no representative to Congress.) A retrograde influence has been the number of civil and military servants returning on pension after comparatively short terms of service in India, saturated with contempt of popular principles of government. It is but of late years that the opening of the Indian service to free competition has begun to tell upon all classes of the community. Rapid communication and scientific weapons have made aggrandizement and the occupation of new territory increasingly easy, and the illustrated papers vividly bring home to the masses the glories and the progress of their empire. It is more difficult than formerly to reach the nation's heart and conscience on moral themes or questions of abstract justice. Under a franchise restricted to the middle classes, they alone had to be convinced. I feel satisfied, as I have before suggested in these columns, that it would be now more difficult than it was at the time to accomplish reforms such as negro emancipation and free trade. Added to all this, education and civilization have made such rapid advances, and free trade has brought such increased comfort to the masses of British workers, that, themselves satisfied with political privilege and influence, they are less inclined to consider the wants and wishes of others, especially when requiring some effort of the imagination to understand. Disappointment regarding Italy and France, and the extent to which political corruption prevails in the United States, have discouraged many from attempting wide reforms. "Since last I saw you I spent some years in New York, and followed the police inquiry of a few years ago," was the explanation given lately in my presence by one who has changed from home rule to conservatism.

So, for the present, public feeling slumbers regarding great issues. Here in Ireland, meanwhile, an old question made new—the overtaxation of the country—has come with a rush to the front, and we see, for the first time in the century, a demand unitedly made by all classes against England. The position is extremely interesting and remarkable. One Irish peer reminds the Government of the tea cast into Boston harbor. A deputy lieutenant of a county, one of the Edgeworths, declares it is "the paramount duty of every honest Irishman to protest, with all possible emphasis, against the unfair and cruel and cowardly system of extorted tribute under which our miserable country is bleeding to death." For the first time the Protestant and Catholic Archbishops of Dublin appear together on the same platform. It is satisfactory that, on any ground, this union should have come about. We have the principal Irish Home-Rule daily writing of the death of the editor of the principal Unionist daily: "In him the Irish press loses a brilliant journalist, and the cause of financial reform an invaluable advocate. His death at the present moment is a national loss. There was no stauncher friend of the financial cause than he."

The result is doubtful. Will nobility and gentry, in coöperating with Nationalists, acquire the love of leadership and finally lead the people towards some home rule settlement; or will the people be drawn away by them from their old national leaders, now at loggerheads among themselves, and from national aspirations to questions in which *airgead sios* more directly prevails? Even the British press is beginning to realize the importance of the movement, which is, of course, based upon the report of the Financial Relations Commission, of which you have been already informed. The Act of Union constituted Ireland, for the purposes of taxation, a separate country, to be separately considered, and dealt with apart (whether under a system of proportional contribution or contribution by equal taxes on the same articles in each country), "subject to such peculiar exemptions and abatements as the circumstances of Ireland might from time to time demand." The Commission was a strong one, largely composed of expert financiers selected from among all parties. Eleven of the thirteen, including The O'Conor Don (the chairman, a staunch Unionist) and Lords Farrer and Welby, reported:

"That Great Britain and Ireland must, for the purpose of this inquiry, be considered as separate entities. That the Act of Union imposed upon Ireland a burthen which, as events showed, she was unable to bear. That the increase of taxation laid upon Ireland between 1853 and 1860 was not justified by the then existing circumstances. That identity of rates of taxation does not necessarily involve equality of burthen. That while the actual tax revenue of Ireland is about one eleventh that of Great Britain, the relative taxable capacity of Ireland is very much smaller, and is not estimated by any of us as exceeding one twentieth."

Under this estimate Ireland is at present overtaxed to the extent of £2,750,000 per annum. When agitation ran high, the Unionists were loud in their declarations that they were prepared to grant anything in reason, short of home rule, generally desired by Irishmen. They have now an opportunity of proving their sincerity. Of all mean ways of evading the question, the proposal for a new commission of inquiry, now that one has decided against Government, would be the meanest. Fiscal questions are proverbially complicated. The present will give ample scope for discussion. The report of the commissioners, with their appendices and accompanying two volumes of evidence, are replete with interest, and will for years be standard works of reference relating to Irish finance.

There are many side issues. If articles of consumption were differently taxed in the two countries, customs barriers should be maintained. If an annual return of imperial taxes overlevied is to be made to Ireland for expenditure here, the demoralization incident to already bloated administrative charges might be increased. Those who believe the consumption of spirits to be an evil, cannot feel deep concern regarding increased taxation due largely to heavy duty on spirits which must diminish consumption, with the impossibility of illicit distillation in this country. Fifty years ago the tax on spirits in Ireland was 2s. 8d.; it is now 10s. 6d. per gallon. It is right to bear in mind that, even in the matter of spirits, the average Irishman consumes less than the average Briton. The following was the value per head of the consumption of dutiable articles in the two countries in 1892-93. Great Britain: Tobacco 12s. 11d., tea 10s. 1d., spirits 29s., beer 53s.; total £5 5s. Ireland: Tobacco 12s. 5d, tea 11s., 10d., spirits 26s. 6d., beer 27s. 2d.; total £3 17s. 11d. The reason the results of intemperance are so much more painfully apparent in Ireland than in Great Britain is, that the Irishman, though drinking less, really drinks a much larger proportion of his more limited income, and that he does not consume it so regularly or (if we might apply the expression) temperately, and, when he does drink, he drinks oftener to excess.

Much curious information is afforded, in tables of unquestioned accuracy, regarding the anomalies resulting from the present government of Ireland. Taking into account expenditure for imperial purposes, Ireland in 1829-30 afforded to the Empire a profit of £4,156,576; in 1893-94 only £1,966,094. In 1819-20 the civil government charges of Great Britain were 1s. 7d. per head of the population; in Ireland, 1s. 10d. In 1893-94 these had been increased to 11s. 5d. and 19s. 7d. respectively. The charge for civil pensions in Ireland is proportionately double what it is in Great Britain. In Belgium, a wealthy country, the civil administration costs but 10s. per head; the total salaries of the fifteen judges of the two courts of justice reach but £6,000 per annum. The Irish Lord Chancellor alone receives £8,000. The zest with which Conservatives are throwing themselves into the movement may be partly accounted for by the fact that many of the heavy increases of Irish taxation were made by Liberal administrations, and that if the Home Rule bill had passed, the present taxation, now declared ruinous, would have been riveted on the country.

I do not regard £3,000,000 more or less taxation raised mainly on luxuries (more or less injurious) as the greatest impediment to the prosperity of Ireland. The manly and womanly qualities of her people require to be drawn out by greater responsibility and greater power of initiative. D. B.

Airgead sios, Irish for "hard money."

TAINE'S PROVINCIAL NOTE-BOOKS.—II.

PARIS, January 13, 1897.

I LEFT Taine at Toulouse. He describes very graphically the city and its inhabitants, "diminutives of Italians." He is struck by the number of religious establishments in this provincial capital, and counts 77 such houses for a population of 100,000 inhabitants; among them three great colleges, each with 500 pupils. He had observed the same thing in Poitiers—38 religious houses for 35,000 inhabitants. "In Paris the colleges conducted by priests enter 80 young men every year at Saint-Cyr." This was written between 1863 and 1865. Taine was struck by the influence of the clergy; he speaks of the

great legacies made yearly to them in the province:

"We have no idea of this in Paris. We live in a small circle of learned and clever sceptics; we do not see the great public, *la grosse France*. We writers have a particular need to know these facts. What does a *provincial* merchant, functionary, nobleman, farmer, proprietor read? Almost nothing. They are outside of our life. Into this stagnant pond drops the ecclesiastical net. The old ladies, the fathers who have become conservatives, leave something to the clergy."

The want of cohesion among the classes excites Taine's astonishment. "Each society here keeps to itself. Many small noblemen, families with an income of ten to thirty thousand francs a year, spend three months in Toulouse with more or less luxury, and the rest of the time in the country for economy's sake. . . . Below them come the functionaries, then the bourgeois, the newly rich." This division of classes is perhaps more marked now than it ever was. General Trochu observes, in his interesting memoirs, that one of the consequences of a revolution is to divide the country into conquerors and conquered; France has had many revolutions, and each crisis creates new malcontents.

If there is a class which Taine had no opportunity of studying, it is that of the small noblemen of the province. They really form a nation in the nation; they have lost all their privileges except the privileges of vanity, which no government can take away from them, as these belong to the realm of imagination. Among our great writers, Balzac, in his 'Comédie Humaine,' has best described this class. Taine contents himself with noting, wherever he goes, their voluntary isolation. At Lyons, a professor tells him that "there is a small noble population, exclusive, insignifi cant, which spends its summer in its châteaux in the Beaujolais." At Besançon, he writes: "Exclusive nobility, terribly proud, even more than at Dijon, and allied to the clergy." At Poitiers, "The noblemen form a class of their own; when I was there a new Prefect invited all society, bourgeois and noblemen, to a ball. In a minute two camps were formed in the drawing-room, with a void between. A few bold young men alone established some communication. The Prefect did not repeat the experiment." "These nobles," he says, "have many children; no occupation, no office—it would be beneath them." "The old houses of the nobility are ugly and sombre, without any outside show; inside are majestic drawing-rooms, and the gardens are real parks. Add to this the thirty-eight closed convents, and you have an extraordinary city: small, tortuous streets, with old grass-grown pavements, at long intervals a lamp going out in the night, a perfect solitude at eight o'clock in the evening and often in the daytime."

These notes of Taine leave on the mind a rather painful impression, as if testifying everywhere to a certain absence of vitality. To be sure, they were written under the Empire, at a time when there was no political life or freedom of the press. Taine is constantly struck by the power of the Church, uniting its repressive action with the action of the Government and of the administration. "Perhaps," he says, "we still are the men of Gaul, with indestructible Druids, a chance Vercingetorix, and a hierarchical administration imported from Rome."

"In all fields of activity is felt the want of chiefs, of leaders. Almost all the men I see do nothing or work badly for want of guides. The men who have general ideas, the only directing ideas, are a small minority, one in a thousand. All these professors, these retired functionaries or archæologists, these officers whom I see, are idle, live in coffee-houses, sleep in their chairs, make collections. They have no compelling object."

Taine studies the life of the army officers with whom he associates during the examinations for the military school of Saint-Cyr; his observations on this point are interesting.

"The sub-lieutenant who assisted me during the examinations in gymnastics [fancy Taine giving marks in gymnastics !] absolutely would have me dine at the *pension* of the lieutenants and sub-lieutenants. . . . The fare was not bad; a long, narrow room, at the end of a lugubrious staircase, with one gas light. The young officers complain of the narrowness of their means, though they have a monthly supplement of thirty francs [this was at Lyons] Life is so dear here; impossible to go to a café to take the smallest pleasure, if you are not helped by your family. . . . The Government does what it can: the soldiers pay no toll on the bridges, they pay only half-price at the theatres, and quarter-price on the railways. . . . An officer remains generally six years in a grade, sometimes ten or twelve years in the grade of captain. . . . This involves much misery. Some are thirty-five, even thirty-eight years old, and are only lieutenants. . . . Some of these officers are fat and stiff: their mode of life does not develop fineness or elegance. They scream, have rough manners, become red; their pleasantries are not amiable. I have seen them twice, for a full hour, at the café. They kill time as well as they can, play cards, gaze blankly, read the papers a second time, talk of promotions, of permutations. None of them has the courage to work, to study for himself; very few go into society. They are bored. . . . The only consolation is the clean, well-fitting coat, the epaulette which gives them consideration. The state cannot do more—the war budget is already so heavy; and every man cannot be a colonel. One gets advancement at the expense of another. Here, also, you find the fundamental character of democracy: it is Darwin's struggle for existence."

This was written before the war of 1870, before the system of compulsory and universal service, which has greatly increased the French army. The principal traits are still like; the number of officers is much larger, and their advancement, in time of peace, is necessarily very slow.

I have already said that Taine, who was a professor in the University, counts wherever he goes the number of religious houses where education is obtained; not without a feeling of envy. At Poitiers, he finds everything crushed under the influence of the Bishop.

"Every year 300,000 persons visit the coffer of Saint Radegonde. When the saint's festival arrives in August, the pilgrims are so numerous and generally so poor that they sleep in a sort of camp outside of the town. I have seen the coffer; it is in a pretty church of the twelfth century, already much sunk in the ground. At every door in every neighboring street there are women who run after you and offer you small cheap medals and a quantity of candles. Near the church door old beggars ask for charity with a trembling voice. In twenty minutes I have seen a dozen people enter, men of the people, half bourgeois, all with one or several wax candles."

Taine is not indulgent toward the people he comes in contact with:

"A curious type," he says, "is the Proviseur [the head of a college], once a *maître d'études*, professor, censor, afterwards Proviseur—in short, twenty-five years here [at Poitiers]; himself a son of the land, having a wife of the land. He has recently been decorated because a pupil of his lycée won the prize in the competition of the departmental lycées. Face and manners of an old haberdasher, of a shrewd rag-merchant who has been polite to all his customers, who has gone regularly to mass and read the *Charivari;* bent on rising, but slowly, in the fashion of an ox; his sovereign pleasure to eat a melon with his family; doing little, patient, never recalcitrant; functionary at heart and from his birth, with a discreet smile and vague eyes; solidly wrapped in a good coat and solidly planted on large feet; the most mediocre of men—durable, flat, vulgar, and neat as a sidewalk."

The Notes abound in such small sketches—such instantaneous photographs. I speak only of what relates to the various classes in France, to the social condition of its population. I am not speaking of the hasty photographs of the landscapes, of the cities and regions which the author sees in his rapid journeys. Some of these descriptions have great beauty, as likewise the descriptions of the works of art, churches, tombs, or pictures, which Taine sees on his way, and which seem to console him for the meanness and mediocrity of men. He has a very vivid perception of things; he gives you, for instance, a very clear idea of the differences between the North and the South of France, differences which are felt in everything—in the atmosphere, in the landscape, in the character of the races.

"In the South you must live only with your senses, like a painter. You may enjoy the pretty face of a well dressed woman, a laughing visage under black hair, a powerful shadow under a long gray wall cutting the vivid azure, a delicious grape which melts like honey in the mouth; but you must suppress all inner feeling, all tender and profound dreams. A beggar here [at Montpellier] eats good grapes; a poor devil drinks pure, healthy wine, and no man gets drunk. . . . Such small elementary differences make great ultimate differences; the ideal is changed."

Taine feels very keenly the Latin character of the South, but he recognizes the Gaulish element mixed with the Latin element. "The want of moral and intellectual initiative, the spirit of administration and of submission, the love of order and of unity, the ideas of Bossuet, are Gaulish, and also Latin."

Taine's ideas are sometimes summed up in short sentences: "France is and will remain a democracy agitated by its writers and governed by its functionaries. The influence of the intelligent man is superficial and lasts but a lifetime, because there is a want of large and permanent estates." After having noted everywhere the influence of the Church, he says: "The power of religion here consists in the fact that it is an occupation, a regular mechanism which kills time, and the power of the clergy consists in the fact that it is a body of functionaries. You will find mysticism only in certain select and morbid souls." On the whole, the admirers of Taine will discern in these rapid sketches the elements of many of his generalizations; they will not regret having made with him these flying tours in various parts of France and in some of its great cities.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS' spring announcements include 'The Literary History of the American Revolution, 1763–1783,' by Prof. Moses Coit Tyler, together with a new revised edition of his 'History of American Literature during the Colonial Period'; the final volume of the new and enlarged edition of the late Prof. Alexander Johnston's 'American Orations'; the second part of Prof. Charles M. Andrews's 'Historical Development of Modern Europe,' since the Congress of Vienna; 'Essays in French History,' by James Eugene

Farmer; 'The Literary Movement in France in the 19th Century,' from the French of Georges Pellissier by Anne Garrison Brinton; 'The Dungeons of Old Paris,' by Tighe Hopkins; 'Bertrand du Guesclin,' by Enoch Vine Stoddard; the sixth and concluding volume of Traill's 'History of Social Life in England' down to 1885; 'A History of Ancient Peoples,' by Prof. Willis Boughton of Ohio University; 'Life and Letters of Prof. Byron Caldwell Smith,' edited by D. O. Kellogg; 'Sketches Awheel in Fin-de Siècle Iberia,' by F. B. and W. H. Workman; 'The God Idea of the Ancients; or, Sex in Religion,' by Mrs. Eliza Burt Gamble; 'The Cross in Tradition, History and Art,' by the Rev. Wm. Wood Seymour, D.D., illustrated; 'Hypnotism and its Application to Practical Medicine,' from the Swedish of Dr. Otto G. Wetterstrand; 'Household Economics,' lectures by Helen Campbell; 'The Vines of Northeastern America,' by Charles S. Newhall; and 'Lawns and Gardens,' by N. Jönsson Rose.

Macmillan Co. have nearly ready Mrs. Annie Steel's novel of the great Indian Mutiny, 'On the Face of the Waters.'

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press the second and final volume of Prof. Charles F. Kent's 'History of the Hebrew People.' They will issue, in conjunction with John Murray, the unpublished works of the historian Gibbon, including seven autobiographies.

Dr. Elliott Coues has finished his labors on 'The Journals of Alexander Henry the Younger, and David Thompson,' fur-trader and geographer respectively, and the work will be shortly issued in a limited edition by Francis P. Harper. Thompson's maps will be reproduced. Unlike Dr. Coues's editions of Lewis and Clark and of Pike, the body of this publication consists of matter never before in print, and without a parallel.

Leach, Shewell & Sanborn announce an 'Introduction to American Literature,' by Prof. F. V. N. Painter of Roanoke College, and a 'Greek and Roman Mythology,' by Prof. Karl P. Harrington of the University of North Carolina.

'The Great Poets and their Theology,' by President Strong of Rochester Theological Seminary, will be published in the autumn by the American Baptist Publication Society, Philadelphia. It will make a large octavo.

'Common-Sense Christianity,' soon to be issued by the Congregational Publishing Society, Boston, will consist of the late Rev. Alonzo H. Quint's contributions to the *Congregationalist*.

Early in the spring will appear Mrs. Charles Fisk Beach, jr.'s, "study in sociology," 'Katherine Kent,' the scene of which shifts from New Orleans to London.

A monograph on the 'Causes of the Maryland Revolution of 1689,' by Mr. F. E. Sparks, completes the fourteenth series of the Johns Hopkins "University Studies in Historical and Political Science." As a chronicle of legislative and political events from 1658 to 1689, the work is useful, but it cannot be pronounced very satisfactory as a piece of exposition. The revolution of 1689 attacked the Palatinate system of government, which had never commended itself to the colonists, and which had incurred additional disfavor by the opposition of the Proprietor to William of Orange and his support of James II. But while this last was undoubtedly the immediate occasion of the revolution, its deeper causes lay in thirty years of grievances occasioned by the arbitrary interference of the Proprietor with elections and the proceedings of the Assembly, extraordinary nepotism, taxation, and harsh treatment of the opposition. Mr. Sparks shows, in passing, that complaints over taxation were the real cause of Fendall's rebellion, and that the act principally complained of—that of 1647, granting the Proprietor a duty on exported tobacco—could not have greatly affected the Puritans, since the latter did not enter Maryland until 1649. Bacon's rebellion, also, in 1676, had greater influence upon Maryland than has been generally supposed, and failed to become as formidable as in Virginia only because of lack of leadership.

M. Eugène d'Eichthal has just gathered together in a volume his articles on Alexis de Tocqueville which were published in the *Revue Politique et Parlementaire*. M. d'Eichthal translates, too, the very interesting conversations between Tocqueville and Nassau Senior, which will be new to his countrymen, and also gives some fragments of Tocqueville's correspondence. His domestic letters, running over a period of thirty-five years, have never been printed, though they are said to be both curious and valuable. They were, for the most part, addressed to his wife.

A new edition of Prof. Karl Krumbacher's 'Geschichte der Byzantinischen Litteratur von Justinian bis zum Ende des Oströmischen Kaiser-reiches (522 1453)' has just been issued by Beck in Munich. It is an octavo volume of more than 1,200 closely printed pages, having been expanded to more than double its original size. The chapter on Byzantine theology has been revised by Albert Ehrhard, Professor of Ecclesiastical History in Würzburg, and that on Byzantine history by H. Gelzer, Professor of History in Jena. The work is more comprehensive in its scope than its title indicates, since it treats exhaustively not only of Byzantine literature, but also of Byzantine art, antiquities, science (such as it was), and general culture and civilization. It has a very extended and valuable bibliography and an excellent index. The French Minister of Public Instruction has just conferred upon Prof. Krumbacher the "palmes d'or" of the Academy, and the Greek residents of Trieste have sent him 2,000 francs ($400) for the establishment of a seminar for mediæval and modern Greek in the University of Munich.

The first part of Dr. Gustav Krieger's 'Schwierigkeiten des Englischen' is entitled "Synonymik und Wortgebrauch" (Dresden and Leipzig: Koch). It contains a list of English synonyms or words having a similar signification, with passages illustrating their use and different shades of meaning. The arrangement is alphabetical.

The first volume of Robert Davidsohn's elaborate 'Geschichte von Florenz' (Berlin: Mittler) begins with the Etruscan period and extends to the thirteenth century. There is a plan of the city made in that century, and a good account of Florentine art and architecture, to which are added a list of authorities and a full index.

An ordinance recently issued by the Archbishop of Munich-Freising in Bavaria enjoins on the clergy of his diocese the necessity of cultivating and elevating Christian art. He calls attention to the lamentable fact that the Catholic Church, formerly the chief patroness of the fine arts, has now become the patroness of cheap colored lithographs and plaster casts manufactured by wholesale and utterly devoid of artistic value. Genuine works of painting and sculpture have been everywhere supplanted by these worthless wares, which ought to be banished from all places of worship and not accepted even as gifts. The clergy are therefore admonished not to permit any of these vile substitutes to be used for the adornment of the altars or walls or other parts of the sanctuary. Paintings and sculptures should be ordered, not through dealers, but directly from able artists, who, if required to sign their names to their productions, will be sufficiently careful of their reputation to do their best. This ordinance is a movement in the right direction, and will be approved by all lovers of sacred art.

Dr. Karl Vollers, who succeeded that remarkable scholar, Wilhelm Spitta, as the second director of the Khedivial Library at Cairo, has entered upon his duties as professor of Arabic in the University of Jena. His successor at Cairo is Dr. B. Moritz, for some time secretary of the Seminary for Oriental Languages at Berlin—a specially endowed annex of the university—and one of its lecturers on modern Arabic. Dr. Moritz not only is a classical Arabic scholar of ability, but has made himself surprisingly familiar with more than one of the living forms of Arabic speech, and as a competent investigator of the Mauritanian dialects stands almost alone. He assumed his present position two months ago, and already the spacious exhibition-rooms of the library, in the more systematic arrangement of the priceless African and Asiatic manuscripts they contain, prove the industry and capacity of the new director. The Government has lately decided to make liberal grants in order to complete the collection of Egyptological literature, and to give the library a foremost position as a storehouse of all that relates to the archæology, history, and linguistics of ancient Egypt.

A material representation of the extent and direction of mental activity in England is to be found in the classified list of books published in 1895 and 1896 in the *Publishers' Circular*. The sum total, 6,573, is almost the same as in 1895 (6,516); a considerable decrease in new works being made up by a corresponding increase of new editions. The number of theological works remains practically unchanged, but there has been a marked falling off of educational and medical works, voyages, and belles lettres, which have dropped from 442 to 153. On the other hand, poetical and dramatic works, and works on social and political economy, have largely increased; legal works have doubled, the arts and sciences quadrupled, while histories and biographies, 717 in number, have climbed from the fifth to the second place—fiction and juveniles of course standing first with 2,179 works. A comparison with a similar list of the literature of 1876 shows an increase of 1,685 books published, but an actual decrease in theology, political economy, voyages, medicine, and belles lettres. There has been a gain of 903 novels and children's stories, and the number of histories and biographies has more than doubled.

The testimonial to Mr. Cotton, late editor of the London *Academy*, amounted to £375. The committee intrusted with the raising of it consisted of four members, Prof. Robinson Ellis, Mr. F. C. Conybeare, Mrs. Marie Wharton, and Miss Toulmin Smith of Oxford; a notable conjunction of the sexes in such an enterprise. Twelve other ladies were among the contributors, who altogether were of a character and distinction to do honor to the recipient.

Crusoe's island has not disappeared, as reported, and the solitary himself continues to

come to the surface. Mr. Waters published Selkirk's last will and testament in the October number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, and in the current issue a London correspondent shows that Selkirk was much given to wills and powers of attorney in favor of his successive sweethearts —"in every port a wife." A tracing of his signature to one such document is reproduced. Mr. Waters's "Gleanings" in the same number show in transcripts of wills the English connections of Bourne, Hutchinson, Thorndike, Hayward, Newdigate, Foote, and other American families, and touch Shakspere once more in the will of his friend John a Combe, and Stratford in that of Richard Ange, in the John Harvard connection.

The article of most general interest in the *Geographical Journal* for January is Mr. H. Clifford's account of a recent journey in the unexplored eastern part of the Malay Peninsula. After a graphic picture of the march through forests so dense that even the heaviest beasts cannot penetrate them, but move, for the most part, along well-worn paths, he describes two native states visited—their methods of government and industries. Among these are manufactured "silks, cotton fabrics, native weapons, and metal and woodwork." They have a remarkable imitative genius. One man, for instance, "after paying a few visits to the engine-room of one of the local coasting-boats," constructed a steam-launch, the engine being "made chiefly of old kerosene cans." The method of government, till recently, was curiously similar to the feudal system of mediæval Europe, but is now a centralized system, the headmen of the villages being directly responsible to the sultans instead of to the great chiefs. The character of the government is illustrated by a description of a prison, the horrors of which can hardly be surpassed. Among the remaining contents of the number are a summary of the geographical results of researches in Karia, Mr. Sclater's account of the geography of mammals in the Nearctic Region, and "On the Distribution of Towns and Villages in England," in its physical aspects, by George G. Chisholm.

The larger part of the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January is taken up with "Observations on the Temperature of the Scottish Fresh-water Lochs," by Dr. John Murray. There are also interesting obituary notices of thirteen distinguished travellers and geographers who have died during the past year.

The Swedish specialist Dr. Widmark has published the results of an investigation into the prevalence of blindness in the Scandinavian countries (including Finland). They show remarkable divergencies. While the number of blind persons in Denmark is only 53 in 100,000, this rises to 83 in Sweden, to 128 in Norway, and to 155 in Finland. At the one extreme, Denmark is surpassed by only one European country, Holland, with 45; and at the other extreme, Finland only by Portugal and Russia, with 200. Compared with past years these figures show a decided improvement. In 1870 there were 70 cases of blindness to 100,000 inhabitants in Denmark, in 1870 in Norway there were 207, in 1864 in Finland the enormous number of 287. In Sweden there has been little general improvement during the past thirty years, but there is a decided improvement in the classes over sixty years of age. The highest proportion of blindness is found in the country districts; the proportion in the cities and the country districts of Norway, for example, being 83 and 145 respectively. This is largely the result of the better facilities for special treatment in the former. A similar difference is noted between the remote districts and those in the neighborhood of cities.

—Immediately after the death of Mr. Alfred Nobel, the inventor of dynamite, it was widely reported that the whole of his great fortune, accounted to be more than ten millions of dollars, had been bequeathed to the University of Stockholm. This proves to be not quite exact. The great legacy is invested so as to furnish an income which will provide for five annual prizes of sixty thousand dollars each. The first three will be awarded to the authors of the most important discoveries in physics, chemistry, and physiology. The fourth will be attributed to him who in the domain of letters shall have produced "l'œuvre la plus haute dans le sens idéal." (We quote from the *Débats*.) The fifth prize goes "à celui qui aura agi le plus ou le mieux pour la fraternité des peuples, pour la suppression ou la diminution des armées permanentes, et pour la constitution ou la propagation des congrès de la paix." These last two statements are not quite lucid. The prizes in physics and chemistry will be awarded by the Academy of Sciences of Sweden; the one for work in physiology or medicine by the Carolus Institute of Stockholm; the literary prize by the Swedish Academy, and the one for the furtherance of peace by a committee of five members chosen by the Norwegian Storthing. In accordance with the expressed will of M. Nobel, no consideration of nationality will be regarded in the attribution of these prizes; they are to go to the most worthy, "whether he be Scandinavian or not."

—In connection with the foregoing it is not inappropriate to advertise that the competition for the eleventh Bressa prize is now in progress (Jan. 1, 1895.–Dec. 31, 1898). The sum of 9,600 francs awaits the scientific author or inventor, without regard to nationality, who, in the judgment of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Turin, in the period above named, shall have "made the most important and useful discovery, or published the most valuable work on physical and experimental science, natural history, mathematics, chemistry, physiology, and pathology, as well as geology, history, geography, and statistics." Works submitted must be in print, and must be sent with a letter to the President of the Academy before the close of 1898. But the prize is not awarded merely upon competition. The Academy awards it "to the most worthy."

—Not very long ago, in No. 1616, the *Nation* reviewed the Arabic-English portion of Socrates Spiro's dictionary of the spoken language of Egypt. The English-Arabic volume of this important compilation goes to press during the present month, and, like the preceding part, will be issued from the printing office of *El Moqattam*, the leading Arabic daily of Cairo. Its publication is rendered possible by liberal subscriptions, made to supply the bureaux of the different Egyptian ministries with copies of a book of reference so greatly needed. Its value to foreigners having either official, commercial, or social relations with the people of Egypt will be incalculable, while philologically it will doubtless do something still further to supplement the known lists of New-Arabic vocables, numerous as were the additions made by the volume already published. That a lexicographical work of so perfect a character—which virtually has had no predecessor—should have been produced by a native scholar is a fact of no little interest. It is noticeable, too, that Mr. Spiro should have shown so intimate a knowledge of philological methods as to avail himself of the carefully elaborated system of transliteration employed by the late Spitta Bey—the only one ever applied to the Vulgar Arabic which is both simple and exact, to say nothing of the ease with which it can be written, or of its agreeable appearance in print. Before Dr. Spitta's day, and since, even European students who have treated the colloquial dialects of Egypt and Syria, have varied widely from each other in their transcription of the Arabic letters by means of a modified Latin alphabet, but have been alike notable for the unscientific inaccuracy of their methods. Folklorists will be glad to learn that Spiro Bey, after the completion of his lexicon, will give to the English-reading public several hitherto unrecorded Arabic popular tales, gathered from various provinces of Egypt.

—A report presented to the Board of Public Charities of Pennsylvania by Dr. Henry M. Wetherill contains a very interesting and gratifying account of the "Wisconsin System" of caring for the insane. Sixteen years ago the conditions prevailing in Wisconsin were similar to those now existing in Pennsylvania, and perhaps in most of our States. The State insane asylums were crowded with patients of all classes, acute and chronic, supported at a heavy expense; and of course the plight of the unfortunates who were remitted to the jails and poorhouses was deplorable. In 1881 the Legislature adopted a new policy, under which the counties have been encouraged to establish asylums of their own where the chronic insane who are able to work and not violent are cared for. According to Dr. Wetherill's report, this policy has been very successful. The State asylums have been relieved of inmates requiring comparatively little medical attendance, thus insuring better care for those most needing it, while the county establishments have furnished humane treatment in place of the brutalities and hardships of the jail and almshouse. These establishments are upon the "family plan"; the men carrying on the farms, which are a necessary feature, and doing practically all the heavy work required, while the women make and mend clothing, wash, and perform the domestic duties in general. A very great amount of freedom, under this system, can be permitted, and it has the inestimable advantage of retaining the afflicted near their relatives, who are of course chiefly of a class not able to spend their time and money in long journeys. In fact, the number of visitors is very large at these asylums, which is of itself a stimulus to good management. The entire expense for each inmate, exclusive of interest on the cost of buildings and farms, is only $1.65 per week; and the saving effected since the reform was instituted would, it seems, amount to more than the capital expended for land and construction. The Committee on Lunacy of the Pennsylvania Board of Charities are so thoroughly convinced of the wisdom of the "Wisconsin System" that they intend to introduce some of its features in Pennsylvania as soon as the necessary preparations can be made.

—Dr. Benjamin Howard, the English student of penology, has recently returned from a fourth visit to Russia and Siberia, where he

spent six months investigating the exile system. Besides inspecting all the exile prisons between St. Petersburg and Siberia, he travelled many hundreds of miles by rail, road, and river with convict gangs. His general impressions, as given in an interview reported in the London *Times*, seem to have been favorable enough to please even the Russians themselves. While censuring the general maladministration of the penal system, its "main principle" of productive labor is commended as worthy of imitation. The methods of self-support employed in Siberia are such, he assures us, that the convict does not lose all his self-respect, but is often fitted to become a more useful member of society than before. Dr. Howard declined to discuss the divergent statements of Mr. H. de Windt and Mr. George Kennan, contenting himself with the general remark that the administration of the exile system depends so largely upon individuals as to render almost anything possible. Of all that is bad in Siberia, however, he admits that Saghalien is the worst; but, although escape from this inhospitable island is practically impossible, Dr. Howard dwells upon the "well built and often pretty cottages," with "vestibules and gardens," in which the population of murderers and felons live, and the quiet and peaceful lives they lead on their farms. In this connection it is interesting to note that Mr. de Windt, in his recent book, 'The New Siberia,' is considerably more impartial than in his earlier work, though none the less do his admissions bear out the worst that has been said of the horrors of Saghalien. In regard to the "plet," he says: "Death sometimes follows this terrible punishment, which is only administered as a substitute for the death penalty." "Substitute for the death penalty" is, as the *Athenæum* remarks, a strange phrase for flogging to death.

—In a late number of *La Réforme Sociale* M. Gabriel Alix discusses the woman question with a great deal of intelligence and spirit. He regards the transformation in the condition of women which has been taking place all over the world during the last forty years—here more rapidly and there more slowly—as the most important social phenomenon of our time. The effect of it will be to enable women to render far greater services to society than they do now—"morally they are far better than we, that is certain"—at the same time that they can secure a much greater degree of happiness for themselves by reason of their less dependent, less precarious, and more dignified position. The movement is therefore legitimate and praiseworthy in the extreme. The writer points out that in its theoretical aspect the conclusion which we are approaching is by no means new—it was supported by Rabelais and by Montaigne, to mention no less important names; and in the middle of the seventeenth century, more than a hundred years before Condorcet and more than two hundred before Mill, a Protestant theologian, Poulain de la Barre, maintained, in a series of writings which had much success, that women were capable of all sorts of learning, and that they therefore deserved to be admitted to ecclesiastical, judicial, and even military honors. The sensible view which Erasmus took of the question may be seen in more than one of his 'Colloquies,' *e. g.*, "Puerpera" and "Abbatis et Eruditæ."

—A brief dispatch dated Mendoza, Argentina, January 17, and addressed to the London *Chronicle*, announces that the famous Swiss guide and Alpinist, Mattias Zurbriggen, the associate of Mr. (now Sir) William Conway in his remarkable tours among the high Himalayas, and at the present time the main reliance of the FitzGerald expedition to the Chilian and Argentine Andes, successfully reached the summit of Aconcagua on the 14th of the present month. This possibly makes a "record" in mountaineering, and the claim may be true that by this ascent the loftiest mountain of the Western Hemisphere has been conquered. Güssfeldt made an attempt on the mountain in 1883 and reached an elevation of 21,089 feet. Mental worry, seemingly, brought about through misunderstandings with his native guides or carriers, was the main cause which prevented him from attaining a much higher position. As to the position of Aconcagua in the series of highest summits of the Andes, some little uncertainty remains. According to the determinations of Captain Fitzroy, made during the famous cruise of the *Beagle*, the elevation of this extinct volcano is 23,910 feet, a value which is to be found in nearly all English publications. The Spanish engineer, Pissis, many years later, reduced this elevation to 22,422 feet, which again was advanced by Güssfeldt to 22,860 feet. It appears probable that the later measurements are more nearly correct than those of Fitzroy, and if this be proved to be so, then the "record" of mountaineering not improbably remains with Mr. Conway, through his conquest of Pioneer Peak (about 23,000 feet?), in the Karakoram Himalayas. As to Aconcagua being the highest summit of the New World, its place is more likely second or third. The Nevado de Sorata, or Illampu, on the Titicaca plateau, almost certainly surpasses it, and not impossibly by full 2,000 feet; and its neighbor Illimani has seemingly a just claim to be considered in the same comparison.

—M. Salomon Reinach has published in the *Monuments et Mémoires* of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres a description, with accompanying plate, of a marble eagle belonging to Lord Wemyss and now at Gosford (Longniddry). Common as are Roman representations of eagles done in low or in high relief, whether in marble or metal, marble eagles done in the round are extremely rare, nor are there many such in bronze. Apart from the one now published, M. Reinach knows of eight, only three of which have any mentionable artistic merit. The eagle in Lord Wemyss's collection is of remarkably delicate and spirited workmanship, and must be from the hand of one of the earlier and most eminent of those sculptors to whom the revived art of the early Roman Empire is due. But the history of its transference from Rome to Strawberry Hill, whence it passed by purchase directly to Gosford, is interesting. Robert Walpole (Lord Orford), the successful minister of the house of Brunswick, had collected several ancient busts at Houghton Hall, when, in 1739, he sent his son Horace upon the "Grand Tour." This was what Michaelis has called "the golden age of classical dilettantism," and Horace Walpole was initiated in Italy by his father's protégé, Mr. (afterwards Sir) Horace Mann—possibly, like himself, a namesake of the elder Horace Walpole—and John Chute into the delights of classical sculpture, and through them made various purchases, one of which was this marble eagle. M. Reinach gives Walpole's own description of it: "The eagle found in the gardens of Boccapadugli, within the precinct of Caracalla's baths at Rome, in the year 1742. One of the finest pieces of Greek sculpture in the world, and reckoned superior to the one in the Villa Mattei. . . . The boldness and yet great finishing of this statue are incomparable, the eyes inimitable. Mr. Gray has drawn the flagging wing (Ode on the Power of Poetry). It stands on a handsome antique sepulchral altar, adorned with eagles too." The heliogravure by Dujardin which accompanies M. Reinach's memoir is needed in order to give point to Walpole's praises. With that before us, we sympathize with M Reinach's regret that the private collections of England should still be a *terra incognita* to the scientific archæologist. Michaelis has done much in his 'Ancient Marbles,' but he was unable to get sight of the Gosford eagle, which he believed to be at Lord Wemyss's London house. It is accordingly reassuring to know that a plan for the systematic publication of the treasures hidden in English private collections has recently been under consideration by the Society for the Promotion of Hellenic Studies.

SIR GEORGE TRESSADY AND OTHER FICTION.

Sir George Tressady. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan Co.

Sentimental Tommy. By J. M. Barrie. Charles Scribner's Sons.

A Child of the Jago. By Arthur Morrison. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.

The Other House. By Henry James. Macmillan Co.

The Metropolitans. By Jeanie Drake. The Century Co.

The Violet. By Julia Magruder. Longmans, Green & Co.

Kate Carnegie. By Ian Maclaren. Dodd, Mead & Co.

Sister Jane. By Joel Chandler Harris. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Soldier Stories. By Rudyard Kipling. Macmillan Co.

If Mrs. Ward, in writing the story of 'Marcella,' meant to delineate a born revolutionist, one whom years cannot tame, her ideal is almost stultified by the story of 'Sir George Tressady'; if she meant nothing more than that Marcella Boyce was a revolutionist because she was young and discontented, then the spectacle of an active girl violently scratching molehills into mountains was not so serious or instructive as many people believed it to be.

It is distressing, however, to think that in the beginning Mrs. Ward meant Marcella to become, what she is after a few years of marriage with the excellent Aldous Raeburn, the perfectly respectable wife of a perfectly respectable peer, with a taint of eccentricity still lingering about her, but adversely criticised only by those whose respectability is not quite so ripe. Yet, if not deliberately planned, the change can have been effected only through the author's losing sight of her original motive, falling in love with the Maxwell splendor, and thus being diverted from the most probable development of Marcella's apparently ineradicable passion for the betterment of humanity. Whether it is inevitable that contemplation of the great aristocracy must induce in English writers a state of intellectual coma, one cannot say, but it certainly invokes a sort of superstitious reverence for traditions of dignity and race which is fatal to freedom and sincerity in art. Mrs. Ward struggles against impending fascina-

tion, but it is too strong for her and involves her in several misfortunes. The young Marcella cannot be annihilated all at once, so several impulsive indiscretions are permitted to Lady Maxwell; but the motive is no longer disinterested philanthropy—it is the success of the Maxwell bill, the victory of Lord Maxwell. Lady Maxwell does not turn her back on former interests and associates, but she is not any longer in the fight with the people, for the people; she uses the people, their suffering and wrongs, for the greater glory of the Maxwells. She bores high society conscientiously with talk about the sweating system and kindred iniquities; she lives intermittently in the East End, and drags thither men and women of fashion to study the poor at home; but the vision of perfection presented is not the vision of a spirit, impetuous yet resolute, dedicated to a forlorn hope—rather that of a noble lady clinging deferentially to a noble lord, roaming ancestral woods with a noble son and heir, condescending for political ends to exhibit her diamonds and extend her protecting sympathy to the struggling masses. Such is the solution of life's enigma offered to erratic and handsome young women—not, we believe, intentionally or even consciously, but because, when an English writer, socially of the middle class, who is not an artist or a genius, turns the eyes of the intelligence upward to the ruling class, they are smitten blind, and the solution comes as a beatific vision.

The failure of Marcella as a revolutionist is depressing, but the failure of Marcella as a great lady is in one important episode amusing. Her attitude toward Sir George Tressady is that of a good little bourgeoise, not of an acknowledged leader in a complex society. A great lady may have all the purity and high-mindedness ascribed to Lady Maxwell, but she is not an ingénue; she is well aware that one of the ways of the impressionable and idle men of her world is to fall in love with other men's wives, and is, therefore, particularly careful to avoid that complication. Lady Maxwell lavishes all sorts of attentions on Sir George, interests him in her affairs, interests herself in his, yet is prostrated with grief and shame when he tells her that his reason for deserting his leader, for betraying his cause, for finishing himself politically, was the old, old reason—passion for the woman who led him on.

If such a view of Lady Maxwell may be accepted as probable, it seems to involve the assumption that too much success had turned her head, and that conjugal affection had sapped her brain. Sir George's attitude, on the contrary, is entirely probable. Interest in him is almost restricted to the question, What is Lady Maxwell going to do with him and how will she do it? With the answer and the passing of the Maxwell bill, the story is told. To send him off on a domestic mission for the Maxwells (tendered either in token of forgiveness of offence or atonement for wrong done, no knowing which) is a comic anti-climax, and as clearly an expedient for spinning out the volume as is his melodramatic death one for ending it. Had he been driven to suicide by the follies and tempers of his vulgar wife and silly mother, added to the irritation of his tiresome tenants talking endlessly about themselves in dialect, there would have been something in him worth further record, something about him to remember beyond the fact that Lady Maxwell once took him up and, with all piety, purity, and propriety, ruined him.

The failure of characterization in 'Sir George Tressady' is not an accident to be lightly passed over and briefly set over against such qualities as information, careful composition, a feeling for good conduct, or even dramatic moments; it is essential, destroying the significance of two long novels, laying bare almost indecently a racial incapacity to cast off the shackles of materialism, to depict forcibly and consistently an intellect or spirit battling for an ideal, undaunted by adversity and unsullied by prosperity. It is one of those depressing failures which suggest even to optimism that English literature is taking a long rest on its laurels. However, when the English mind gets too stodgy to produce thoughts that burn in words that will not die, it may happen that literature is saved by the Irish, who always write good English, or by the Highland Scotch, who are not so particular.

Much of Mr. Barrie's contribution to the literature of fiction is good enough to keep the breath of life in a moribund tradition, to hold it over for fresh inspiration. It is strong enough to overcome the deliberate use of Scotch dialect and the unconscious lapses into Scotch forms of English. In 'Sentimental Tommy' he appears as one heralding the new dawn, for we can think of no tale in our language in which the author's mind is so exclusively given to the development of a temperament absorbed in itself, working itself out spontaneously, independent of authority, and apparently oblivious to the conventions of any class of society. The thing has been recognized by novelists of other nations as the great thing to do, and has been well done in Russian, French, and Italian. We are slow to get inspirations and accept revelations, but, on the other hand, once having "caught on," we are likely to speak louder and carry the tidings farther than if we were more alert and accessible to ideas. For this purpose of being heard afar and recognized as a new note, it could be wished that Tommy had been done all in English, that he had not sprung from Thrums or returned there; in fact that, externally and incidentally, the story were other than it is. Tommy, in his boyhood at least (which is as far as Mr. Barrie goes), is as independent of heredity and circumstance as a human being can be. His temperament is the artistic temperament, so wonderful and beautiful in its achievements, and so intolerable to live with unsupported by blind adoration. The temperament may be more common in one country than another, but it can sprout and blossom among the New Eng'and hills as well as on the boulevards of Paris, and its mark is sometimes supposed to be the mark of Cain. Mr. Barrie's exposition is masterly, not infrequently cruel—so cruel that one perceives the artistic temperament, with all its frankness and detachment from prejudice, even predilection, striking at itself and sparing not. Tommy is differentiated from other boys by the volume and energy of his imagination, by his emotional impressionability, and by his unscrupulous use of any means to gain an end, without pricks of conscience or fear of superior powers. His feeling of responsibility for Elspeth may indicate a phantasmal moral sense, but, if she should ever fail in sympathy with him, he could easily withdraw his protection. For a slight offence he threatened to make her live alone when she grew up, though he would sometimes come and speak up to her at the window. There are chances that, for a graver indiscretion, he would not come to speak, and might even neglect to pay the rent. There is no sort of certainty about Tommy, not even that he will always "find a wy," for the roads he must tread will surely be oftener dark and crooked than fair, and may as likely as not lead down to despair, with death the only open door.

Grizel is probably intended to be the savior of Tommy, if he can resolve himself to be saved. She is sure there is only one side to a question, her side; only one rigid right way, which she, at least, doesn't mean to miss. Her antecedents are disagreeable. The Painted Lady is a shocking sort of a mother to burden a girl with; and though the child's fierce loyalty is natural, her perfect understanding of the situation and attempts to manage it are too precocious, a little repulsive. The other children are Tommy's obedient and amusing slaves, more clearly defined than the grown-ups, an ill assorted, not very well-considered lot. But when we finish the book, we feel as if we had been looking at a planet through a telescope, indifferent to the quality of surrounding stars.

One of the earliest instances of Tommy's incalculable temperament is an exploit at a supper given by the "Society for the Somethink of Juvenile Criminals," in the East End of London. Here he permits himself to entertain a lady patroness by an imaginative recital of his horrid crimes. Later on, having a vision of Elspeth at home praying for him, he is overcome by shame, and interrupts the praying on the platform for the waifs present in the hall by a shrill entreaty to the Deity: "Oh, look down on them ones there, for oh, they are unworthy of thy mercy, and oh, the worst sinner is her Ladyship, her sitting there so brazen in the black frock with the yellow stripes, and the worse I said I were the better pleased were she." A similar entertainment is used to introduce "Dicky Perrot," in 'A Child of the Jago,' a story of a London slum, by Mr. Arthur Morrison. Dicky is of a lower social stratum than Tommy, bred in a filthy lair of hereditary outcasts and criminals. In the select gathering of "Elevators of the East End," Dicky makes his first "click," neatly cutting the fob of an eloquent bishop and making off with his watch. The story of the Jago is a terrible one, very modern in the manner of its telling, but dating back to Charles Dickens in matter, incident, and character. We seem to be reading about the "Artful Dodger" and "Poor Jo," "Tom All-Alones," "Bill Sykes," "Nancy," and "Peck-sniff" converted into a fence slightly more degraded, but no more hypocritical and hateful. They are all done in a new way—a harder, more physical, brutal way. We have a stronger realization of their pitiable plight, but are more reconciled to it—it is so hopeless, so inevitable. Our horror is more vivid, our compassion feebler. Undoubtedly a great impetus to philanthropy was given by Dickens's slum stories. He controlled tears and laughter; he made emotional people feel that something must be done, and he forced sentimental people to go and do something at once. It is hardly probable that any burst of sympathetic activity can follow the reading of tales written by the more actual moderns. Literary worth does not spur the general reader to action, and perhaps, with such tales as the 'Child of the Jago,' it is the force of the literary presentation which convinces those who can appreciate it of an impotence in action—a conviction to which that sort is ever predisposed.

The point made, and indisputably made, is that Dicky belonged to the Jago. Fate had

tumbled him into a noisome well, and not all the king's horses and all the king's men could avail to pull him out. Dicky was not naturally a vicious or even bad boy, but the Jago surrounded him with its murderers and thieves and the general atrocity of its record in the secret books of the police. Mr. Morrison describes the customs of the Jago with great vigor and apparent accuracy. He treats the street fights of the Rams and Learys as a feud, a Homeric episode, dropping into a style reminiscent of Fielding narrating the graveyard battle between Molly Seagrim and her hostile critics. Sal Green, like Molly, strips to the waist for the fray, and has an engaging, probably modern, trick of sitting on the downed antagonist and chewing the nape of her neck. The death of the chief character in a story may often be deemed fitting, but is seldom accepted with pleasure. Dicky's death is, in comparison with his life, a most cheerful episode, and there is a comforting sense of potential heroism given by his dying with a lie on his lips, "the staunch Jago lie—thou shalt not nark"—meaning thou shalt not tell who did it.

Mr. Morrison's criticism of collective philanthropic effort is severe, and his sketch of Father Sturt may be taken to mean that even though a man give his life for the Jago, yet shall it not be saved. His feelings are well under control, but he detests sentimentalists, and in reference to the hanging of Josh Perrot for the murder of Weech, a morally justifiable crime, he takes occasion to whack a certain variety of the too conspicuously tenderhearted, remarking:

"This was not a popular murder. Josh Perrot was not a man who had been bred to better things; he did not snivel and rant in the dock; and he had not butchered his wife or his child, or anybody with a claim on his gratitude or affection, so that nobody sympathized with him, or got up a petition for pardon, or wrote tearful letters to the newspapers. And the crowd that watched for the black flag was a small one, and most of it came from the Jago."

Being plunged in the atmosphere of crime from the first chapter of the Jago story, one settles down to it and escapes the shock of the painful unexpected; but how unprotected is the nervous system against the assault of the tragedy, including an ignoble and revolting crime, sprung on confiding admirers by Mr. Henry James as the climax of 'The Other House'! If the crime were entirely credible, Mr. James might never be forgiven; but it is fortunately only possible enough not to be impossible. Rose Arminger's personality is so complicated that it baffles prediction, yet the only way to accept her crime is to admit that a great passion recognizes no obstacle as final, and to take her own explanation: "It was all that I saw—all that was left me. It took hold of me, it possessed me; it was the last gleam of a chance." If 'The Other House' should be put on the stage (a destiny which probably awaits it), the climax would be the test of the drama's strength, and we should know whether Mr. James had made a brilliant deduction, or whether he had wantonly trifled with the nature of things. By dramatization 'The Other House' would lose little, for it is a play acted in Mrs. Beever's garden and Mr. Bream's house, and occupying only two summer afternoons with an interval of four years. Each act is but a critical moment, with only enough description and explanation to preserve the form of a narrative. The people come and go as on the stage, each one slipping away to make room for another who continues the action. The technical devices are so skilful that things appear to arrange themselves without direction or supervision. The past of the persons implicated, as well as the actual situation and the shadow of coming events, is revealed in dialogue—not the prosily explanatory or curtly informing dialogue of the average play, but light, neat, pointed talk. The mind of the speaker, whether it is quick or slow, ironical or literal, is disclosed through his speech. The stupidest of Mr. James's people express their personality in their talk, and that is what makes them more entertaining than some of the clever people we meet. Most of us live and die without hearing such apt, incisive, and witty talk as that of his clever people. His disinclination to occupy himself with the narration of exciting events has been so often commented on disparagingly that many worthy people, not unintelligent, refuse to read his books, because, they say, nothing ever happens. To such 'The Other House' is commended with entreaty, not only because their demand for happenings will be gratified, but also because, in hot pursuit of the catastrophe, they must be compelled to take in some of the beauty and skill of the approach; they may, indeed, even arrive at a dim consciousness of a fascination about certain roads that lead nowhere.

It is, perhaps, hard on the general novel-reader to find fault with him for insensibility to the rare quality of Mr. James's work, when even the general novel writer profits so little by the example of a master. Every art has its text-books, and though young novelists, rejoicing in the ownership of a robust genius, may scorn Mr. James's solicitude for degrees and shades and hints of things, they should control their feelings and study him for the sake of acquiring a method which is invaluable for the expression of any sort of a literary genius. Unhappily, every year respectable publishers issue novels the writers of which appear never to have heard of method or form or style, and who, besides, are quite devoid of common sense. The writers of 'The Metropolitans' and 'The Violet' are gloriously independent of authority, and free from the superstition that there is a right way to do a thing which one might try to discover before beginning. The perpetrators of these sad criticisms on aspirations to culture are named Jeanie Drake and Julia Magruder. They have innocent Christian names, and it is not pleasant to speak of them harshly, but they present themselves in great glory of print, binding, and illustration, and therefore court an attention which it would be ruder to deny. Miss Drake's conspicuous talent is for plagiarism (undoubtedly unconscious) of a generation of society novels and of the romantic view of a Bohemia peopled by phenomenal musicians, dancers, and journalists bounding up and down the ladder which has squalor at the foot and luxury at the top. Her original contribution is an arctic expedition with all the comforts of home, followed by a relief expedition, consisting of the hero's mother and fiancée, who come up with him at Newfoundland and lead him back in triumph to the wealth and station which are his temporarily alienated birthright. Miss Magruder's novel may be remembered by one taking notes on the manners of high society in America. It appears that though a girl may have an available grandmother, aunt, and guardian, she cannot "go out" or even stay at home properly without a hired chaperon. The chaperon appears to be an aristocratic appanage, an American equivalent for the ancient feudal retinue, or for the guard of honor which attends royalty. The story of 'The Violet' is that of a chaperon who refused to "go out," but spent the time accepting homage from her employers, and fascinating the guardian with her exquisite clothes and air of unhappy mystery. Mr. Gibson has provided drawings of Violet and her clothes which emphasize rather than extenuate the inanity and foolish pretentiousness of the text.

In a display of technical ignorance, "Ian Maclaren's" novel, 'Kate Carnegie,' is not far behind 'The Metropolitans' or 'Violet.' He sets out with a love tale; soon becomes involved in a theological controversy interspersed with anecdotes unintelligible south of the Clyde, about people and places with unpronounceable names; and returns to the love affair as a concession to the requirements of romance. This love affair is thin, dull, and conventional, and the worth of the rest can be estimated only by those learned in the Scotch tongue, and capable of appreciating the excitement of a Free Kirk Presbytery when "the minister of Kilbagie accused the minister of Drumtochty of teaching the Linlathan heresy of the Fatherhood of God in a sermon before the Sacrament."

The incidents narrated by Mr. Joel Chandler Harris in 'Sister Jane' are old fashioned, romantic, improbable, quite in the atmosphere of middle Georgia before the war. The manner is grave, repressed, a little stilted—qualities natural to a middle-aged bachelor, observant and reflective, and very much under the thumb of a bustling sister made up of a sharp tongue, a soft heart, and pronounced taste for management. Mr. Harris's quiet picture of an old-time Southern community is vivid and interesting, and seems to be true to fact. There is no violent contrast between the condition of the master and that of the slave, but an easy, harmonious assimilation, based on recognition of common humanity, without much reference to difference of color. Of course his representation does not cover the whole South, but only a section where the spirit of true democracy had not been contaminated; where, as he says, "the aristocracy of caste could hardly find a spot of ground on which to plant its dainty feet," and where integrity went farther than wealth. All his people own slaves, but are not therefore proud, splendid, and barbaric. The finest person socially, and the villain of the plot, is a colonel by courtesy, but his family is intimate with "Sister Jane," the tailoress, and exchanges "howdy" familiarly with all the village. The dialect used is similar to that which is pushed to incomprehensibility by Mr. Malcolm Johnston. Mr. Harris employs it with discretion as a medium for heightening color in funny old men (Grandsir Johnny Roach and Uncle Jimmy Cosby), for adding individuality to the irony of Mrs. Beshears and pathos to the distress of Mandy Satterlee.

The last chapters of 'Sister Jane' are somewhat tiresome and bewildering. There is too much strain on capacity for joy by the return of a long lost uncle and long-lost son, together with so much repenting and forgiving that the mind fails to distinguish between the sinner and the sinned against. We moderns resent such complications in life, and skip them in stories; but Mr. Harris, writing about simple Georgians of the forties, probably shared the primitive enthusiasm for strange coincidence and sentimental adjustments, and so fell into what would have pleased his characters, tak-

ing no thought for the duty of pleasing his readers.

The recently published volume, by Rudyard Kipling, entitled 'Soldier Stories,' contains nothing new, but the cream of the old. "The Man Who Was," "The Drums of the Fore and Aft," and "The Taking of Lungtungpen" cannot have too many editions as a practical recognition of both merit and popularity.

RECENT MUSICAL WORKS.

The Standard Opera-glass. By Charles Annesley. Lemcke & Buechner.

The Opera. By R. A. Streatfeild. Philadelphia: Lippincott.

How to Listen to Music. By Henry Edward Krehbiel. Scribners.

We are in the midst of the busiest and most varied opera season ever known in New York. First there was Col. Mapleson's Italian opera, then came the Metropolitan season of French, German, and Italian opera, which will be followed by Mr. Damrosch's German opera. Under these circumstances it may be assumed that the three books placed at the head of this review are timely publications. The first, indeed, is not a new-comer. It is in its eleventh edition, and, as it is revised and brought up to date, it may be considered the most satisfactory of the several books which attempt to tell the stories of the current operas. Mr. Annesley's list comprises no fewer than 119 operas, from which, however, those by Gramman, Kaskel, Kretschmar, Perfall, and some others might well have been omitted, as they have been sung only in Germany, and not often there. The omission of Massenet's operas is surprising, and many a purchaser will perhaps be indignant to find "Faust" missing; but he will learn that the plot has been placed under the head of "Marguerite," after the fashion of the Germans, who, to our confusion, use that title to distinguish Gounod's opera from Goethe's tragedy.

In Mr. Annesley's book the story of the opera is the main thing, although a few biographic and critical remarks are usually prefixed. In Mr. Streatfeild's book, on the other hand, while the plots of the most famous operas are also related, it is only incidentally; the main object of the book being to give a brief and clear account of the development of the opera from Peri and Monteverde, in the seventeenth century, to Wagner, Mascagni, and Humperdinck. There is also a chapter on opera in England, dealing with Balfe, Wallace, Benedict, Goring Thomas, Mackenzie, Stanford, Sullivan, and Cowen. That Mr. Streatfeild is quite up to date may be inferred from his including in this chapter a notice of Stanford's charming new Irish opera, "Shamus O'Brien," produced in London last year, and now running at the Broadway Theatre in New York. Nor does he say too much when he remarks that "Dr. Stanford's relation to the music of Ireland is here mainly what Weber's was to the Volkslied, and there is no inherent reason why 'Shamus O'Brien' should not be "the 'Freischütz' of a new school of British opera."

Mr. Streatfeild's book is entertaining throughout, and one of its best characteristics is its catholicity of taste. Reading the history of the opera, it is true, is a good deal like going through a cemetery reading the names of the dead on the tombstones. We have good literature thousands of years old, but the oldest operas ever sung now (Gluck's) are but little more than a century old; hence, although the opera was invented just three hundred years ago, all but eighteen pages of Streatfeild's book are properly devoted to the period beginning with and following the reforms of Gluck. It is rather odd, however, that so well-informed a critic as Mr. Fuller-Maitland should intimate, in an introduction to this book, that as music is the youngest art, so "the latest of the art-forms she herself has brought forth is unquestionably opera," when as a matter of fact it is one of the oldest in the shape used by Peri and Monteverde. He errs also in stating that Riemann's 'Opern-Handbuch' "does not descend to anything so frivolous as the narration of the stories." It does not always, it is true, but the plots of the more important operas are usually given. In other respects Mr. Fuller-Maitland's introduction is of interest; for example, he has a ready answer to those who say the opera is an unnatural art-form because in real life people do not talk in song:

"If it be conceded that the characters in a drama may be allowed to speak blank verse, it is hardly more than a step further to permit the action to be carried on by means of vocal utterance in music. . . . It is no more unnatural for the raptures of Wagner's lovers or the swan-song of ecstasy to be sung than for the young man whose character Tennyson assumes, to utter himself in measured verse, sometimes of a highly complex structure."

Mr. Krehbiel's book also has a chapter on the opera, but it does not go into details about special works and composers (except incidentally for illustration), but considers the opera as a general branch of music, and gives a bird's-eye view of it from every possible point of view—the singers, the orchestra, the libretto, the declamation and recitative, different forms (grand, comic, buffa, etc.), classical, romantic, and modern, Wagner's reforms, etc., with special remarks on Grisi, Jenny Lind, Lilli Lehmann, Sontag, Patti, Gerster, Lucca, Melba, Eames, Calvé, the De Reszkés, and others. Those who wail for the good old times in song will do well to ponder these remarks:

"For the development of dramatic ideals we must look to the singers of German affiliations or antecedents, Mmes. Materna, Lehmann, Sucher, and Nordica. As for the men of yesterday and to day, no lover, I am sure, of the real lyric drama would give the declamatory warmth and gracefulness of pose and action which mark the performances of M. Jean de Reszké for a hundred of the high notes of Mario (for one of which, we are told, he was wont to reserve his powers all evening), were they never so lovely. Neither does the fine, resonant, equable voice of Édouard de Reszké or the finished style of Plançon leave us with curious longings touching the voices and manners of Lablache and Formes. Other times, other manners, in music as in everything else."

The opera is only one of the forms of music described in Mr. Krehbiel's book. Other chapters are entitled "Recognition of Musical Elements" (melody, harmony, rhythm; motives, phrases, periods, etc.); "The Content and Kinds of Music," dealing chiefly with programme music; "The Modern Orchestra," describing the different groups and individual instruments, and their place in the organism, together with timely remarks on the rise of the modern interpreter in place of the old-fashioned time-beater; "At an Orchestral Concert," describing symphonies, overtures, concertos, etc.; "At a Piano Recital," telling about the classic and romantic writers for that instrument and the different forms used by them; "Choirs and Choral Music," etc.

The sub title of this book is "Hints and Suggestions to Untaught Lovers of the Art," and in accordance with this aim the treatise is written in a clear and untechnical style. The seams of the union of the topics are sometimes visible, but this, perhaps, was difficult to avoid, and does not affect the book's didactic value. The question of the relation of music to feeling is superficially treated, nor would a more detailed account have been in place in such a work. Mr. Krehbiel is at his best in academical discussions, as when (on pp. 137–9) he traces the evolution of the attempt to unite the different movements of the symphony through Beethoven, Berlioz, and Schumann to Dvorák, which is done with admirable insight and erudition. He also has some amusing remarks (10–12) on the errors made by literary men when they write about music. It is not likely, however, that they could be taught to avoid such errors by reading a dozen books on that art. The secret of the understanding and appreciation of good music lies in hearing it over and over again. Given the opportunity and willingness to do this, literary men may become musical enthusiasts and even discriminating judges of what is good, bad, or mediocre, though they may not be able, to save their lives, to tell the difference between a motive, a phrase, and a period. This is not said by way of condemnation of Mr. Krehbiel's book, the aim of which is excellent, and which contains information that every student of music ought to have.

Being a musical critic himself, Mr. Krehbiel naturally has a high opinion of the critic's office—although the dedication of his book indicates that he needed a colleague to help him "to respect musical criticism." He says he has been told that many people wait for their newspapers to help them make up their minds as to whether a certain performance gave them sufficient enjoyment. He says, further, that he conceives that "the first, if not the sole, office of the critic should be to guide public judgment." But it is a matter of history that if the public had followed the guidance of the critics, every musical genius that ever arose would have been nipped in the bud and crushed under foot. The musical critics who guided public judgment in the channel that time showed to be the right one can be counted on the fingers of one hand. In speaking of charlatans, the author remarks that "it is the critic who stands between him and the public he would victimize"; but he might more correctly have said that as a rule the critic stands between the man of genius and the public that wishes to adore him; Wagner and Liszt being conspicuous instances. Indeed, a book on 'How to Listen to Music' seems to be needed less by "untaught lovers of the art" than by the vast majority of musical critics.

WASHINGTON AND HIS LEGEND.

The True George Washington. By Paul Leicester Ford. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1896. Pp. 318.

George Washington. By Woodrow Wilson. Harper & Bros. 1896.

It is, Mr. Ford tells us in his preface, the tendency of all nations to make their great men superhuman; and it is particularly remarkable how Americans should engage in the same practice of

"hero building which has given us Jupiter, Wotan, King Arthur, and others. . . . Indeed, with such characters as Washington, Franklin, and Lincoln, we have practically adopted the English maxim, 'The King can do no wrong.' In place of men,

limited by human limits and influenced by human passions, we have demi-gods, so stripped of all human characteristics as to make us question even whether they deserve much credit for their sacrifices and deeds. . . . If the present work succeeds in humanizing Washington and making him a man rather than an historical figure, its purpose will have been fulfilled."

The rest of the preface is mostly to the same purport, and the whole statement seems to involve some confusion. In the first place, the process of making Washington or Lincoln a thing "enskied and sainted" is not at all analogous to what has happened to any of Mr. Ford's typical "heroes." The Jupiter he has read about in Virgil was notoriously in Virgil's time a nature myth humanized; whether Odin—for, like Pisistratus Caxton's father, one prefers one's old favorites—is really a man or another nature myth, or both run together, is too doubtful to admit of using his name as a parallel; and while King Arthur may be—probably is—a real man elevated into a military saint and wonder-worker, he has not come down to us in a biography crowded with deeds perfectly attested, as well as attributes invented or exaggerated. The stainless Arthur of the "Idylls" is not offered by Tennyson as an historical personage. There is as yet no sign of such hero-building as would make Washington defeat Howe at Bunker Hill, or Franklin assist Joseph II. in his reforms, or Lincoln emancipate the serfs of Russia; yet of this sort are the myths which the Middle Ages flung round Alexander and Charlemagne. Whatever incidents may have been suppressed or invented in the lives of our heroes, belonged to their characters rather than to their exploits. In fact, Mr. Ford himself admits that the Autobiography of Franklin, with all its homely details, is still read with keen delight; yet no one who accepts that as an authentic record is likely to call its author faultless, filled as it is with his own "errata."

But the serious confusion in Mr. Ford's preface, expressing, as it undoubtedly does, a general feeling in our country to-day, is between ascribing to a man superhuman attainments and according to him merely an exceptional development of human qualities. Chastity, veracity, patience, and the like—in a word, self-control—are just as much human virtues as generosity, courage, and persistency. Indeed, the Greek conception of the virtues may almost all be reduced to self-control. No one has ever denied the perfect veracity of Epaminondas, the absolute continence of Scipio, or the never-failing serenity of Marlborough; those superlative virtues are neither more nor less historical because parts of the life of Epaminondas could not be spoken of to-day, because Scipio shielded his brother's corruption, or because Marlborough was a miser and a traitor. Why should we withhold credit from any number of human virtues, unless we find them coupled with some vices? Why is the traditional Washington any more mythical than Antoninus or Alfred? By all means let us have him as he was—a man; but do not let us insist in advance that a man is any less a man because he possesses in the highest degree the most distinctively human attribute, impossible to a beast and useless to a god, the power to check his faults and perfect his nature. Washington has been held up for generations as better than other men because the world found him so; because, in an age of detraction, his alleged faults disproved themselves. The world found him practising harmoniously virtues that were by no means superhuman, but which rarely met in such perfection in one man.

Such humanity, however, the present age says, it does not like. It is so much easier and more comfortable to mix up a few vices with one's virtues. They console one so admirably for the hard work of having any virtues at all that men are wont to say humanity means picturesque one-sidedness and healthy imperfection; and if any great man has been drawn free from those base qualities, why, the picture must be untrue; and so, why, he must have had them. In other words, history must be rewritten to suit a theory of human imperfection which shall turn all men, even the best and greatest, into an image not of a *Bon Dieu*, but of a *Bon Diable*. Men used to like a man better the nearer he was to the human ideal and the farther from human weakness; such goodness was encouraging to his weak, struggling brothers The new theory is that we do not want an ideal to encourage our efforts; we want a brother sinner to encourage our self-complacency. Surely a more conceited man than your Pharisee is he who says, "God, I thank thee that Franklin was a man such as I am."

Unfortunately, stern history will not be so dealt with—"The facts are ag'in' it." Mr. Ford, without writing a Life of Washington, has gone through his career, and, dividing it up into topics, and considering his subject in different relations, such as "Education," "Physique," "Social Tastes," and the like, has tried to show what Washington himself and his contemporaries tell us about him. The result is as the author himself sums it up in his preface: "It has only served to make Washington the greater to him." The closer we pry into his domestic life, the deeper, the tenderer, the more playful, yet the more self-sacrificing, appear his affections, especially as, under Mr. Ford's microscope, it is Mary and Martha who lose their traditional virtues and charm, and not the son and husband. The sharpest criticism of Washington's campaigns indicates that he was not the "Fabius" he was so often called, but rather a Marcellus, prone to attack, generally successful so far as his attacks received adequate support, but honestly diffident of his military skill, and deferring to the opinion of those he believed to have wider reading and experience in warfare, so as to be accused more than once of indecision. Yet in the end it appears that he understood the nature of the campaigns far better than his adversaries, and that such an army as we had owed its very existence almost wholly to his personal efforts.

The desired vices are, indeed, sadly lacking. A few more precious instances of profane language are recorded for the pleasure of his cavillers—one, in particular, resting on the evidence of Jefferson, at the time when Mr. Ford sees only too clearly that Jefferson's secret enmity to Washington was developing. By drawing into the service Washington's use of military stratagems and of one instance of reserve, he makes it not impossible that Washington did not invariably utter the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth. He does show that Washington was susceptible to female attraction; but that he was so in any sense but a virtuous one depends, as Mr. Ford says with just indignation, on letters that are always cited and never produced—the sort of talk that is "bandied about in clubs" and belongs exactly there, and not on the pages of history. In a word, this book is a monument of industry, and shows beyond all question that while Americans need never hesitate to play with their Father's memory, as the children of his own time were used to do with himself, they need not fear that there is anything in the record which asks for concealment by pious sons.

Prof. Woodrow Wilson's 'George Washington' first appeared in the pages of a magazine, and is of a very different quality from Mr. Ford's work. It is to be judged as a literary essay rather than as a study of character, and the skilful use of well-known incidents, described in flowing periods, makes it suited for the reader who is to be amused or easily instructed in the main features of Washington's life. As such it would suffer under a critical analysis, for the material is not infrequently of doubtful origin, and the statements of fact are sometimes not beyond question. Who, for example, ever knew that George Washington was the uncle of Lund Washington? No genealogy, however experimental, has ever said this, but Mr. Wilson states it as a fact. In these pages we meet with the commonly accepted view of Washington. He is the model son, the splendid soldier, and the transcendent statesman. The sense of proportion is not well maintained, and too little attention is paid to his second term as President. If it was intended to give an account of the social forces and conditions that made Washington, the book is inadequate; and it is also inadequate as a description of the man. We are left in doubt whether Mr. Wilson began to write a history or a biography; and as he appears to have had both undertakings in his mind, it would be unjust to dwell upon the shortcomings of either. He has produced a very readable sketch, but it is not what was to have been looked for from his pen.

FEUDAL AND MODERN JAPAN.

Feudal and Modern Japan. By Arthur May Knapp. Boston: Joseph Knight Co. Two vols. 12mo, illustrated. 1896.

THE form of these two pretty volumes, clothed in white and gold, suggests the fine taste and rich culture of the author, who was resident for several years in Japan as a Unitarian missionary. In size they are 5½x4 inches and each an inch thick. Indeed, with scores of works on Japan upon our shelves, we do not know of any in which the dainty things and people and scenery in Japan have been more charmingly and successfully reproduced. Though unfortunately lacking an index, of which, to say the least, it is thoroughly worthy, the work contains a select bibliography, with brief but luminous notes such as only a critical reader could prepare. Of modern books of first grade of value and in English there are but few omissions.

The subjects chosen for discussion are such as the serious student of Japan will delight in reading about. Comparatively little is said concerning those external features of country and people in which the average shallow tourist revels. Mr. Knapp gets nearer the pulp and sap, if not to the roots, of this flowering century-plant among the nations. His themes are not of the géisha, nor of the silk shops, nor of the wrestlers, nor even of the theatre. He calls Japan the Robinson Crusoe of the nations, and then seeks to know some of the secrets of the continuing virility and progress of this former hermit nation. Why, instead of degenerating, are the Japanese able to-day to take their place and hold it among "civilized" nations? De-foe resorted to fiction to show how a castaway

sailor held his own, but progressive Japan is a fact. This is Mr. Knapp's engaging theme, and ably does he discuss it. His chapters deal with the spirit of unconquerable Japan, the people under feudalism, feudal commerce, the social outcast, the religious or patriotic cult of Shintō, and the invasions of religion from China, India, and Europe and their fate. In the companion volume the author treats of the colloquial and written language, of the temple and house, of those inversions and contradictions from which the Japanese no more than other peoples are free. The final chapter is on national unity. Mr. Knapp's reference to modern Japan is slender indeed as compared with his bright lights and deep perspectives of feudal, ancient, prehistoric and mysterious Japan.

That he writes as a lover, while professing to be a critic and evidently sincerely trying to be judicious, is manifest on every page. It is none the less true that in his general statements and in his references, direct or indirect, to his fellow-missionaries, he lacks not only accuracy, but charity. Furthermore, the vice of exaggeration seems to run through a large part of the author's description of Japan in feudal days. In his exuberant rhetoric, he is constantly asserting, with varied phraseology, that to this or that Japanese virtue, event, achievement, etc., etc., "the history of the world affords no parallel"; which seems to show either that the author is unfamiliar with the details of the world's history, including that of the actual old Japan, or that he is overcome by that glamour which so often deceives a judicial mind. He would have us believe that each Japanese village throughout the empire was an ideal democracy, with which the New England town system could not be compared with advantage. He seems to insist that in righteousness, justice, compassion, and the nobler virtues the rulers of Japan were, as a rule, superior to those of any other country in the world, and that the general condition of the people was that of marvellous happiness. In a word, he paints Japan as the natives do—as the land of the holy spirits.

It must be remembered that Mr. Knapp reached Japan about twenty years after the complete abolition of Japanese feudalism, and that his impressions of the past are derived, not from first view, but from a study of that strong Japanophile, the late Dr. Simmons, with whose kindly heart and judgment, as well as with his sorrows and alienation from his home land and friends, the writer of this review (who, by the way, actually lived under the Japanese feudal system and saw it in detail) was well acquainted. From our personal sight, knowledge, and critical study of feudalism in several provinces, we cannot accept Mr. Knapp's highly colored picture for reality. In the first place, Dr. Simmons's studies were confined, in the main, to those provinces under the direct control of the Tokugawa family. These were notoriously above the general condition of the hundreds of feudal fiefs. From personal acquaintance with Dr. Simmons's life and work, we know that this kind physician and noble student took the larger portion of his notes (which our American scholar, Prof. Wigmore, has digested with such valuable results) from old men and mature students. These men were almost passionate worshippers of the shōgunal old régime and of the customs and ideals of the feudal system in which they had been born. As heirs of the almost immemorial past, in which they had been reared until the new order of things rudely destroyed their world of ideas and left them broken down, disappointed, and poverty-stricken men, they could not but gild in their memories scenes which won a glory from being far away. Who does not know the old man and woman's reminiscences of the golden days of youth, and the proverb, "The former days were better than these"?

Mr. Knapp proceeds on the basis of two assumptions which, though popular, are not well founded: (1) that, for two centuries and a half, Japan was not only in "strict seclusion from all the world," enjoying no fertilizing or leavening contact with outside nations—a proposition which he sets forth with marvellous wealth of rhetoric and pertinacity (and almost pugnacity) of asseveration; (2) that the sole idea of the founders of the Tokugawa dynasty of Shōguns in Yedo (1604-1668), in ordering all seaworthy vessels to be destroyed and stopping all foreign commerce, was to isolate Japan and keep out foreign influences. As a matter of fact, Japan was never at any time impervious to foreign influence. She was not only subject to the osmose of the outside world, but she deliberately kept open at least one sluiceway. At Nagasaki, communication with China and her satellite nations and more or less with the rest of Asia was steadily maintained. The exchange of ideas and books, as well as of persons and commodities, was constant. Perhaps Japan never had in so small a compass a richer and more potent infusion than that of the refugee scholars who, on the fall of the Ming dynasty, entered from China and established themselves in Yedo and Mito, which Mr. Knapp aptly calls "the Boston of Japan." Still more significant is the fact that without a single annual intermittance, and often by semi-annual communication with Holland, there was a constant fertilizing stream of new ideas, of books and of learning from Europe, which kept the Japanese mass well leavened during the years from 1604 to 1868. There is no need of argument to prove these hard facts, which no one who is familiar either with the original Japanese records and the monographs of native scholars, or with the biographical works written during the last thirty years, which show the direct and vitalizing contact of the mind of Europe with that of Nippon through the Dutchmen at Nagasaki, would think of denying or even, without manifest polemic bias, attenuating. On the other hand, there is a vast library of Dutch documents in the archives of the Netherlands, and scores of printed books, which give proof of the constant fertilization of the Japanese intellect. This alien testimony is all the more valuable because the Dutch authors show scarcely a trace of boasting as to great results, whether or not foreseen or expected. In reality, there was nothing like a perfect intellectual blockade or "strict seclusion."

In the second place, the purpose of the "Japanese Government" deliberately to shut up the country from the nations, with the idea of keeping out all foreign influences, does not appear to the student of contemporary Japanese documents of the seventeenth century. Indeed, it is hard to see anything of the sort supposed by Mr. Knapp and so often imagined by foreigners and even by some Japanese. One thing does appear clear to the student, and that is that the double policy of inclusion and exclusion conceived and enforced by the Tokugawas, and by them only, had in view solely the political stability and continuance in power of the family of the Tokugawas. Accordingly, the elaborate feudal system of Japan, with duarchy of rulers, was reconstructed and rearranged, and the two capitals, Kioto and Yedo, surrounded by the most loyal vassals of the Shōgun. The "foreign policy of Japan" from the early seventeenth to the mid-nineteenth century was simply a party, clan, and personal affair.

It may be that the Japanese have all the qualities and potencies which Mr. Knapp so glowingly ascribes to them. Still, the scientific student, in order to form a cool judgment, must look at all the facts in the case, especially since Mr. Knapp insists that the virtues of the present are the direct and unchangeable outgrowths of the past. Making, as we believe he does, too broad generalizations from Mr. Wigmore's studies, turning bare facts often into epics and idyls, he gives wrong impressions of the past reality. Instead of the almost Edenic peace and calm and happy satisfaction of the peasantry with their rulers, the reader familiar with Japanese local history recalls, in many of the fiefs and provinces, chronic stories of bloody uprisings of cruel lords and gentry. The "pinching and searching economies" concerned the farmers and common people rather than the *samurai*, who lived without paying tolls or taxes. When, further, Mr. Knapp quotes his friend Fukuzawa—ever noble and illustrious name—and understands him to say (pp. 50 51) (even supposing a time limit of one man's life), that *only three* cases had been known in which "the hundred thousand samurai of his province had ever exercised the cruel privilege" of slaying without fear of punishment any inferiors who chanced to incur their anger, we wonder whether the author has any sense of humor. Indeed, there are not a few pages in this charming work where a keener sense of the funniness of exaggeration might have tempered our author's statements. When we remember that over one-twelfth of the population wore swords, paid no toll or taxes, and lived among unarmed inferior and more numerous classes of people who were political ciphers, having very few rights which the two-sworded man was bound to respect, even one who makes use of the same data accessible to Mr. Knapp cannot, Japanophile though he be, reach his conclusion. When to these data are added personal memories of popular local tales of murder, the actual sight of dead bodies lying in the streets cut down by the sword-wearers, and, above all, when one knows well the popular literature of Japan, he must necessarily picture a state of things quite different from what Mr. Knapp sets forth.

However, for the general reader who wants enjoyment, and would know the bright side of old Japan, these very fascinating volumes, gems of beauty and treasures of delight, form the best accessible introduction to the study of feudal Japan. Even those who think Mr. Knapp's pictures over-colored will thank author and publisher for this contribution to a study that increases in fascination as its depths are explored.

The Elder Pliny's Chapters on the History of Art. Translated by K. Jex-Blake; with an historical introduction and commentary by Eugénie Sellers, and additional notes contributed by H. L. Urlichs. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THE Elder Pliny is a writer with whom few scholars other than archæologists or grammarians have more than a bowing acquaintance. While the polite letters of that bland gentle-

man, his nephew, are regularly taken as an antidote to Juvenal, the laborious uncle is as regularly skipped. He is avoided partly for his form, partly for his matter. Pliny's Latin is too unclassical to figure among the "set books" of the Oxford schools, just classical enough to provide cases of over-development and back waters of syntax in an historical treatment of the same. A style that reflects the rhetoric of Seneca and foreshadows the epigrammatic brevity of Tacitus is, of course, eclipsed by comparison with either. Yet it has a claim on the historian of style, and when Quintilian admitted that the *contorta vis orationis*—the "contorted manner"—might have its uses for holding the attention, he may have been thinking of the learned involutions of the Elder Pliny.

The collection of literature always follows close on its decay. Pliny read more books than any other man of his age, and read them all with a view to the collection of literary curiosities. Literary reminiscences were the stock-in-trade of the profession of Sophist which was rapidly coming into fashion, and we are told that one of these showy declaimers offered upwards of $16,000 for Pliny's notebooks—that legacy to Pliny the nephew of 160 volumes from which the 'Historia Naturalis' had been compiled. So far, then, Pliny is the Roman counterpart of Athenæus, but here the parallel ends, for while the 'Deipnosophists' has been abridged to a mere thesaurus of quotations, Pliny wove his extracts into a text that, by its terseness, defied the epitomizers of the following centuries. His art history and art criticism were but a drop of water in the comprehensive ocean of his interests. What he had aimed at writing was an encyclopædia of the whole range of natural products, but there are episodes dealing with their application by human skill; the history of painters being a digression in the chapter on "kinds of earth and stones"—*terrae ipsius genera lapidumque.*

Without the slightest talent for observation, Pliny relied entirely upon books, but a defect that makes him irritating to the natural scientist is his chief credential as the historian of art and artists. Art criticism is the last thing we want from a Roman. To be æsthetic was not in the Roman blood, and æsthetic emotion was never anything more than a pose with the Grecomaniacs of the Empire. When one recalls Cicero's condescending excuses for the infatuation of those poor Greek beggars with the cold comfort of their art treasures, or the immortal contract of Mummius for the replacement, by facsimiles, of works of art lost at sea, one is not disposed to cavil at Pliny's plagiarisms. He frequently misinterprets his Greek originals, but Pliny's whole-souled blunders are not likely to mislead, and we can afford to touch lightly on the identification of Myron the Statuary with Myro, the girl friend of Erinna, or the differentiation of the Doryphoros of Polykleitos—the "common measure" of perfect man—from the "Canon." All Pliny's criticism and analysis of Greek works of art is Greek in origin, and his æsthetic appreciations are never his own; his chronological treatment is incomplete—for instance, he makes a bare allusion to the celebrated Pergamene school of art, and that not in its proper place; in many cases he speaks of works of art that had disappeared long before his generation as though they were still in Rome; in all his pages of art history there is, perhaps, only one instance where he speaks from observation. After half a century of tooth-and-nail criticism the Germans have left Pliny a tattered thing. But the borrowings from the Greek Xenocrates and Duris and Antigonos of Karystos and the Roman Varro that have been identified with tolerable certainty have nearly all their original value for the archæologist. The work of tracing Pliny's sources, begun by Otto Jahn in the middle of this century, has been carried on by Brieger, Brunn, Urlichs, and Furtwängler; and, only last year, Münzer, in the *Hermes*, detected Varro under Pliny, and sighted the Greek beyond Varro.

The most important feature of the present work is the historical introduction by Miss Sellers, which is a suggestive and scholarly survey of the efforts of the German critics to estimate the precise debt of Pliny to Varro and the Greek historians of art, and, where possible, to assign his own contribution to each one of these ultimate sources. Miss Sellers is also responsible for the excellent commentary. Here, as in the introduction, both from her own studies and from communication with German workers in the same field, she has been able to throw light on many disputed passages. We note, in passing, that her elaborate explanations of the word *scaena*, wherever it occurs in the Latin text, betray the disciple of Dörpfeld. The selections from Pliny here translated are practically the same as those published with notes by the elder Urlichs as part of his 'Chrestomathia Pliniana' (Berlin, 1857)—*i. e.*, those portions of the Thirty-third, Thirty-fourth, and Thirty-fifth Books of the 'Historia' that deal with silver-chasing, bronze statuary, painting, modelling, and sculpture in marble; and considerable use, with due acknowledgment, has been made of that excellent edition. The direct share of the younger Urlichs in the work is not important, and the notes bracketed as his are designed chiefly to point out alphabetical groupings which, now and then, help to settle a disputed reading.

The text is based on that of Detlefsen (1866-73), with, however, a closer adherence to the tenth-century Codex Bambergensis. There are other deviations from Detlefsen suggested by later criticism, and, in some cases, the earlier readings of Sillig (1855) or of Urlichs (1857) are retained, but the critical apparatus is slight. In xxxiv. 71, Miss Sellers's preference for the above Codex leads her to read *fecit, se impari, equis sine æmulo expressis*, which is inferior in sense and grammar to that of Detlefsen, *fecit, equis semper sine*, etc. In the same passage is offered the radical emendation *Alcman poeta* for the MS. *Alchimena;* the editor's objection to *Alcumena* (Urlichs, etc) is based on the expression *in hominum effigie*, which she considers inappropriate for a feminine subject; but this will hardly hold (*cf.* xxxv. 113, *nihil aliud quam homines pinxit*, where *homines* is rightly translated "figures," *i. e.*, men and women as opposed to animals, etc.). It is true that Pliny elsewhere writes *Alcmena*, but the archaic *Alcumena* is found in Cicero (*Nat. Deor.*, iii. 16) and is quite in place in an author deeply in debt to Varro. Miss Jex-Blake's translation is skilful throughout, and often very ingenious. On page 71 we fail to see why *violentia Neronis* should be rendered by the curious phrase, "Nero, by the strong hand. . . ."

The general effect of accurate scholarship in the book is marred by certain inconsistencies of notation. We take at random Lucian, *Dial. Meretr.* (p. 71), Lucian, The Liars (p. 62); Lucian "Ερωτες (p. 193); Maenads, mainades, and mainads all occur as the English forms; Vergil (p. 12), Virgil (p. 197); Cyrus and Kyros (p. 185); Crete (p. 185) and Krete (p. 223); whereas Miss Sellers regularly writes "indices," Miss Jex-Blake has the last word with "indexes." A word, too, about the spelling of the Greek names. Miss Sellers's rule is to transliterate, where possible, but she has not always had the courage of her convictions. Where one so drastic fears to tread we have no inclination to rush in, but alongside of Delphoi, Soloi, Ailian, Souidas, and Akademic we have the right to expect Loukian, Douris, and Skylla. There, however, Miss Sellers drew the line.

To the list of corrigenda we add the following: p. xiii, for "distinct to" read "distinct from"; p. xliv, for "Xenocratic" read "Xenokratic" as elsewhere; p. xlix, for "Demetrius" read "Demetrios" (*cf.* p. lvi); p. 35, for "Silanus" read "Salanus"; p. 47 for "p. 301" (in Pater's 'Greek Studies') read "p. 305"; p. 53, for "huntsman" read "huntsmen"; p. 74 for "Arrius and Pæta" read "Arria and Pætus;" p. 85, for "Hollwerda" read "Holwerda"; p. 144, for "contradiction" read "contradistinction"; p. 146, for "Moschos I." read "Moschos II."; p. 169, for "extinctæ" read "exstinctæ," as in text.

The book will appeal especially, we imagine, to candidates for Part II. (Archæology) of the Cambridge Classical Tripos; but for all students of archæology it will serve as a much needed handbook to those portions of Pliny that are indispensable to the study of Greek and Roman art history.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Barrett, Wilson. The Sign of the Cross. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Barry, J. D. Mademoiselle Blanche. Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Bennett, F. M. The Steam Navy of the United States. Pittsburgh: Warren & Co. $5.
Berkeley, Ch. de Marcelle, et Aventure en Voyage. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Book-Prices Current. 1896. London: Elliot Stock.
Burke's Speech on Conciliation. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 25c.
Fortier, Prof. Alcée. Napoléon: Extracts. Boston: Ginn & Co. 55c.
Freytag, Gustav. Martin Luther. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.
Campbell, Helen. Household Economics. Putnams. $1.50.
Candiani, R. Tolstoi. [Pages Choisies des Auteurs Contemporains.] Paris: Colin & Cie.
Cartault, Prof. A. Étude sur les Bucoliques de Virgile. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Charrington, Charles. A Sturdy Beggar. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Charrington, Charles. Lady Bramber's Ghost. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Clouston, Octavia. What Would the World Think? Dodworth Publishing House.
Cornill, Prof. C. H. The Prophets of Israel. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 25c
Davis, M. E. M. A Christmas Masque of Saint Roch. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.
Dodge, W. R. A Strong Man Armed, and Other Tales. London: Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co.
Edwards, Dr. W. A., and Harraden, Beatrice. Two Health-Seekers in Southern California. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Green, Anna K. That Affair Next Door. Putnams. $1.
Greene, Dr. Reuben. Thoughts for the People. Boston: Lee & Shepard
Holiday, Henry. Stained Glass as an Art. Macmillan. $6.50.
Holm, Adolf. The History of Greece. Vol. III. Macmillan. $2 50.
Hoyt, J. K. The Cyclopedia of Practical Quotations. New Edition, revised, corrected, and enlarged. Funk & Wagnalls Co
Hunter, Sir W. W. The Thackerays in India, and Some Calcutta Graves. Henry Frowde.
Johnston, Prof. A., and Woodburn, Prof. J. A. American Orations Vol. III. Putnams. $1.25.
Kent, Prof. C. F. A History of the Hebrew People. The Divided Kingdom. Scribners. $1.25.
Lanier, Sidney. The English Novel. Revised ed. Scribners. $2.
Leake, Frederick. Historic Bubbles. Albany: Riggs Publishing Co. $2 50.
Little, Rev A. W. The Intellectual Life of the Priest: its Duties and its Dangers. Milwaukee: Young Churchman Co. 15c.
Macleod, H. D. The History of Economics. London: Bliss, Sands & Co.; New York: Putnams.
Maxruder, Julia. Miss Ayr of Virginia, and Other Stories. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.25.
Maud, Constance. Wagner's Heroines. Edward Arnold.
Maupassant, Guy de. Madame Tellier's Girls. G. W. Dillingham Co. 50c.
Meunier, G. Joséphа. G. W. Dillingham Co 50c.
Morgan, Prof. C. L. Habit and Instinct. Edward Arnold $4.
Morris, I. N With the Trade-Winds: A Jaunt in Venezuela and the West Indies. Putnams. $1.25.
Morrison, W. D. Juvenile Offenders Appletons. $1.50.
Norton, J. S. Addresses and Fragments in Prose and Verse. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Oldenberg, Prof. H. Ancient India: Its Language and Religions. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 50c.
Paston, George. The Career of Candida. Appletons. $1.

Rafter, G. W. Mechanics of Ventilation. 2d ed., revised. D Van Nostrand Co. 50c.
Reynolds, Dr. E. S. Hygiene for Beginners. Macmillan. 70c.
Roberts, Field-Marshal Lord. Forty-one Years in India. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $12.
Roberts, C G. D. The Book of the Native. Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Ross, Albert. His Foster Sister. G. W. Dillingham Co. $1.
Sharp, William. Wives in Exile: A Comedy in Romance. Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Sloane, Prof. W. M. Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. Vol II. Century Co.
Soderini, Count Edward. Socialism and Catholicism. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Wagner, Richard. A Pilgrimage to Beethoven. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. 50c.
Wells, Carolyn. At the Sign of the Sphinx: A Book of Charades. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Moser and Heiden's Köpnickerstrasse 120. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Wenley, Prof. R M. Contemporary Theology and Theism. Scribners. $1.25.

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THE ATLANTIC MONTHLY

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The first of a series of notable articles. The differences between ancient democracies and modern, and an explanation of the greatest dangers and gravest problems of the present; plutocracy; the giving of offices as rewards. *Editor of The Nation (N. Y.).*

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The results of one of the most wisely bestowed benefactions in human history; its benefits to be continued. *Johns Hopkins University.*

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Author of "The Hon. Peter Stirling."

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The results of the investigation by the Committee of Fifty of the effects of liquor laws in Maine, Iowa, South Carolina, Massachusetts, and four other States. *of Harvard University.*

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 4, 1897.

The Week.

THE most encouraging event since the defeat of Bryanism three months ago is the selection of Lyman J. Gage of Chicago as the next Secretary of the Treasury. On the 3d of November the voters of the United States declared against the movement to depreciate the currency, and showed their readiness to support an administration which would grapple with the financial problem that has so long confronted the country. On the 28th of January the President-elect authorized the announcement that he had given charge of the Treasury Department to a man whose record and character show him to be admirably qualified for this great task. It is not an exaggeration to say that the choice of Mr. Gage as Secretary of the Treasury will give the business men of the country a sense of confidence in the future such as they have not felt for years. Mr. Gage has not only learned the trade of a banker, but has mastered the principles which underlie banking. We think it within bounds to say that there is not a man in the country engaged in the practical administration of financial affairs who has more thoroughly demonstrated his knowledge of the whole science of finance. A merely successful bank president is not all that the emergency demands. We need a man who understands the principles which experience has shown to be fundamental in the conduct, not simply of a particular bank, but of all great financial affairs. A prosperous business man is not seldom a man of narrow views and small knowledge outside of his own limited range of activity. He must possess a broad mastery of business generally in order to supervise intelligently the financial affairs of a nation. This is Mr. Gage's distinction among American bankers. It follows as a matter of course that the new Secretary is a thorough-going civil-service reformer. Mr. Gage was one of the chief agents in carrying through the movement by which two years ago Chicago applied the merit system to its municipal offices.

Mr. Gage's record as a civil-service reformer was all that was needed to assure the country how the next Secretary of the Treasury will stand on this question. Nevertheless, it is most gratifying to have this public announcement from the head of the most important department under the next Administration: "My appointments will be made with regard to merit, and not political obligation." The spoilsmen are as quick as the reformers to appreciate the significance of Mr. Gage's selection in respect to the spoils system. They had not, they tell us, expected it of McKinley. And yet in appointing such a man as Mr. Gage to the department which has most patronage, Mr. McKinley only does what he promised in his letter of acceptance, when he endorsed the pledge of the Republican national convention that the reform should be "extended wherever practicable," and declared that "the Republican party will seek to improve, but never degrade, the public service."

The silence that has come over some of our Republican contemporaries on the subject of greenback retirement since Mr. Gage's appointment as Secretary of the Treasury was announced, is quite remarkable. That Mr. Gage considers that step necessary to any real settlement of the currency question is shown by his written communication to the House banking committee. It does not follow that Congress will adopt this policy, which yet cannot fail to make great headway in public opinion and in party creed when such a man as Mr. Gage holds this position. If, as seems most probable, the Republican newspapers that have been heretofore praising the greenback as a precious ally in the civil war will contemplate it for a while in its more peaceful aspects, there will be a fine opportunity for rational discussion of this important matter—such discussion as Congressman Johnson of Indiana gave us in the House the other day. Of course the President-elect did not choose Mr. Gage without coming to a perfect understanding with him on this crucial question. What may be done to supply the place of the greenbacks when they are retired is a different question. It is one on which, very likely, Mr. Gage has not come to a definite conclusion; but there seems to be no doubt that the influence of the incoming Administration will be thrown in favor of the retirement of the greenbacks, and this is more than we expected three months or even three weeks ago.

The *Financial Chronicle* has a strong article on "The Nicaraguan Episode," in which attention is drawn to the fact pointed out by Senator Turpie, that the lands in Nicaragua and Costa Rica on which the Government's lien must rest have never been conveyed to the canal company. As the Minister of Nicaragua has officially notified Secretary Olney that the canal company's charter is forfeited, it results that, on the passage of the bill, the United States would come into possession of an empty shell. The first thing to be done would be to ask Nicaragua to furnish a right of way for the canal. Nicaragua would naturally ask why she should do that. Then Uncle Sam would say that he had bought a charter for a canal across the territory of Nicaragua and that he wanted to go to work. Then Nicaragua would very likely reply that not only was the charter in question forfeited for failure to do certain things within a certain time, but that it contained a clause providing for forfeiture in case the charter should be transferred to a government. Nicaragua might properly add that she had taken pains to notify Uncle S. of these conditions of the charter while he was negotiating with the sellers of it, and that some of his agents said that Nicaragua was trying to levy blackmail and that she was doing this at the instigation of Great Britain.

Now let us suppose that both of these charges were true, and were capable of proof; how are we going to build a canal across Nicaragua without a right of way? How are we going to take any step under a charter whose existence is denied by the Government of that country? We ask these questions because there is an evident disposition on the part of Senators Morgan, Aldrich, and other supporters of the bill to pass it still, or, as they say at Albany, to "jam it through." There is only one inference to be drawn from such headlong folly, and that is that they expect to buy a new charter from Nicaragua, or get the old one renewed, either with a part of the subsidy money or with money which can be raised on the strength of the subsidy, but outside of it. This is, perhaps, the blackmail that Morgan has so frequently referred to in his speeches. There is, however, not the least reason to expect the passage of the bill, which, even if it should be jammed through the Senate, would have to run the gauntlet of Speaker Reed's tomahawk and of President Cleveland's veto, both of which are doubtless held in reserve for it. As to the President-elect, it is safe to say that Senator Sherman represents his views on the subject. Mr. Sherman said in the debate last week that he was in favor of abandoning the present bill and taking up the subject *de novo*. It was this declaration that stirred up Aldrich to make the astounding declaration that the pending bill is "the only way by which the canal can be built."

Of all the rubbish talked about canals, the greatest is the rubbish which makes a canal outside its own territory useful to any nation in time of war. No nation expects to use a canal in time of war unless it holds both ends so securely that no fleet but its own can come near it. The Suez Canal is the only one in existence which ships of war can use at all, and

the treaty of neutralization forbids acts of hostility in the canal or within three miles of either end. This does no harm to any Power, and is distinctly in the interest of civilization. If a continental canal between two oceans or great seas were of great use to one of two belligerents, the other would have a strong motive for its destruction, for which an explosion of a lock or the sinking of a few cargoes of stone would be sufficient. No greater imposition has ever been attempted on the people of the United States than the notion that the Nicaragua Canal would be useful to us in time of war.

Having for once seen a high office seeking the man, the country must not complain if next day it is called upon to witness the surrender of another position in the Cabinet to a man who has been pursuing it with the utmost zeal in the most open manner. Gen. Alger of Michigan, who is to be Secretary of War, owes his prominence in politics to his wealth, which he has used more than once in a ridiculous attempt to capture the Republican nomination for the Presidency. Mr. Sherman put on record in his 'Recollections,' what was current gossip at the time, that "the friends of Gen. Alger tempted with money poor negroes to violate the instructions of their constituents" to support the Ohio Senator in the national convention of 1888. The Michigan politician has at last concluded to moderate his ambition, and, since the November election, has been working up a movement for his appointment to the Cabinet, which has at last been crowned with success.

Since Senator Sherman, sobered by the prospect of taking office, abandoned the Jingoes, they have turned on him savagely. A year ago, when he was leading the pack, he was, according to them, "the Nestor of American statesmen." It was no use to point out his blunders in fact and ignorance of law and treaty then; were you going to set yourself up against the "magnificent" old Senator? But now the Jingoes themselves are the ones to grieve over his mental decay, his forgetfulness, his absent-mindedness, his inability to understand an argument. They have known all this for years, they now sadly say, but have kept still about it. They certainly did last February, when they were lauding their Nestor Jingo to the skies. They see another alarming proof of his decline in his present opposition to the Nicaragua Canal bill. Over this they shake their heads pityingly. What, opposed to a bill which is an exposed fraud, though carrying $100,000,000 in guaranteed bonds? What Senator in full mental vigor could think of taking that ridiculous position? But Mr. Sherman will probably accept all this abuse philosophically as one of the incidental sweets of office. It may surprise him, however, though it should not, to learn that Jingoes, like republics, are ungrateful, and that there is such a thing as getting down in the dirt before them for nothing.

We fear it will be impossible for Senator Hoar to make clergymen and professors in Massachusetts afraid of saying boo to the Senate about the arbitration treaty. He is not able to terrify into silence even the people in Washington in full sight of his awful frown. A large meeting, representative of the first social and religious circles of the city, was held last week, almost within hearing distance of the Senate, to urge that the treaty be promptly ratified. It was called to order by an ex-Secretary of State, and vigorously addressed by an ex-Senator and a Justice of the Supreme Court. Judge Brewer's address was especially significant. He was President of the now happily deceased Venezuelan Commission, and is in a better position than most men to know what ugly possibilities were wrapped up in that controversy. Therefore, when he said that the United States had now a great opportunity to do something for the world's peace and progress, which, once lost, might never be regained, his words had more than ordinary judicial weight.

The Hawaiian cable scheme or schemes again occupied the attention of the House committee last week. Two rival companies are seeking a Government charter with incidental subsidy. Each, according to itself, is a pure and patriotic and wholly American organization; each, according to the other, is but a cat's-paw of England. What with preventing Nicaraguan canals from being built and covering the Pacific with a network of "military" submarine cables, British gold would appear to be having an unusually busy winter. What the poor Hawaiians want is, of course, altogether a secondary consideration. They exist only to be annexed and have cables landed on their territory. It may be worth saying, however, merely as a matter of curiosity, that they are heartily opposed to any such cable monopoly as is being urged at Washington. The Spalding concession, which will lapse in a month or two, the Hawaiian Government refused to extend or amplify when ex-Secretary Foster was sent to the islands in November to secure a new contract. A rather tempting bribe of $375,000 cash down was dangled before President Dole, but the Chief Justice told him he had no right to make an exclusive contract, the business and commercial interests of Honolulu pronounced strongly against the scheme, and Mr. Foster had to come away empty-handed. All this will, of course, be regarded as wholly irrelevant at Washington, where the process of voting away the lands and franchises of other nations is one of the chief occupations of some of our leading statesmen and lobbyists.

The acceptance by the House on Wednesday week of the conference report on the restricted-immigration bill doubtless insures its being made law, as the Senate has already passed practically the same measure. The majority for it in the House was small—131 to 117—but the principle of subjecting immigrants to an educational test of some kind has undoubtedly found great public favor, and may now be expected to remain a part of our public policy. The bill itself, as was pointed out in the debate, appears to threaten some hardships at first in the way of separating families, and it contains one huge absurdity—that of excepting immigrants from Cuba so long as the revolution is in existence. This sentimental clause might be taken as a reflection on the literacy of the Cuban patriots, but it is really no more so than the official Cuban statistics, which show that upwards of 70 per cent. of the population can neither read nor write. The restriction upon Canadian immigration is pure protectionism.

The Secretary of Agriculture has at last found an echo in Congress. His repeated and vigorous attacks on the free-seed fraud have finally roused some members to join him in denouncing it. Not enough have yet been found to strike it out of the bill, though a respectable minority, including Speaker Reed, voted on Saturday to make an end of this particular form of wanton waste. Secretary Morton has been about the only man of prominence in the whole country to take a practical stand for economy in national expenditure. Others have burst into beautiful panegyrics on economy; he has economized. During his term of office he has covered back into the Treasury about $2,000,000 of the money voted him. He found it unnecessary, and therefore did not spend it. What is the result? He is the most unpopular man in Washington. He has told the truth and has saved money. That is enough to damn him in the eyes of a humbugging and spendthrift Congress. His practical, as distinct from their theoretical, love of economy has lashed Congressmen into a noble fury. He ought to be impeached, they have cried. They have devised the most stringent laws they could in order to force him to squander the public money. Not waste the public funds when Congress ordered it? The impudent fellow! They would show him who was master, and would throw the people's money into the sea for all of him. Then they put forward Mr. Dingley to shake his head gravely and to say that Congress is really a most economical body. The proof? Why, it hasn't voted a dollar that somebody has not asked it to.

We are very glad to get from Mr. Hanna a full explanation about the new tariff. He tells an interested and, we hope, a trusting public what the "programme" is. It includes the following items: extra session, March 15; bill to be passed in sixty days, "an understanding" having been reached with the "doubtful" (*i. e.*, the silver) Senators; the bill to go into force on July 1; from that instant the American people to enjoy unbounded prosperity. The bill, moreover, is to be simply perfect. It is going to keep out foreign goods, yet increase the revenues. It is going to satisfy both moderates and extremists. No prosperity is to come till it goes into effect, Mr. Hanna says, but he is firmly resolved on an "era of national blessings," to begin the day after. All this is most auspicious. A prohibitive tariff for revenue only, without a particle of jobbery or favoritism in it, based on an "understanding" with the silver Senators, will leave the pessimists in a sorry plight.

What means of information the Rev. Mr. Crosser of Glens Falls, N. Y., may possess, we do not know, but at the Platt dinner he announced that Platt's operations as a blackmailer and briber were sanctioned and even contrived by the Almighty, and that when Platt asks an insurance company or a gas company for a few thousands, he acts as a divine messenger. This, at least, is the construction we put on his thanking God for Platt's "great leadership." The levying of blackmail on the corporations and distribution of the money among the members of the Legislature is the only Platt "leadership" we know of. We have often heard of and have known of irreverence, but this making God a member and promoter of Platt's machine surpasses the Rev. Mr. Couden's petition in Congress that we might be made "quick to resent insults." But Mr. Crosser went further than this. He prayed God to spread Platt's system through the country, and suggested that this was the best thing the Creator could do for the American people. If Platt does not do something for Mr. Crosser, he will be stricken with disease in all his joints. A great rascal who does not "recognize" a clergyman who prays for him is unfit for human society.

The bill authorizing Mr. Olcott to conduct the competitive examinations for his own office, which has been framed by the Gruber Progressives for the purpose of evading the constitutional amendment, was originally introduced as an amendment to the consolidation act. This would, under the Constitution of this State, have compelled its submission to the Mayor for approval or disapproval, but the Progressives did not discover this at once. Were they good citizens, anxious to execute the law in spirit and in letter, they would have been glad of this submission, as insuring more thorough examination for their bill as regards its utility and adaptation to municipal needs. But when they found that this would be necessary, they were stricken with consternation. Submitting bills to the Mayor was the last thing they thought of. So they brought in a new and separate bill in order to avoid it, and they make no concealment of the reason. Their object, both in the substance and form of the bill, is to defeat the Constitution. It is to this increasing boldness we wish to call attention. It is another step in our downward course. But we have abiding confidence in the courts, which are really the only restraint on the machine of both parties, for in measures of this sort both machines work together, and it is for their advantage to do so. Another sign of the times is the sort of statesmen who are now daily coming to the front. Gruber, for instance, occupied, until recently, the same kind of place as the late Capt. Cregan—that of a district leader, seldom heard of except in the exposure of some "game" there practised. But Gruber now makes speeches, founds societies, drafts bills, and is consulted by members of the Legislature. One of the latest bits of news from Albany, that he and Lexow have "put their heads together," comic as it is, has its significance. Think of such a combination of heads having influence on public affairs!

There are many signs that the political upheaval from which South Carolina has suffered so sadly during the last half-dozen years is subsiding, and that the unfortunate State is now to have a period of comparative peace. The new Governor is evidently a far more conservative man than either Tillman or Tillman's immediate successor in that office, and newspapers which have opposed the new régime all along, speak very highly of the way in which Gov. Ellerbe's administration starts off. Judge Earle, the new Senator, is the greatest possible contrast to Tillman, whose colleague he will be for the next four years at Washington. The Charleston *News and Courier*, which has been the bitterest opponent of Tillman, says that Earle is "an honest man and a strong man," that "he represents in a marked degree the conservative sentiment of the State," and that it expects him to "make a Senator in whose official course the whole State can take a just pride." The whole country has been discredited by Tillmanism in South Carolina, especially since its spokesman reached the United States Senate, and it will be a national relief to have the nuisance abated.

The parliamentary papers on Turkish affairs, which were made public on January 21, show that Lord Salisbury has won, as the *Daily News* concedes, "a diplomatic success of the first order." He has, in other words, at last got his concert of Europe to coerce the Sultan if necessary. At last accounts, the concert of Europe had appeared to be, as Lord Rosebery expressed it, a concert against Great Britain more than against the Turk. The situation now is that England, Austria, and Italy are absolutely agreed on coercive measures, that Germany will agree if the rest do, while France and Russia have consented, to use the words of the last Russian dispatch, "not to object to advise as to coercive measures if the Sultan should refuse to accept the reforms." This was the sticking-point of the whole negotiation. It had seemed impossible to induce Russia to employ force in Turkey. So late as November 4 M. Shiskin informed Mr. Goschen that it would be "extremely repugnant" to the Czar to contemplate coercing the Sultan. Again, on November 18, the Czar said that coercion would be "impossible." Yet by the end of December the Russian Minister wrote that he was authorized to say that "the Russian Government agreed to the proposals" which Lord Salisbury had made, and that it would resort to force if necessary. Russia's attitude of course determined that of France, and a month later M. Hanotaux assented to Lord Salisbury's proposals in almost exactly the terms of the Russian acceptance.

What wrought this great change in the Russian policy does not clearly appear. It may have been partly Lord Salisbury's public recantation, in his Guildhall speech, of his old and bitter Russophobia. He then declared that English dread of Russian diplomacy in the Orient was "an antiquated superstition." As the Earl of Kimberley pointed out in the debate on the Queen's speech, no man had done more to inflame that superstition than Lord Salisbury himself. He quoted largely from the Prime Minister's speeches of twenty years ago, in which the intrigues and ambitions of Russia were painted in the blackest colors. Salisbury met these citations in his finest vein of cynicism. No man not more enamoured of his own eloquence than he was could be expected to remember what he had said twenty years before. He believed Lord Kimberley's quotations were exact, but what did they signify? One could learn many things in twenty years. This recantation, we say, may have helped incline the Russian heart to be gracious, but it was probably the terrible shock of the Constantinople massacres which made the Russian Government see that it could no longer afford to stand between outraged Europe, outraged civilization, and the Great Assassin. The dispatches now published leave the complicity of the Sultan in those massacres unquestionable. The slaughter was done with his full knowledge and consent, if not at his direct instigation.

THE ARBITRATION TREATY IN THE SENATE.

It is impossible to comment with any confidence on the arbitration treaty until it leaves the committee. Nor is there much use in predicting what its fate will be in the Senate. We can only say now that one amendment which the committee has adopted, as reported from Washington, would, should it be retained by the Senate, make the treaty a mere form, and apparently a useless one. It is said to run as follows:

> "No question which affects the foreign or domestic policy of either of the high contracting parties, or the relations of either with any other State or Power by treaty or otherwise, shall be subject to arbitration under this treaty, except by a special agreement."

Of course this would simply be an agreement to arbitrate in any quarrel if we like, or, in other words, would put us in the exact position in which we stood before the San Juan arbitration, and before the *Alabama* arbitration and the Bering Sea arbitration. No nation can be deprived of its right to arbitrate by "special agreement," which is what we did in all the above cases. What the proposed arbitration treaty does is, in the first place, to create machinery of arbitration to be ready when the occasion calls for it, and to make it morally obligatory on the signatory Powers to *try* to arbitrate before resorting to war. This is all that it does. It does not take away the opportunity of fighting, if the nation wishes to do so, as Gen. Hawley seemed to suppose. It was this supposition which made his after-dinner outburst so ludicrous. No treaty could do this. We could refuse to arbitrate when the first difficulty occurred and thus break the treaty. All that would happen to us in consequence of this would be that some one would say—"Ha, you have broken a treaty; you are a pugnacious people." But we could reply to this by simply killing a great many people and destroying a large amount of property. The notion that the treaty is anything but a moral commitment, or imposes on us anything but a moral obligation, or has any sanction except love of civilization and moral shame, is one of the humors of the occasion. Senator Hawley's objection that it contained no provision against "grabbing" on the part of England, was one of those childlike observations in which members of the Senate occasionally indulge. The treaty deprives neither party of a single power or right. It simply appeals to their moral sense, and asks them, when in a passion, to wait a few weeks and see whether the quarrel cannot be settled peacefully. It tries to reverse the old presumption that when a great nation feels wronged it must fight. It says, "No, it need not fight; there is a better way."

The notion that it may do something to the "Monroe Doctrine" is equally delusive. The theory of the President and of Mr. Olney and many others, including the whole House and Senate, was that the conduct of Great Britain in Venezuela was a violation of the Monroe Doctrine. It was this theory which made Congress "stand behind Cleveland" instantaneously, with no knowledge of the cause or nature of the dispute. But see what came of waiting a while, and not "fighting from the word go," as the semi-barbarian frontiersman says. The committee appointed to draw a line for us to fight Great Britain on, looked at some maps and archives, but never reported. Arrangements were made for the settlement of the whole controversy by evidence and argument and legal principles—in other words, by judges and counsel. No one had his bowels let out or his head smashed. No towns were burnt or bombarded. No widows or orphans were added by man's savagery to the sad list which nature yearly makes up. There are no "hells of destruction" at sea to ruin commerce and convert lieutenants into captains, and the "Monroe Doctrine" seems still to be as good as ever.

This doctrine is evidently still a thing to discuss, not to fight about. It is almost impossible to fight about anything which has never been clearly defined. Somebody ought to describe it in set terms. Until this is done, it can never be received into the body of international law. At present it is simply a wish or aspiration of the American people, and something that Senator Lodge knows about, but does not tell. But it is impossible to ask the nations not to violate it, until they know exactly what it is. Its present rather vague form is that no European nation must appropriate additional territory on the American continent, even as indemnity lawfully won in war, yet that any American state may go to war if it pleases, but, if it seeks to arbitrate, must get permission from the United States. Secretary Olney says that the will of the United States is law over this continent. But no American nation except the United States has ever agreed to this. Several totally deny it. Moreover—and this is very important—the United States has never announced that it will be responsible for its American protégés, and none of them has ever claimed its protection as lord paramount, though several have asked for it as from a big brother. As long as this confusion lasts, the Monroe Doctrine is likely, in the eyes of foreigners, to remain very much in the condition of a counsel of perfection or a modern church creed—a good thing to argue about, but an impossible thing to live by.

THE BIMETALLIC REACTION.

The bimetallic speeches in the Senate of Messrs. Hoar, Chandler, and Allison are a scandalous, almost a criminal, violation of political good faith. If they had dared to make such speeches in the course of the campaign, Bryan would have been elected. If what they say and aim at is true and desirable, Bryan should have been elected. That Senator Hoar is a Bryanite on the money issue he himself confessed in his garrulous, senile way when he said that all who voted for Bryan thought, of course, just as he did about bimetallism. To point to the international-conference clause of the Republican platform is beside the mark. That clause was swept overboard in the very first rush of the free-silver storm. It played no part in the canvass except to serve as the butt of Bryan's ridicule. Bimetallism of all sorts dropped completely out of sight in the Republican arguments, and if there was ever anything to which any party stood solemnly pledged and bound, it is the maintenance of the gold standard, without alteration or addition, by the Republican party. On that issue the entire battle was fought, contributions asked, sound-money coöperation from all sides invited, the business world appealed to. The gold standard, unchanged and undiluted, was what the Republican party said it was for, what the majority voted it into power to defend and perpetuate. The spectacle, therefore, of Republican Senators leaping again into the free-silver slough as if nothing had happened since they were last in it, is one, not only of unprecedented folly, but of unparalleled baseness. It is a shameless betrayal of political trust. What are the sound-money Republicans of the House going to do about it? What has Speaker Reed to say? Will they join Senator Hoar in confessing that they were cheats and hypocrites all through the canvass, and that they really believed in Bryan's principles, though voting and speaking for McKinley?

Mr. Hoar's performance on Friday exemplified anew the reason why that body has declined in popular estimation. There are few gentlemen in that body who have less comprehension of currency questions than Mr. Hoar. His utterances on such subjects have generally been such as are not to be described in polite terms. He went to Europe last summer without any language but his own, and came back towards the end of the campaign, when we were fighting for our lives against both silverism and bimetallism, and gave out a Bryanite interview showing that the bimetallists were right and that their triumph was near. He has now publicly produced in the Senate his European budget, and announced that "the great majority of the civilized world are in favor of the double standard of gold and silver." His authorities for this assertion are (1) a resolution introduced in the French Assembly by a leading bimetallist last spring (that is, a year ago) pledging France to coöperate with other nations in the restoration of silver—a resolution which meant absolutely nothing, because it is always safe to offer to coöperate with anybody when you know he will not cooperate with you; (2) a speech by M.

Méline, an old protectionist and agrarian, and now prime minister, in the Assembly at the same time, in support of the resolution; (3) the existence of a bimetallic league in France, with Méline for President; (4) a conversation Mr. Hoar had with Mr. Balfour in England at a lunch with a "brilliant company," in which he described Sir William Harcourt's and Mr. Gladstone's position towards silver as "brutal"—a thoroughly Bryanite expression.

Mr. Hoar refrained from mentioning, however, that the present Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, had announced in the House of Commons that though some of the Ministry were bimetallists, they had not the least idea of carrying out their views. They would not dare to attempt such a thing. Bimetallists who know anything whatever about currency are generally considered in the business world slightly cracked persons, or persons in financial difficulty, but there is not one of them with less authority in finance than Mr. Balfour. He has no more than Mr. Hoar himself. Yet, in spite of the monstrous assertion which he based on this evidence, we are told Mr. Hoar's "speech attracted great attention on the floor and in the galleries." We see here how the decline of the Senate comes about. Scraps of information gathered up on a summer trip by an old man, and converted into a speech on a subject of which he knows little, make a sensation and set scores of crazy silverites shouting and predicting.

The truth is, that men who are already fanatical bimetallists, or whose heads are weak financially, when they run over to England go naturally to or are seized hold of by bimetallic brethren, who fill them with astounding stories about the growth of affection for silver in England, and especially about Mr. Balfour's passion for it; Mr. Balfour being of no consequence as a financier at all. He showed that in Parliament at the opening of last session, by allowing the Chancellor of the Exchequer to announce that, though First Lord of the Treasury, his opinions about currency would have no influence on the Cabinet. Of course, no first-class financier would consent to occupy such a ludicrous position. Bimetallists of the Hoar school also denounce Sir William Harcourt and Mr. Gladstone as "brutal"; silver being in their minds, as in the minds of the Bryanites here, a living entity, to which one may be unkind or cruel or false. The fact that Mr. Gladstone and Sir William Harcourt are among the greatest, if not the very greatest, financiers in the world, makes no impression on them, and they are often, as in Senator Hoar's case, so silly as to scoff at their authority and accept that of Mr. Balfour, a rather youthful though very clever metaphysician, who has no experience of finance at all.

If one wants to know what is likely to happen in England, he should keep sternly away from the bimetallic sect in London and from embarrassed country squires, and go among the business men in the City, who are all-powerful at the Treasury, who know all about currency and carry on the prodigious British commerce, and find out what they think about the pound sterling and the double standard. But even then it would be absurd for an old and ill-informed man like Mr. Hoar to come home and blurt out his half-baked and ill-digested scraps of information in the Senate as things which should now guide American opinion and shape the policy of the next Congress. We are just settling down to rational dealing with the currency, and the only purpose that can be served by foolish bills like this bimetallic-conference bill, and foolish speeches in support of it, is to unsettle the public mind, and furnish the crazy men in Congress with excuses for postponing or hindering salutary legislation.

THE NICARAGUA CANAL DEBATE.

Two more days were consumed in the Senate last week on the Nicaragua Canal bill. The debate was reopened on Tuesday by Senator Daniel of Virginia, who drew attention first to the point made by Minister Rodriguez that the contract between Nicaragua and the canal company provided that in no case should the concession or franchise be transferred to Governments or to foreign public Powers, whereas the pending bill itself provided for transferring it to the Government of the United States. This, said Mr. Rodriguez, must "inevitably conduce to the forfeiture of the contract." Another clause provides that, in case of dispute between the canal company and Nicaragua touching the interpretation of the contract, the question shall be referred to arbitration in a specified mode and manner. Now, said Mr. Daniel, suppose that Congress, in the face of this provision that the canal franchise shall not be transferred to any Government, passes a bill transferring it to itself, how can it ever exercise any powers under it? How can it ever call for an arbitration? "There is," he continued, "such a thing in the law known as 'election,' and it ramifies through all equitable and runs into legal jurisprudence. The fundamental principle of the law of election is that no man can dispute the title under which he claims, nor make with respect thereto any contradictory or inconsistent claim." In other words, the contract forfeits itself, and the claimant under it cannot dispute it.

To this nobody made any direct answer, although there was some desultory talk about a corporation of which the United States owned 70 per cent. of the stock—implying that the thing would be different if its name were changed. It was assumed in a hazy way that if the ownership were divided into shares, there could be no valid objection to the transfer of the canal to a government in that way. But the contrary was proved by the very fact that Minister Rodriguez advanced it as an objection. Senator Morgan raved as wildly as ever about this branch of the question. He didn't believe that the Government of Nicaragua had ever authorized Rodriguez to make any such communication, although the latter had expressly said that he did so at the request and desire of that Government. Morgan clung to the theory that Great Britain was doing it all. Senator Daniel expressed some readiness to believe that charge, but at the same time asked for some small scintilla of evidence to support it. Of course he was not accommodated. Morgan said that he would like to tell all that he knew, but by the exercise of much self-restraint he refrained.

It is evident from the tenor of the Rodriguez communication that the Government of Nicaragua considers this point a material one. It must have so considered it in the beginning, else it would not have put such a stipulation in the contract. The reason is that Nicaragua is an inconsiderable Power. Like all weak governments, it desires to preserve its independence. To do this it will naturally seek to prevent stronger governments from gaining a foothold in it, as England, for example, has gained one in Egypt by reason originally of her ownership of Suez Canal shares; for although she owns less than a majority of the shares, she is the only government that owns any, and it was because of her interest in the canal that she overthrew the Arabi rebellion and took possession of the country. Nicaragua was quite right in guarding against such an eventuality in the first place, and she is quite within her right in insisting now that that clause of the contract shall be observed.

Mr. Daniel called attention also to the statement of Col. Ludlow, the chief of the Government engineering party that went down there to make an examination and report. Col. Ludlow gave testimony before a House committee in which he said:

> "We are the only engineers who have ever been over the entire route, and in making that statement I do not make any exceptions."

This is the officer who, in conjunction with two others, reported that it was not yet demonstrated that the canal was a practicable undertaking at any rate of cost, but that the minimum would be $133,000,000. He afterwards said, in his oral testimony before the House committee, that he was sorry he did not put the minimum at $150,000,000. No Senator in the debate said or hinted that the amount provided for in the bill would be sufficient. It was evidently regarded as a "starter," like the initial appropriation for a public building in Squashville. Here again it is the first step that costs. After $100,000,000 has been spent, of course we shall not stop and lose what

we already have put in. We shall go on as long as our credit lasts.

That there is money in this job is evident to the most casual observer. What is the desperate hurry about passing this particular bill? Senator Sherman made the very reasonable suggestion that it be laid aside, and that the business be resumed by the negotiation of a new treaty with Nicaragua, so that we can all know where we stand. This struck Senator Aldrich as tantamount to the death-knell of the enterprise. Of all the groundless speeches made on this subject (excepting, of course, those of Morgan), the speech of the Senator from Rhode Island had the least grain of sense or reason. He concluded with these words, Senator Vilas having moved to refer the bill to the committee on foreign relations:

"The pending bill is as carefully guarded, I believe, as any other measure that has ever been presented to the Senate of the United States. It is the only way by which the canal can be built. The real friends of the project should understand that any such suggestion or motion as that made by the Senator from Wisconsin means the death-knell of the canal, which I believe is very dear to the hearts of the American people. Senators may talk about it, and twist in various ways in regard to it, but the Senator from Wisconsin knows as well as I do that his own purpose is to kill the pending bill and to kill the project for a canal, to which he is and always has been opposed. I trust no such delusive suggestion as that which has been made by the Senator from Ohio—which is in the future so far that no man in this chamber will live long enough to see it realized—will prevent the real friends of the measure from voting against the motion of the Senator from Wisconsin; and I certainly hope that our regard for the Senator from Alabama (Mr. Morgan), and for his labors in this behalf through a long series of years, will prevent this body from ever sending a bill reported from this committee to another committee for revision. I agree with the Senator from Alabama that a suggestion of that kind is an insult to his committee and to himself."

What was wanted at this juncture was just this kind of an insult to Morgan, and this is what he came near receiving. As for Aldrich, it is not possible that he believes that the isthmus of Central America will run away, or that this is "the only way by which the canal can be built." The real friends of the project whom he has in mind are the owners of this dead contract, and others, who are ready to handle the $100,000,000 of bonds and the future issues that the first one will lead to. It would be much nearer the mark to say that the canal cannot be built at all without the consent of Nicaragua, and that she has declared, through her Minister, that the very act by which it is proposed to build it is in conflict with the terms of the original grant.

THE MORAL OF IT ALL.

All friends of good government have really reason to be grateful to Gov. Black for the appointment of Payn. The American public, as has often been remarked, learn from events and not from books or articles. We, at least, have not failed during the last ten years to point out, in season and out of season, what the present mode of nominating, by conventions based on primaries, would probably lead to. From the certainty that the party would accept the nominations of the conventions, and from the popular indifference to the composition of the conventions, it was quite easy for any one who had even a slight acquaintance with human history to predict the government we have set up in this State. And this State has been, it must be remembered, since the foundation of the republic, the originator of nearly every abuse and divergence from the straight path. The spoils system began here, and here the party caucus came to perfection. The election of Hill, of Flower, and of Murphy, the Maynard fraud, and, above all, the defences of this fraud on the stump, were warning signals that the moral judgment of the State was parting with its right to fill the State offices, and with its power to call officers to account.

This error, grave as it was, we made haste to amend and try to atone for by defeating the Democrats by enormous majorities. We cast out Hill and Maynard and dismissed Flower in disgrace. But we left the source of the mischief untouched. We left the nominating convention, filled with the boss's delegates sent up by fraudulent primaries, just as it was. We put in a respectable Governor, but we left the whole government of the State, including its Legislature, in control of another boss. We had simply changed masters. We found that Platt's form of government was identically the same as Hill's, that the Republican governing class was exactly the same as the Democratic governing class in its political morality, and that what they all differed about was not policy or measures, but the distribution of the offices—a difference which they found it easy to settle by a "deal." In short, it burst upon us that our nominating system had really ended in depriving us of the time-honored remedy of removing abuses by turning the men in power out of office.

This was brought home to us by the resolute opposition of the Platt faction to the city reforms which we sought to work in 1894, and still more by the huge frauds wrought by this faction in the primaries in 1895. The better class among the Republican politicians took the alarm and sought to mend matters by investigation and exposure. This brought out the fact that even these gentlemen had caught the contagion, for they refused to take any action in consequence of their discoveries, and published the astounding doctrine that to punish or proclaim these frauds would embarrass and injure the Republican national administration—that at this juncture it was the duty of good citizens to make friends with the perpetrator; and the result was simply a "harmony dinner."

Is it any wonder that a system thus permitted or promoted, even by good citizens, should result in Black as Governor; that Black should result in Payn; that Platt should be made United States Senator; that we should have a Legislature obeying his orders like a corporal's guard; that we should have a State Senate refusing to examine the Governor's nominations lest the Senators should lose their means of livelihood; that the whole class of politicians of both parties should disregard public opinion, meet its remonstrances with contempt and its horror with laughter; that silence should be substituted for discussion, and "jamming through" for the constitutional mode of passing bills? We do not believe that all these things are isolated events. We believe they are part of a plan to make boss government, as we now see it displayed, the permanent government of the State; that it is understood and has been agreed on by the leaders on both sides, and under this agreement no majority at the polls either way will be able to produce any change except a fresh distribution of offices. It is a well-arranged, and, as we perceive, a perfectly workable system. The boss controls the Legislature and fills the offices; and the Legislature, by legislation or by threats of legislation, supplies him with the revenue necessary for his operations. The partnership is complete: the contests at the polls are like the sham battles of the condottieri in Italy in the Middle Ages.

We believe, too, that the Greater New York charter is part of the scheme; has been devised simply to prevent the growth of the non-partisan movement in the city which was initiated in 1894, to provide a greatly increased number of offices as spoils, to keep alive in the city, by frequent elections, the fever of political faction, and to hide from the masses the real seat of responsibility. The furious haste in its passage, the unwillingness to submit it to the people, the preservation in it of the bi-partisan Police Board, the creation of a large, powerless, and salaried Legislature, combined with the crusade against the competitive system headed by the Governor, go to confirm this view. We are more sorry than we can express that at such a crisis in the history of the State, when all the powers of darkness are united for a final attempt on what we most value in our institutions and in public life, men like Gen. Tracy and President Low should be found giving the weight of their authority and the help of their ability to such an enterprise, for that is what they are doing. They are aiding in an assault on free American government. The pity of it is the greater because no one has, with a more powerful pen or from a longer experience than President Low, denounced, in book and magazine, the very evils he is to-day helping to bring about. The greater the public respect for him (and it is very great), and the greater the public gratitude for

his past services (and this too is very great), the deeper the regret that he should be now giving the smallest aid to the unscrupulous band who have marked the city and State for their prey.

THE HOLY CITY OF KERWAN.

KERWAN, November 22, 1896.

NEXT to Mecca, the birthplace, and Medina, the burial place, of the Prophet, Kerwan, or Kairwan, or Kérouan (as the French write it—it is a dissyllabic word, strongly accented on the last syllable) is the most sacred city of the Mohammedan world, surpassing Constantinople and even Jerusalem. What it is that constitutes sanctity to the Mussulman is not always easy to determine. In the case of this city the determining cause seems to be the fact that it was founded by a group of companions of the Prophet, headed by the famous conqueror Sidi Okba ibn Nafa, and that it contains the tombs of an unusually large number of saints. It is one of the few African cities that have risen on a site unprofaned by any heathen or Christian associations. Okba ibn Nafa chose (in A. D. 670) the spot himself during his conquest of North Africa, laid out the plan, and fixed the site of the great mosque which has given the city its fame among Europeans. Why the spot should have been selected does not readily appear. There are no natural advantages. It is quite level, and therefore not fitted for a stronghold. There are no springs near, and the lower slopes of the hills that rise fifteen miles to the westward, where water is plentiful, would have seemed a fitter place for the dwellers in such a parched and thirsty land. Perhaps, however, the very openness of the country may have been a recommendation to those who desired to be able to see from afar the approach of an enemy; the distance from the sea would make a sudden attack by the East Romans, who still ruled that element, less likely, and the plain, though now in parts sandy and in parts condemned to sterility by the saltness of the soil, may in the seventh century A. D. have been better watered and more fertile.

The city stands about thirty-five miles westward from the sea at the port of Susa (the ancient Hadrumetum), and is now easily accessible, for the French have just opened a railway to Susa from Tunis, and there is a tramway and also an omnibus service (of five hours only) from Susa to Kerwan. Approached from the east, its aspect is striking, for the walls rise straight out of the bare plain, with no suburbs to break the effect, and the whole place is, like most Moorish towns, of a dazzling white. To the north, the west, and the southwest, distant mountains close the view and frame the white jewel that glistens in the centre of the plain. Within, the streets are narrow and crooked, and the bazaars, or Suks, as they are called in this part of North Africa, are far inferior to those of Tunis in size and in the variety and quality of the goods displayed in them. Carpets are pretty largely manufactured and exported, some of the patterns being characteristic of the place, so that they are known over the country as of Kerwan make. But of late years the workers have begun to use mineral dyes, and the colors are therefore by no means so pure nor the harmonies so pleasing as was once the case. The houses are all low, nearly all of one story only, with flat roofs. They are kept constantly whitewashed, which gives an external air of cleanliness much belied by the interiors as well as by the condition of the streets. Although the French have now occupied the place for fifteen years, and keep a pretty large garrison, they have not substantially changed its aspect, which remains as thoroughly Oriental and as full of all the kinds of picturesqueness one associates with the Orient as it ever was. Cairo is more beautiful, and contains a far greater number of remarkable buildings, as well as of private houses with pretty bits of woodwork. But Cairo is being rapidly modernized, and has a large new Frank quarter in the handsomely monotonous French style. Kerwan, comparatively poor and rude, recalls the 'Arabian Nights' better than does any other considerable African city, while the profusion of mosques in it and of the tombs of saints all round it maintains its sacred character.

The largest and the most sacred of the mosques is that of Okba ibn Nafa, occupying the spot which he marked out, although the existing buildings, or most of them, seem to be a little later than his time. It covers a large space of ground in the northeast corner of the city. There is a great open quadrangle about as large as Trafalgar Square in London, and surrounded by a sort of arcade supported by pillars, like the cloister of a monastery. The pillars are arranged in pairs, as in the cloister of St. John Lateran at Rome. On the east southeast side of this court, the side towards Mecca, is the mosque proper, or Maksura, the chamber where public prayer is offered up; and it is this chamber which constitutes the special and almost unique feature of the building. It is rectangular in shape, but broader than it is long—that is to say, the length from the entrance to the sacred Kibla at the east end is less than the transverse length, at right angles to the line joining the door with the Kibla. Within it there are two hundred and ninety-six columns, of nearly uniform height, supporting horseshoe arches, which themselves support the flat wooden ceiling. The arches are not very wide or high, and the columns comparatively slender. They are all of marble or some still harder stone, such as porphyry or granite, and polished, and have evidently been brought from ancient Roman temples or Christian churches, perhaps (if one may judge by their style) from churches erected as late as the sixth century. Some have probably served in both capacities, for the Christians commonly used the columns of disused temples in erecting churches, as Justinian did those of the great Ephesian shrine of Diana when he built St. Sophia at Constantinople. The floor is of marble slabs, doubtless also brought from ancient edifices, and put together rather roughly. The general effect of this interior, which looks about as large in its area as the House of Representatives at Washington, though it is, of course, much less lofty, is very singular, particularly as nearly all the light comes through the doors on the side next the great court, very little finding its way through the few small windows of stained glass. One seems to stand in a sort of forest of pillars, with vistas opening in all directions through them; and the mingled uniformity and variety—uniformity in the plan, variety in combinations of the pillars according to the angle of sight, and in the effects produced by the fall of light and shade—has a striking and quite peculiar charm. Large as is the chamber, one fancies it much larger than it is, for the lines of columns seem interminable, and the shadows are deep in the furthest corners.

Only one other building in the world has a similar plan and makes a similar impression. That one is the great mosque at Cordova, itself erected in imitation of Sidi Okba's mosque a few centuries later, and turned by the Spaniards into a church after their conquest of Andalusia. The Spanish building is the larger and more beautiful of the two, as one might expect from the work of sovereigns so much superior to these Moors as were the Khalifs of Cordova. Its floor space is ampler, its roof loftier, its columns taller, its coloring richer. It is, moreover, well kept, whereas there is a certain roughness and untidy neglect about the Kerwan mosque; for here, as in Egypt, the Mohammedans show little taste or æsthetic feeling, and bring the sanctity of a building into no relation with its cleanliness. But the Cordovan mosque has been defaced by the intrusion into its centre of a high Gothic choir, a crime of the sixteenth century which called down the indignation of the Emperor Charles the Fifth. And it suffers from the altars and images introduced for the purposes of worship. The Kerwan mosque stands untouched, with that noble simplicity and plainness which gives so much dignity and strength to a Mohammedan house of prayer.

Unquestionable as is the preëminence in splendor as well as in finish of the daughter mosque in Andalusia, the parent mosque of Africa is not less interesting to the historian and to the student of architecture. What suggested this bold idea of a chamber filled with columns and arches is not known, any more than the name of the architect. Mr. Freeman thinks it most like the crypts, filled with pillars, of some Christian churches. But it seems more probable that the idea was taken from some of the many-naved Christian basilicas which the Arab conquerors found in Africa, such as that whose floor has recently been laid bare by the excavations at Carthage. They, too, were filled with columns—it was, indeed, with their spoils that Kerwan was largely built. They were hardly longer from door to altar than they were wide in a transverse line. No great changes would have been needed—and they would be changes in the direction of further simplicity—to turn them into the rectangular pillar-filled hall which the mosques of Kerwan and Cordova present.

There is not much else that is noteworthy in the building. Both the Kibla, or semicircular recess indicating the direction of Mecca and corresponding to the central apse or "tribune" of an early Christian church, and the Mimbar, or pulpit, are lined with thin plates of wood covered with rich and delicate arabesque patterns, very finely carved. The wooden walls of a sort of enclosure where copies of the Koran were kept, something like a Christian sacristy, are similarly decorated. But colored tiles, the favorite and often very delightful form of Moorish ornament, are absent. The whole air of the mosque is one of severe and primitive simplicity. Nor among the numerous other mosques — there are said to be three hundred, counting in the saints' tombs which are used as places of prayers (a number greater for Kerwan than the traditional three hundred and sixty-five churches of Rome, a so much larger city)—is there any remarkable either for its beauty or its architectural features, save one. This is the so-called Mosque of the Companion (called by Europeans the Mosque of the Barber), which stands half a mile outside the walls. It is comparatively small, consisting of three arcaded courts, with passages connecting them, all lined with tiles,

and its central shrine is the tomb of Abdullah ibn Zemaa, one of the Companions of Mohammed and conquerors of Africa. But the proportions are admirable, and the decorations, in white marble and colored tiles, are quite exquisite in the depth and purity and fine harmony of their tints. Exquisite, too, is the Moorish plaster work on the upper part of the cloister walls. Taken as a whole, this mosque is one of the loveliest pieces of work which Northern Africa possesses, and, taken along with the Great Mosque, justifies Kerwan in claiming to stand beside Delhi with its Kutub Minar, and Agra, with its Taj Mahal, and Constantinople with its Suleymanieh Mosque, and Bijapur with its huge and solemn tombs of departed Sultans, as the cities in which Mohammedan invention, so weak and infertile in nearly every other direction, has shown that it could accomplish great things in architecture.

Filled with the tombs of saints and steeped in the traditions of a militant Islam, Kerwan was long regarded as a hotbed of Mussulman fanaticism. When the French invaded the territories of the Bey of Tunis, they expected a serious resistance from the Kerwanese, and sent a considerable force against them. The place, however, was occupied without difficulty, and a French general, according to the current story, was even suffered to ride his horse into the Great Mosque, as Mohammed the Second did into St. Sophia when he took Constantinople in 1453. The fortunate result of the entrance of the French into the mosques in 1881 has been that these buildings, having once been profaned by the feet of infidels, may now be visited by other infidels. Accordingly, while in Morocco and in every other town of the Tunisian Regency no Christian is suffered to enter a mosque, here in Kerwan one may freely enter and examine everything to one's heart's content. Oddly enough, the matting with which the marble pavement of the Great Mosque is covered seems to be held more sacred than the pavement itself; for when the Christian visitor enters, the matting is rolled back and he walks on the pavement, though of course he may, if he slips off his shoes, walk on his stocking soles over the matting also. Nor do the inhabitants seem specially fanatical; at any rate they make no hostile demonstrations when one rambles alone through the streets. Ignorant and superstitious they are to the last degree, as may be judged by their belief that the holy well of the city, where a sacred camel, used for no other work, raises water by a windlass under a sacred cupola, is connected by a subterranean channel with the well Zemzem at Mecca. The Kerwan well is only seventy feet deep, and Mecca is more than two thousand miles distant, with a bay of the Mediterranean as well as the Red Sea between.

From the top of the highest minar of the Great Mosque, a heavy square tower of three stories surmounted by a cupola (these solid mosque towers of North Africa are quite unlike the slender minarets of Constantinople), one enjoys a wide and striking view. To the south, and to the east also (for the sea, though less than forty miles distant, is hidden by the undulations of the ground), the eye ranges over an immense plain, bare and featureless, unbroken by stream or tree or building. Far in the north the noble peak of Jebel Zaghwan, fifty miles away, and nearly as far from Carthage on the other side, measures the distance between the sacred centre of African Mohammedanism and the ancient metropolis of African Christianity. Westward, isolated groups and long ridges of mountains rise, the nearest fifteen, the furthest some sixty or seventy miles distant, but all clear and sharp-cut in this dry and lucent air, and taking, in the level lights of morning and evening, the most delicate shades of blue and violet. Lovely as are the colors, and full of solemn dignity as is the vast expanse of plain, with the white city glittering in its midst, a more melancholy prospect cannot be imagined. The country is not quite so unpeopled as it appears, for the huts and tents of the half-nomad Arabs are scattered here and there over it, and a certain part of the soil is tilled by them or pastured by their flocks. But it is utterly void of trees, except a few olives in the distance, whose low size and gray hue make them scarcely noticeable; and not a hamlet, much less a town, can be discerned—only here and there the white dome of a marabout's tomb. Fifteen centuries ago this region was one of the most prosperous and densely peopled in the world. Two days' journey to the southwest stood the city of Sufetula, the last capital of the Christian ruler whom the Arabs overcame in A. D. 647. Fifty miles off to the southeast stood the city of Thysdrus, the ruins of whose gigantic amphitheatre, second only to the Coliseum at Rome, an amphitheatre capable of holding 60,000 spectators, still rise over the waste to attest the former wealth and luxury of the African subjects of Rome. Few spots in the world show a more striking contrast between the past and the present, or bear more impressive witness to the effects of Mussulman conquest. It is not only the brutal Turk but the far more naturally capable Arab—the Arab who in his earlier days showed a capacity for assimilating some forms of Roman culture and of imitating, even improving upon, Roman architecture—who, under the influence of his faith, has brought darkness and desolation upon the seats of ancient civilization.

C. E.

CRÖY'S MEMOIRS.

PARIS, January 22, 1897.

MEMOIRS on modern times, and chiefly on the Napoleonic period, are all the fashion; they are very extensively and universally read, and console the public for the nauseous mediocrity of our novelists. From time to time there appear, however, memoirs on older periods which are worthy of much attention. I would advise all who are interested in the history of France to read the 'Memoirs of the Duke de Cröy on the Court of Louis XV. and of Louis XVI.' The Cröy family (the name is pronounced Crouy) is one of the greatest in the northern part of France and in Belgium. The author of the Memoirs was born on June 23, 1718, in the château of Condé (a *chef-lieu de canton* of the Department of the North, not far from Valenciennes). The Memoirs were discovered not long ago in manuscript in the library of the Institute by the Viscount de Grouchy; he published only some extracts from them in the new *Retrospective Review*—extracts relating chiefly to the military career of the Duke de Cröy, who was in the service of France and became a Marshal. He gave also to various periodicals detached fragments—to the *Review of Diplomatic History* a fragment on the Embassy of Marshal de Belle-Isle in 1742; to the *Bulletin du Bibliophile* three fragments, on a visit to J. J. Rousseau, on the last moments of Voltaire, on the British Museum; to the *Britannic Review*, a Journey to England. Last year M. de Grouchy collected from the Memoirs all that related to Cröy's life at the courts of Louis XV. and Louis XVI., and he has just published these long extracts in a volume.

Let me say at once that Cröy has no literary pretensions of any sort: his style is most simple and unaffected; but after you have read a few pages, you get at once the impression of perfect truthfulness and exactitude. His sincerity is complete, he does not give himself out for a great statesman, or a great soldier, or a great reformer. He is essentially a gentleman and a courtier. He knows that he must make his way at court—it is his natural place; his birth entitles him to be among those who can live with and near the King; he must share his pleasures, hunt with him, follow him in endless journeys from castle to castle, dine and sup with him, play cards if necessary, take part in all the great functions. He does not particularly like this court life, being a quiet and religious man; he has none of the vices of the King's favorites. But he must advance himself and get promotion in the army. He leaves the court to go to the army, he leaves the army to stay some time at court. He knows and understands no other life. He is the perfect courtier and the perfect soldier.

At the age of eighteen Cröy joined the Mousquetaires; at the age of nineteen he went to his first ball at Versailles. He had in the same year the honor to hunt for the first time with the King. Hunting was the favorite pleasure of Louis XV., who from 1732 to 1759 brought down no less than three thousand stags. The King kept three packs of hounds, and was thus able to hunt every day. He used to kill two or three stags every time he hunted. It was a very laborious life. After the hunt the King gave the names of those who were to sup with him in his cabinet. Cröy was named several times, with others. "I found myself at the little table with seven young gentlemen. At the great table were fifteen people, among them Mademoiselle [Louise de Bourbon-Condé], Mme. de Mailly, and four other ladies. After supper, the King designated me to play *cavagnole* [a game of chance played with balls] with Mademoiselle, and gave me the cards himself." Cröy, for this first invitation to the royal hunt, had to buy himself three horses; he rode besides with three horses from the royal stables—he gives us their names, Brutalin, Mirliton, L'Indolent.

The Journal, for Cröy's Memoirs have that form, reports with the greatest minuteness the details of all the hunting expeditions, all the balls, dinners, and suppers, the representations at the opera, interrupted here and there with references to the various topics of the day. At the age of twenty-three Cröy was married to Mlle. d'Harcourt, daughter of the Marshal Duke d'Harcourt. "On Saturday, February 4, [1741], we went, my mother and myself, to the Hôtel d'Harcourt, where all the family was assembled, to make our asking. An hour afterwards were read and signed the articles which had been prepared the day before. The next day, February 5, the Duke d'Harcourt took me to Versailles, to solicit the assent of the King, the princes and princesses. . . . On February 9, the contract was signed by the King, the Queen, the Dauphin and Mesdames." The marriage took place on the 18th: "My regiment, my marriage, my war equipage—all these expenses coming together deranged my affairs at the time to the extent of 300,000 livres, by no fault of mine." The marriage seems to have been a happy one. Cröy tells us that, "on

March 12, my confessor being at the time preacher to the King, I went to Versailles to make a general confession, and from that time I adopted a mode of life quite different from what it had been for several years."

He continued, however, to be an assiduous courtier, whenever his duties did not keep him in his regiment. He notes all the intrigues of the court. He does not give many details concerning the sisters De Mailly, who became successively the mistresses of the King. One of them, Mme. de la Tournelle, "seems to take on a high tone, without having much power, apparently, over the mind of the sovereign, who is still resolved not to allow too much influence to the women." This resolution was not kept for ever, and we see in the Journal how the almost absolute empire of Mme. de Pompadour became established by degrees. Cröy became perforce acquainted with her, and gives many interesting details about the famous marquise. "As for the sovereign," says Cröy, "he is more talkative and more free in his mind since his campaign [1746]. He appears to have fallen deeply in love with Mme. d'Etioles, named Marquise de Pompadour, his openly declared mistress. She received all the court in her apartments, almost did the honors of it, and everybody rushes to her." Cröy was presented to her by his father-in-law, Marshal d'Harcourt. "She seemed to me charming in face and in character. She was at her toilette, and nothing prettier can be imagined. She had a variety of amusing talents so that the King seemed to love her more than all the others. . . . She was on a good footing with the King, having advised him to act well by her, making her come to Paris, and giving her a place on all occasions. . . . She took part in the Queen's game, carrying herself with much decency and grace, and I remarked that when the hour came to go to the small cabinets she asked the Queen's permission to leave the game; who bade her amicably 'Go.'" Here Cröy cannot help commenting in parenthesis, "What a fine remark to make for a philosopher and a Christian!" In these cabinets he speaks of, there was generally a repast, then an hour or two of play; and only a small number of the most intimate courtiers were admitted, as Louis XV. was essentially a creature of habit, preferring his old acquaintances and not liking new faces. Cröy gives us on various occasions the lists of the persons with whom he supped in the small cabinets; the same names reappear often, many of them unknown to history. The King warmed his coffee and helped himself to it; no servant was seen - everybody had to take care of himself.

Mme. de Pompadour's influence became omnipotent. She was very intelligent; she had a charming character, and took great pains to please everybody. "Not only the great affairs, but all the details passed through her hands. I remarked the easy manner in wnich she walked before the duchesses, with the greatest politeness, sitting down at the *grand couvert* when the Queen and all the children of France were there; but all took care to please her, and she was nice to them." In 1756, to everybody's astonishment, on February 8, Mme. de Pompadour was officially proclaimed a *dame du palais* of the Queen. She announced at the same time that she had resumed religious observances. She fasted in the cabinets, which she had never done before. She had conferences with a Jesuit father, whom she chose for a confessor. "She began her service near the Queen as quietly as if she had never done anything else. She went to mass every day, and seemed to pray with fervor." As she had never appeared false in anything, the Court wondered if she would recall her husband and break completely with the King. Cröy says on this head: "As for myself, whom a little reflection on men and on courts had rendered philosophical and incredulous, I believed that in time people get accustomed to everything, and that, when you have supreme authority, you can make impossible things easy."

The particulars which Cröy gives on this new period of Mme. de Pompadour's reign are interesting, even in a psychological point of view. The King and his friend had a new *modus vivendi;* the Marquise shut her eyes on the King's fleeting love affairs, which were kept as secret as possible; she was content to be the favorite, the adviser. She preserved all her favor, all her influence. In 1756, Cröy writes, that, coming from the army, he calls on the Marquise, at ten o'clock in the morning, and finds her going to mass incognito. She had ceased to go to the theatre, she had ordered the passage by which the King went to the little red cabinet to be shut. The King could no longer visit her except through the big room where persons of the highest rank were waiting; it even often annoyed him. Nevertheless, she ate, in full dress, beside the King in the cabinets. All this was a singular mixture, not easy to understand.

Mme. de Pompadour fell ill in February, 1764, and died on April 15, with much courage, in her forty-fourth year; and "thus terminated one of the longest reigns of this sort which were ever seen. It had begun in 1745, when she was twenty-four years old; it had thus lasted twenty years." When you read Cröy's Journal you come to the conclusion that the Marquise was completely used up by the fatigues of her life. Louis XV. must have had an extraordinary constitution. She had to bear all his fatigues, to follow him everywhere, to be perpetually in motion and to amuse him without interruption. She sometimes wondered how people consented to live at court who could lead easy and quiet lives in their châteaux. On the whole, she was regretted. She was good and generous; "there was not an employment, not a favor which did not come through her hands; she never willingly harmed anybody, but France suffered many misfortunes during her time, and many useless expenses were incurred for or on account of her." It has been said that the King, seeing her funeral procession pass before the windows of the château at Versailles, said coldly: "La Marquise a mauvais temps." This story has been denied by Dufort de Cheverny (see his memoirs). The King was alone with Champlost, his first valet, when the procession passed before the palace. He knew the appointed hour; notwithstanding the cold and severe weather he remained bareheaded on the balcony, and, when he lost sight of the carriages, he reëntered the apartment, with great tears on his face, speaking to his valet only these few words: "This is the sole duty I can pay her."

Correspondence.

CIRCUMSTANTIAL EVIDENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is now nearly a year since the senior Senator from Massachusetts enlightened the community in regard to circumstantial evidence by quoting an old East Cambridge (Mass.) judge as saying in a charge to a jury: "Gentlemen of the jury, circumstantial evidence is when a fact that is known proves a fact that is not known. If you see great activity in the navy-yard over there to-morrow, it is not a proof that war is approaching, but that an election is approaching."

If the old judge is still alive, it would be interesting to learn his views on the sudden cautious dignity in our foreign policy assumed by the Senate when the arbitration treaty came up for discussion, and whether he would hold that we have proof that that body has reformed, or that a new Administration is approaching.

John Alden Lee.

Milton, Mass., January 26, 1897.

IRRITATING THE SENATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of your second paragraph in "The Week" of the *Nation* of 28th inst., concerning the supposed danger of irritating the Senate by appeals and remonstrances urging the ratification of the arbitration treaty, I am reminded of a passage in Edmund Burke's speech, in the House of Commons, in 1794, in favor of avenging by retaliation the execution, by the French Government, of French emigrants found in the English army. He said: "God forbid that the authors of murder should not find it recoil on their own heads! But fears are expressed that we may inflame the Jacobins by severity. Inflame a Jacobin! You may as well talk of setting fire to hell! Impossible!" (See Stanhope's 'Life of William Pitt,' vol. ii., p. 228.)

Truly yours, Edw. Y. Buckley.

1508 Spruce St., Philadelphia,
January 31, 1897.

HOW A UNIVERSITY IS BUILDING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some of your readers will doubtless be interested in a correct statement of the wonderful growth of the University of California and of its peculiar system of accrediting.

The reactionary movement of the later seventies gave us the new Constitution of '79, which aimed a deathblow at secondary education by cutting off all State support from high schools. The blow stunned, but did not kill. Most of the high schools ceased, and few, if any, new ones were formed for several years. Thus a great gap existed between the grammar schools and the University. Deprived of secondary schools, the University languished. Few students outside of the large cities could add the expense of preparation to the cost of the University. Public sentiment, as seen in the new Constitution, was opposed to high schools, and therefore to the University itself. Local sentiment followed general sentiment. Communities were slow to feel that high schools should be supported by local taxation, and became satisfied with grammar-school attainments for their children.

The University had long been financially crippled. In '87 it was put upon a sound basis by a State endowment of one cent on every one hundred dollars' worth of taxable property. It might now look to a larger field of usefulness. In '88 the University decided to do something in aid of secondary schools. Accordingly one of its professors became a home missionary to the few high schools then in ex-

istence and to the larger communities where such schools seemed possible. During the two or three years following, these schools and communities were visited by several members of the faculty, resulting in a general awakening of high-school interest. Ten years ago there were but nineteen high schools; now there are 106, with an attendance of 10,361. Up to 1891, high schools could be established only in cities. In 1891 and 1893 the Legislature provided for county and union district high schools. Thus within ten years the high school has moved out from a few large cities and established itself within easy access of almost every rural district.

Each year adds to the rapidly increasing number of high schools, and gives to hundreds of young men and women the preparation and ambition for college. So many, indeed, received such inspiration that the resources of the State University would have been inadequate to accommodate them. Fortunately for California, the Stanford University was established in the early part of this educational awakening, and has proved a noble coworker with its Berkeley associate, sounding a bugle call to higher education, and dividing with Berkeley the applicants too numerous for a single institution. Instead of three hundred students at Berkeley, there are now twenty-six hundred at our two great universities.

Has this increase been obtained by lowering the standard? By no means. The standard for admission has been raised and work in the University greatly improved. Within three years a year has been added to the admission requirement in the main courses, and a large number of high schools have lengthened their courses to four years, all being formerly three. The instruction in the high schools has been more thorough. Each year a larger and larger number of university graduates have appeared as teachers in the high schools. Each year a larger number of high-school teachers have appeared in the summer schools at Berkeley and at Stanford. The pedagogical department of the University, through county institutes, has reached the utmost districts of the State. The grammar schools have felt the uplifting influence, and the primary schools have received a new baptism.

All these changes have been fostered, if not caused, by the overlordship of the State University. What is this system of accrediting of which "A Californian Teacher" complains in your columns? Any school wishing to be accredited makes application to the University, sending sets of examination papers. If these give promise of fair results, the school is visited by a committee from the University faculty. This committee may consist of from four to six, representing leading departments of instruction. They do not visit in a body, but go, one at a time, without warning of their coming, at any time from Christmas to June. They observe the equipment of the school and methods of instruction, and personally test the proficiency of the students, particularly of the graduating class. They make suggestions to the teachers and the Board of Education regarding the work. During these visits they do much in the community to aid the cause of education. Schools are frequently visited several times before accredited. If improvements do not follow suggestions, visits cease. Twenty schools applying last year failed to be accredited. The committee reports to the faculty, and if the school is found to be in good hands and to be doing satisfactory work, it is put upon the accredited list for the ensuing year. The graduates from such schools, upon receiving the personal recommendation of the principal, are admitted without examination. Graduation alone is not sufficient, principals usually requiring a yet higher standard for recommendation. The continuance of the school upon the accredited list depends upon the annual visit of the committee and upon the work done by its representatives during the freshman year. The last requirement prevents reckless recommendations. A school may be accredited in some subjects and rejected in others. Of the sixty-seven accredited schools, less than half are accredited in all subjects. A student may be recommended in some subjects only and required to take entrance examination in the others.

In several instances, pupils failing to secure the recommendation of the principals for Berkeley have taken successfully entrance examinations at the best Eastern colleges. In other cases, pupils failing of recommendation have successfully passed entrance examination at Berkeley. It is said by the Berkeley faculty that the best work of the freshman year is done by students received on recommendation, rather than by entrance examination. These facts show that the system of accrediting raises rather than lowers the standard of entrance. Occasionally a pupil is "crammed" for entrance; such usually fail during the freshman year. Such short notice cramming cannot take place under the accrediting system; each student must be a graduate of a full course approved by the University faculty.

Does the University use its influence over the schools for its own aggrandizement at the expense of the schools? No. It is the true head of the system, guarding and protecting all parts of it. The writer is now serving his eleventh year in the schools of California. Eight years of that time as principal of the high school and city superintendent, he has been brought into contact with the two universities and with the normal schools. There have been several meetings of the "University Conference" to consider the relations of the University to the secondary schools. To these meetings are invited high school principals, city and county superintendents, and faculties of the State University and of the Normal Schools. The writer is a member of the Committee on Course of Study for High Schools. Two University professors and three High School principals compose the committee. At the last conference it made its first report. Its members were unanimous in the opinion that a course of study should be made in the interests of those not preparing for college—that the chief function of the high school is preparation for life. This proposition was adopted without a dissenting vote from any member of the Berkeley faculty. Thus, it is seen that the University takes a broad and liberal view of the educational system of the State.

T. L. Heaton.

Eureka, Cal., January 22, 1897.

THE BURNING OF NORFOLK IN 1776.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If we are to believe the school histories of the day, if we are to believe Bancroft and Fiske, the British under Lord Dunmore, early in the Revolutionary war, burned the city of Norfolk to the ground; and yet, as a matter of fact, the destruction of that prosperous town was accomplished by the Continental forces themselves, and partly by the direct orders of the Convention of the State of Virginia.

Bancroft, in his eighth volume, describes in his most graphic manner the destruction of the city, and concludes by saying that the American commanders, Howe and Woodford, certainly made every effort to arrest the flames, and argues that troops without tents would hardly in midwinter have burned down the houses that were their only shelter. He goes on to say that "When Washington learned the fate of the rich emporium of his own 'Country,' for so he called Virginia, his breast heaved with waves of anger and grief; 'I hope,' said he, 'this and the threatened devastation of other places will unite the whole Country in one indissoluable band against a nation which seems lost to every sense of virtue,'" etc. Fiske treats of the incident briefly, and in no wise mentions the fact that the Continentals had any part or portion in the destruction of the town, but assumes that the whole conflagration was the result of the British bombardment.

Though it does not seem to be generally known, the whole question of the destruction of Norfolk was investigated in the year 1777 by Commissioners appointed by the General Assembly. Their report was made October 10, 1777, and I suppose is still on file in the Auditor's Department. At any rate, it was a matter of discussion in the House of Delegates in 1835-'36, and was published with the proceedings of that year. This report is accompanied by a schedule of all the property destroyed—time when, by whom, and value—and also by the depositions establishing the facts. It establishes that, out of 1,333 houses burned, only 54 were destroyed by Lord Dunmore, and that on January 1, when the historians state that he burned the whole town, he burned only 19 houses—32 having been burned by him November 30, 1775, and three January 21, 1776. It establishes that 863 houses were burned by the troops of the State before January 15, 1776, and that 416 houses were destroyed by order of the Convention in February. It goes on to say:

"Upon an inspection of the schedule and the depositions which have been taken, it will appear that very few of the houses were destroyed by the enemy, either from their cannonade or by the parties they landed on the wharves; indeed, the efforts of these latter were so feeble that we are induced to believe most of the houses which they did set fire to might have been saved had a disposition of that kind prevailed among the soldiery, but they appear to have had no such intentions; on the contrary, they wantonly set fire to the greater part of the houses within the town, where the enemy never attempted to approach, and where it would have been impossible for them to have penetrated."

I find this corroborated by an extract from the *Virginia Gazette*, published on board the ship *Dunmore*, lying off Norfolk, dated Jan. 15, 1776, which is to be found in American Archives, 4th Series (vol. iv., page 542):

"As the wind was moderate, and from the shore, it was judged with Certainty that the destruction would end with that part of the town next the water, which the Kings ships meant only should be fired; but the Rebels cruelly & unnecessarily Completed the destruction of the whole town, by setting fire to the houses in the streets back, which were before safe from the flames."

The only explanation that I have seen of the action of the State troops in this matter is worthy of Sir Boyle Roche. It was that they had burned the *whole* town in order that they might be better able to defend the remainder.

Yours truly, Wm. Henry Sargeant.

Public Library, Norfolk, Va., January 23, 1897.

Notes.

HOUGHTON, MIFFLIN & Co. will soon publish the Complete Poetical Works of James Russell Lowell, in a single volume uniform with their Longfellow, Whittier, and Holmes; 'The Chief End of Man,' by George S. Merriam; 'Immortality and the New Theology,' the first lecture under the Ingersoll Lectureship at Harvard, by Dr. Gordon of the Old South Church; 'The Liquor Problem, in its Legislative Aspect'; 'Greek Art on Greek Soil,' by Prof. J. M. Hoppin of Yale; 'The Spoils of Poynton,' by Henry James; and 'The Transatlantic Chatelaine,' by Mrs. Helen Choate Prince.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce a new and revised edition of Cary's version of Dante's 'Divina Commedia,' together with D. G. Rossetti's translation of the 'Vita Nuova,' edited by Prof. L. Oscar Kuhns, of Wesleyan University. The volume will be illustrated.

'The Student's American History,' by D. H. Montgomery, is in the press of Ginn & Co., Boston.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'In the Land of Tolstoi,' by Jonas Stadling and Will Reason; 'The Clock of Nature,' sermons by Dr. Hugh Macmillan; 'The Life and Work of Bishop Thorold'; 'The Life and Correspondence of Archbishop Magee'; and 'The Land of the Monuments,' notes of Egyptian travel, by Joseph Pollard.

Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart's 'American History as Told by Contemporaries,' which Macmillan has in preparation, will fill four volumes, delineating respectively the discovery and colonization, making, growth, and welding of the republic. The extracts, logically arranged, will be long enough to give some idea of each writer's style.

We have received from Elliot Stock, 62 Paternoster Row, E. C., London, the tenth volume of his 'Book-Prices Current,' viz., for 1896, whose American namesake has already appeared (Dodd, Mead & Co.). There is now a friendly rivalry between these two publications, though each confines itself to its own side of the water. 'American Book-Prices Current' sets an example worth following in using full-face type for the entries, and avoids the need of an author-index by discarding the division according to auction sales, and bringing everything under one alphabet, supplemented by a subject-index. This last the British work now adopts, but still clings to the sales division, for which, of course, there is something to be said. The decade of volumes now attained naturally prompts the public to call for a general index covering the series to date. Mr. Stock agrees to undertake the labor if each subscriber will subscribe to a copy at one guinea net.

The bound volume of the *Century* for May-October, 1896, shows the general touch with the times which this magazine is accustomed to keep. No articles are more notable in this respect than Mr. Bryce's three on the theatre of present political interest—now almost as great as when Mr. Bryce wrote—in Africa. That on Li Hung Chang records a passing visit and sensation. One on the X-rays seems already ancient history, though a sudden pause has come upon the popular development of this extraordinary discovery. 'Sir George Tressady' and Sloane's 'Napoleon' come to an end in this volume, which contains also a part of Felix Moscheles's 'In Bohemia with Du Maurier.'

Scribner's two volumes for the past year have also their penumbra of books to come—Barrie's 'Sentimental Tommy,' Jaccaci's 'On the Trail of Don Quixote,' and Andrews's 'History of the Last Quarter-Century.' In turning over the pages, we meet again "Vailima Table-Talk," Mr. Hamilton Busbey's "Evolution of the Trotting-horse," Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse's three papers on Leighton, Millais, and Turner as shown in the portraits of himself, together with Mr. Brownell's account of the plastic art of Olin Warner. The illustrations of this magazine run through the gamut of wood and process engraving, including reproductions of the elder lithography, and indulge in some color ventures not always pleasing when introduced in the text; more promising when applied to separate sheets.

In *Harper's Round Table* for 1896 are mingled, as usual with what is fairly to be called youthful reading, nearly as much matter that would be appropriate to magazines for adults, with not a little appealing to either age—*e. g.*, the bicycle routes; the interscholastic sport record, with its hundreds of portraits and instantaneous views in action; the camera-club prizes, etc. There is the customary marked catering to the war spirit in fiction and in military and naval descriptions, with other aids to Jingoism in articles on Cuba. Hawaii is classed among the little "republics." The book that emerges from this periodical is Molly Elliot Seawell's 'A Virginia Cavalier.' The *Round Table* commemorates the loss of two contributors in W. H. Gibson and Thomas W. Knox.

Somewhat of the mixture noticed above is discernible in the two volumes of *St. Nicholas* just concluded, but their general physiognomy is more strictly juvenile, and of a cast too familiar to call for description here. A part of the feast is Robert Louis Stevenson's "Letters to Young Friends."

The latest addition to the "College Histories of Art" is 'A Text-Book of the History of Sculpture,' by Profs. Allan Marquand and A. L. Frothingham, jr. (Longmans). In conformity with the style of the series, its material has been compressed into a small octavo volume of 293 pages, into which 113 illustrations are introduced; and as it embraces the entire range of Occidental sculpture, from the early Memphite school to William Ordway Partridge, it has suffered inevitably from this compression. With such limitations imposed upon the authors, it is hardly to be expected that they should be able to impart to beginners any appreciation of sculpture as one of the three great arts, or of the finer qualities which have distinguished its masters. In this respect the work justifies its title of text-book, from which students may learn the names of schools and epochs, their relative dates and leading sculptors; but it requires considerable expansion in the class room for a full comprehension of its characterization of the different styles which are described in it. The mediæval section seems to us to show the most skill in preparation, and the Greek the least. It is unfortunate that the book should begin with so obvious an error as the title of its frontispiece—"Ludovisi Hera, Naples." The Ludovisi Hera is of course not in Naples, and the picture represents not the Ludovisi but the Farnese Hera. And we note in the very full list of contemporary American sculptors who are thought worthy of mention, one omission too important to be passed over, that of the name of Edward C. Potter, whose splendid animals at Chicago and elsewhere certainly entitle him to a place among the most able of those who are included.

'The Student's Companion to Latin Authors,' by George Middleton and T. R. Mills (Macmillan Co.), is an excellent little octavo of 375 pages. Its object is "to give in a convenient form all the facts of importance relating to the lives and works of the principal Latin authors, with full quotations of original authorities on all the chief points." It is not intended to take the place of a history of literature, and hence critical appreciation of the classic writings does not enter into its plan. It will be a useful supplement, therefore, to such books as Crutwell's or Mackail's histories of Roman literature, for in them exact information about the lives of the authors and the contents of their works is sacrificed to the demand for æsthetic judgments. The authors included are those generally read in schools and colleges, from Livius Andronicus to Suetonius. The work is well done, and the book, which fills a real gap, will be invaluable in every public or private reference library.

The first part of Mr. A. W. Quill's translation of the 'Histories' of Tacitus, published in 1894, met with but an indifferent reception. In the endeavor to convey to English readers a vivid idea of the style of Tacitus, as well as of his meaning, Mr. Quill often sacrificed the actual sense of a passage for the sake of brilliant epigram or striking contrast. There was, too, an unpleasant flavor of modern colloquialism, not to say slang, in much of his work. Yet, in spite of this, it was clear that the translator came to his task well prepared by previous study, and that he was thoroughly imbued with the spirit of his great original. And in the second and final volume (Longmans) it is evident that Mr. Quill has profited much by the criticisms which were passed upon his first. It is a pity that we cannot hope for a revision of the earlier volume. While the present can by no means be considered the final translation of the 'Histories,' yet it is as good as any which has appeared, and many of the notes with which it abounds will be useful to students.

The Annals of the Astronomical Observatory of Harvard College, vol. xxx., part iv., contain a discussion by H. H. Clayton of the cloud observations made at the Blue Hill (Mass.) Meteorological Observatory, founded and maintained by A. Lawrence Rotch. The discussion forms a volume of 500 pages and 16 plates, and must be regarded as by far the most thorough study of the kind ever undertaken in this country, if not in the world. It is admirable in the truly scientific spirit of investigation that prevails from beginning to end. The nomenclature of clouds is thoroughly discussed at the outset. Successive chapters then deal with the annual and diurnal periods in the amount of cloud; relations of clouds to rainfall; relation of clouds to cyclones and anti cyclones; methods and causes of cloud formation; various relations of cloud and winds; and finally the use of cloud observations in weather-forecasting. Mr. Clayton's results not only take a leading place in meteorological science, but set the standard towards which all similar work must for years to come be content to strive. The country is fortunate in having Mr. Rotch as a patron of meteorological science, and he is fortunate in having Mr. Clayton to carry out his excellent plans to well-ordered execution. The Metropolitan Park Commissioners show their appreciation of the observatory by granting it a reservation in the midst of the extensive Blue Hill Park.

Two important publications have lately been issued by the U. S. Geological Survey. One is Bulletin 127, a 'Catalogue and Index of Contributions to North American Geology, 1732-1891,' by N. H. Darton; an octavo volume of 1,045 pages. The entries include a complete bibliographic list of articles under authors' names, and analytical lists under localities by States, under formations by physiographic regions, and under a partial classification of "geologic philosophy" in which the alphabetical order of headings is, for some unstated reason, abandoned. Under each subdivision, the order of entries is by date of publication; but, under each year, titles often stand in accidental order, and this involves some inconvenience in such a subject as petrography, where the titles of a single year overrun a page column. Full references to place of publication are given only under the author's name. With so many leading lines it is very easy to run down any desired subject. Florida coral reefs, for example, will be found under Florida; under Pleistocene formation, Gulf region; under geologic philosophy, section coral reefs; and under various authors. Errors appear to be very rare, although one well-known name is repeatedly misprinted.

Folio 30 of the Geologic Atlas of the United States includes the Yellowstone National Park, and is most elaborate in text, illustration, and mapping. The text, by Hague, Weed, and Iddings, gives a condensed account of the formations represented, among which the volcanic lava sheets and breccias are most abundant and remarkable. The illustrations include admirable reproductions from photographs of the Yellowstone cañon; two fine specimens of petrified trees, standing; a beautiful view of Minerva terrace, Mammoth Hot Springs; and a grand boulder of granite, transported by ice from the snowy range to the lava beds in which the cañon is cut. The topography is shown on four contour-line maps on a scale of two miles to an inch; the chief features being the lava plateaus (more or less dissected), the lakes, and the cañons. The marshy floor of Two-Ocean Pass lies a little south of the Park on the southeastern sheet. The geological sheets are, like all the others of the series, beautiful specimens of lithographic art applied to national scientific investigation—a combination of which all American geologists may well feel proud.

In these days of "greater" cities which threaten merely to become "baser," it is refreshing to read the fourth annual report of the Metropolitan Park Commission of Massachusetts. This unsalaried body is charged with providing open spaces for public health and recreation in a territory having a radius of twelve miles from the Boston State house, and embracing thirty-seven cities and towns. The unrivalled position of Boston makes the working out of this problem a school for all other municipalities having a like end in view. The present report, which is, as usual, accompanied by scenic illustrations, diagrams, and maps, is notable for its consideration of the equitable balance of pleasure grounds in the area under treatment; its proposed conversion of the western part of the Charles River into a boating basin with a permanent level; and its quite novel study of the possibilities of Revere Beach. Here the landscape architect seeks to preserve unobstructed the beautiful sweep of the beach while affording the necessary accommodations for bathers and other visitors. We regret that we can do no more than suggest the extreme interest of this report.

The last few numbers of the *Archivio Storico dell' Arte Italiana* contain a series of articles by Signor Gustavo Frizzoni in review of Mr. Berenson's 'Lorenzo Lotto.' The discussion is so extensive as to rival the original volume in bulk. Signor Frizzoni goes over every point made by Mr. Berenson, seldom finding occasion to disagree with the latter's conclusions—indeed, not once on any matter of importance. To the English reader these articles will prove of value for the slight additions supplied by the reviewer (partly as communications from the author) to the list of Lotto's works, but chiefly for the numerous illustrations, seldom repeating those in Mr. Berenson's volume.

With the exception of some of our own institutions, the University of Helsingfors has the largest proportional number of women students of any college in the world. There are, at present, 211 women entered at the Finnish university, or 10 per cent. of the total enrolment. These are divided among the different faculties as follows: 79 in the physical-mathematical, 117 in the historical-philological, 8 in the legal, and 57 in the medical.

The Baltimore Association for the Promotion of the University Education of Women begins its work by presenting to the President and Board of Trustees of the Johns Hopkins University a brief petition, which requests this distinguished American institution of learning, "in view of the conditions existing at the present time, to open its graduate courses to those women who are qualified to pursue them." The petition, signed by a dozen or more representative and conservative women citizens of Baltimore, urges Johns Hopkins to follow the example of prominent universities in all parts of the world, and expresses the belief that the admission of women to the graduate departments of Johns Hopkins will further the special needs of the University itself, while advancing the general cause of education and culture. At the meetings which preceded the formation of the Association, the advisability of a separate woman's department of the University, or any willingness on the part of the Association to coöperate with the University authorities in organizing an "annex," was unanimously voted down. The friends of higher education will await with interest the decision of the Johns Hopkins trustees, who have now presented to them the opportunity graciously to yield to the claims of logic and of justice, by extending to other classes of women graduate students the advantages which they have for three years offered to women medical students.

—In the *Atlantic* for February, an article on "Village Improvement Societies," by Mary Caroline Robbins, calls attention to an "institution" which has become established within the last fifty years, and which presents several points of interest. A Village Improvement Society may be described as a volunteer organization to attend to public matters which the public authorities generally neglect. It plants trees, makes the streets and sidewalks neat, keeps its eye on drainage, and in general looks out for the care and ornamentation of the village. It seems to be mainly a matter of interest to the women of the village, and the writer declares that village improvement first began in this country in 1853, when the Laurel Hill Association of Stockbridge was founded by Miss Mary Hopkins, afterwards Mrs. Goodrich. Going further back, she finds a forerunner of Miss Hopkins in Maria Edgeworth, who in 1831 devoted herself to the same cause in Edgeworthtown. One thing which has tended to foster village improvement has been the "presence of summer visitors and residents," who bring with them an unwillingness to submit to the original village standard of civilization, and it appears that more than sixty towns in Massachusetts have established societies, though some of them have not been maintained, and among the results of the movement noticed in various communities are smooth, well-kept, and well-shaded walks, improved buildings and grounds, diminution of the nuisance of advertisements on rocks and fences, improved drainage, the opening of new paths, and the removal of rubbish and care of cemeteries. In all the cases enumerated, though the method employed has been that of associated or corporate action, the societies have been organized and the work done by one or two persons, as in the case of all other reforms. The activity of women in the matter has been very striking, and deserves attention because it is no doubt related to the activity of women in certain directions in public affairs in the cities. No mention is made of the case of Ashfield, where remarkable results have been produced, chiefly by the efforts of Prof. C. E. Norton and G. W. Curtis, commemorated in an annual village dinner, the speeches at which attract wide attention. The whole subject is one of considerable interest to any student of democratic life and customs.

—Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge has an article in *Scribner's* on "The Last Plantagenet," in which he reviews the researches of several modern scholars, and undertakes to give an accurate historical picture of Richard III. The crook-backed villain and tyrant whom we all know in the play becomes, in the course of the essay, an erect, well-favored, far-sighted statesman, who, if the list of reforms and improvements introduced by him is somewhat meagre, would have left behind him a record for all to envy had he been allowed to live a little longer. Mr. Lodge admits that Richard was "indifferent to human life, bloodthirsty and cruel," but we must remember that he lived in a society (that of England in the latter half of the fifteenth century) whose views as to the sacredness of human life, and as to murder, treachery, and the like, "were those of North American Indians." We are to remember also that he murdered only the nobility and gentry, who took precisely his view of moral questions. Nor is it to be overlooked that "the ability of the man, his greatness as a soldier, his wisdom as a statesman" were "his alone, while his crimes and his overmastering ambition, although his own, too, were also the offspring of his times, of which he, like other men, was the child and prototype." That is, we must credit a man with all the good that there is in him, but attribute his crimes to his period. This theory has never been advanced so baldly before, and, as stated by the learned essayist, would be enough to make a North American Indian laugh. The article ought to be looked into carefully by Mr. Gairdner, who, according to Mr. Lodge, having undertaken, and failed, to sustain the traditional and Shaksperian view, has paved the way for the present impartial and original review. Mr. Lodge, among other novel and important remarks, states that, since the death of Richard, the English monarchy has been growing more and more "bourgeoise." Alas for the good old times. Another article, on "A Great Hotel," by Jesse Lynch Williams, gives a mass of

curious information, accompanied by illustrations, relating to the American hotel as it exists to day. The article notices the fact that some "guests" would like more privacy and comfort and less display, but his answer is the usual one, that they are a minority, and that probably the average guest gets what he wanted. So the minority go off to Europe to travel.

—The chief illustrated articles in *Harper's* are by Richard Harding Davis (on the coronation of the Czar), Charles F. Lummis (on the "Awakening of a Nation," *i. e.*, Mexico), Richard Wheatley (on "Hygeia in Manhattan"), and Poulteney Bigelow (on the President of Orange Free State—Part iv. of his "White Man's Africa"). Mr. Lummis, who speaks of Mexico from long acquaintance, declares the development of Mexico under Diaz, now President for some twenty years, to be "as wonderful as sudden." Brigandage has been suppressed, and life, property, and human rights "are more secure than even with us." As for stability, Mexico had, until the present era began, fifty-two executives of different kinds in fifty-nine years. Seven thousand miles of railway have been built and a network of telegraph lines, while a complete school system of a very thorough sort has been established. The consular and diplomatic service is far superior to ours. Finally, if we may trust Mr. Lummis, free speech and a free press exist, and corrupt administration of the various States has been stamped out. This is really the description of a free country, but Mr. Lummis calls the Government a "logical paternalism," and what we know of the Spanish-American world would lead us to question the practicability of asserting, even under Diaz, rights *against* the Government, and most of all to wonder (as the Mexicans themselves do) what will happen after Diaz goes. If he disappears and a stable political and social order endures, the crisis will have been passed, and a respectable modern state will have been proved to exist.

—Capt. Mahan contributes to the *Century* an authoritative discussion of the battle of Copenhagen; and, among other papers of interest, the Recollections of Samuel Lover, by his daughter, and "In the Desert with the Bedouin," by R. Talbot Kelly, and "An Inland Venice" (the Spreewald), by Charles de Kay, are most noticeable. All of these are illustrated, as is also Mrs. Van Rensselaer's "Places in New York," in which case, however, we do not find the illustrations specially typical of the "union of individuality and heterogeneousness," which the author sets down as making its character. The Grotesque should not be forgotten, and there are much more wonderful effects of high buildings and elevated roads to be seen than any depicted here. A view of the city as it appears from the deck of a Staten Island ferryboat is something to remember, and, as Baedeker would say, the elevated-railroad elevators should not be overlooked by the visitor. We should also insist on Monotony and Squalor having their share in any complete typification of the city, and would suggest Harlem Flats as illustrating the former. But then we love realism; and so, by the way, does Mr. Stephen Crane, who, in his short story, "A Man and Some Others," has turned his attention to blackguard humanity as it appears in southwestern Texas. He gives, very neatly, a characterization of a peculiar quality of his own writing when he talks of "the inconsequence of human tragedy." That is what is always in his mind, and it is a new idea in our literature. What used to fill people's minds was the significance and epic character of life and death; what delights him with realism is that it can be used not only to vulgarize romance, but to make tragedy "inconsequential." That is, he can get rid of morality and purpose altogether, and write about human beings in a kind of artistic vacuum, in which nothing has any meaning whatever. In vivid contrast to this point of view is Mr. Stillman's pathetic "true history" of two pet squirrels, "Billy and Hans."

—The report of the Maine Superintendent of Common Schools for 1896, recently issued, is a document of more than ordinary interest. Instead of filling his pages with discussions of "educational values," "psychology for teachers," and the "enrichment" of the course of study, Mr. Stetson presents further results of an investigation of the actual condition of the common schools of the State, some account of which was given in his report for 1895. From information furnished by 513 superintendents of schools in towns and cities, it appears that only 21 per cent. of the superintendents are themselves teachers, and that but 4 per cent. devote their entire time to the duties of their office. Sixteen per cent. state that they have had only a common-school education, and 4 per cent. that they have never attended school, while 35 per cent. have had no practical experience as teachers. Twenty two per cent of the school-houses are reported as in "poor" condition, 52 per cent. as "fair," and 20 per cent. as "excellent." The condition of out-buildings, including many reported as "excellent," is deplorable. While 71 per cent. of the teachers are legal residents of the towns in which they teach, 17 per cent. sustain such family or business relations to the superintendents as to give them a marked advantage in obtaining positions. It is not surprising, therefore, to learn that only 38 per cent. of the teachers have taken the examinations prescribed by State law. As to length of service, 67 per cent. have taught but one year, or less, in their present schools, and 27 per cent. have taught altogether for no longer period. That the local superintendents are not wholly indifferent to the condition of both schools and teachers is shown by the fact that 75 per cent. of them approve the scheme of a State Board of Examiners, the creation of which is being urged upon the Legislature. Of the $1,638,598 available for the support of schools in 1896, $515,742 came from the State Treasury. The report has been widely called for and, naturally enough, has evoked some hostile criticism; but there appears to be a greater disposition than for some years past to consider proposed reforms, and to make the schools of the State, what they at present are not, both efficient and economical. It would be interesting to know in how many States an equally thorough investigation of the common schools would show the prevalence of better conditions.

—The heated controversy now occupying German parliaments and newspapers as to the ethics of duelling has given occasion to quite a little "literature." Two pamphlets, "Das Duell und der germanische Ehrbegriff," and "Das Duell in Deutschland" (Kassel: Brunnemann), by Dr. Georg von Below, the well-known professor at Münster, deserve to be noticed, even outside Germany, as distinct contributions to the history of social manners. Dr. von Below goes the right way to work for his immediate purpose, in maintaining that there is nothing peculiarly German about the duel; that it has not been developed on German soil either out of trial by battle, or private warfare, or the tournament, but that it is a "Romance" institution, "a Spanish-Italian-French" sickness, which entered the fatherland from outside in the second half of the sixteenth century. Appeals to the "primitive German" have often done so much mischief that it is to be hoped that they will be listened to now that they are for once on the side of common sense. Men who are brought officially into contact with the compulsory duel still maintained by the military authorities, need so much moral courage to express their disapprobation that they deserve all honor and respect; and it is a duty, therefore, to mention the noteworthy case of Pastor Schräder and the clergy around Bremerhafen. Pastor Schräder, of a village near Geestemünde, was called upon as a military chaplain to conduct the funeral services over the captain of a corvette who had fallen in a duel. He felt bound to declare decisively and earnestly that duelling and Christianity are incompatible; whereupon the military authorities withdrew from him "the military cure of souls"—or, as perhaps it ought to be translated, "the cure of military souls"! The rest of the story is even more cheering. None of the clergy in Geestemünde or Bremerhafen would consent, under these circumstances, to accept the office, and the military authorities found themselves compelled to ask Pastor Schräder to resume his charge.

—In an octavo pamphlet of ninety pages M. Hugo P. Thieme has undertaken to give, under the title 'La Littérature française du dix-neuvième Siècle' (Paris: H. Welter), a bibliography of the principal prose-writers, poets, dramatic authors, and critics. The contract is undoubtedly a large one, and that Mr. Thieme should have had the courage to attempt so serious a task is to his credit. But whether he was wise in publishing the result of his work in its present state, is a question which it is not easy to answer in the affirmative. Even a cursory glance reveals many deficiencies, and not minor ones, either. Taking Balzac, for instance, there is no mention of the date of publication of the separate works, nor, in the absence of such mention, any reference to Lovenjoul's masterly bibliography, save under "Références," where there is no indication of the nature of the work. Marcel Barrière's 'L'Oeuvre de H. de Balzac' is not given, neither is Flat, Biré, Moore. The 'Répertoire de la Comédie Humaine' is credited to Cerfberr alone, Christophe's name being omitted. Under Guizot, neither Chambrun nor Crozals is named. The omissions in the Hugo bibliography are not inferior. Baudelaire's pages in 'L'Art Romantique,' and his study prefixed to the selections in Crépet, are both ignored. So Bourget, Des Essarts, De Laprade, Morel-Fatio, and John Morley. There is no intimation that Banville's 'Petit Traité de Versification Française' is practically devoted to a study of Hugo as a verse-writer; it is not named under this rubric. Marzial's book is also omitted, though the bibliography which it contains alone entitles it to mention. Monod's 'Les Maîtres de l'histoire' is cited under Taine, but not under Michelet or Renan. Although Byvanck has given us one of the best books on the Décadents and the Symbolists, he is not referred to at all under Mallarmé, Moréas, or Verlaine. The references to periodical literature are equally incomplete and unsatisfactory. M.

Thieme does not appear to have met with the *Revue de Paris*, which is not included in his list of periodicals, though it is here and there referred to, nor to be aware of the existence of the *Revue Blanche*, the *Revue d'Art Dramatique*, *La Critique*, the *Zeitschrift für Französische Sprache und Litteratur*, or the newspaper, *Le Temps*, in which Sarcey's dramatic criticisms have so long been published and are still being published. The work is very imperfect, and it is a pity that the author yielded to the entreaties of his friends that he should publish it before having at least revised it with some care, and made tolerably certain that he had included well-known references. The proof-reading has been very carelessly done, and the alphabetical disarrangement is not conducive to facility of reference. Economy is carried too far when both pages of the cover have to be utilized for matter which ought to be found within the covers. If M. Thieme will make of his present publication the basis of a more thorough and accurate work, he will earn the hearty thanks of students of nineteenth-century literature. The imperfection of his present effort ought to stimulate him to make a really valuable contribution to bibliography.

POLITICAL SCIENCE AT BRYN MAWR.

The Nicaragua Canal and the Monroe Doctrine: A Political History of Isthmus Transit, with special reference to the Nicaragua Canal project and the attitude of the United States Government thereto. By Lindley Miller Keasbey. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

Mr. Keasbey is associate professor of political science at Bryn Mawr College. In a volume of six hundred pages, nine tenths of which is historical, he gives a narrative account of the various dreams, schemes, plans, expeditions, explorations, and enterprises of four centuries, relating to a commercial route across the isthmus, the only important result of which, thus far, has been the Panama Railway. This sketch includes and is in great part made up of an account of the diplomatic negotiations and treaties between the countries chiefly interested, and especially of the Clayton Bulwer treaty. There is also a considerable collection of facts relating to the commercial aspect of the question, designed to prove, what we believe has never been questioned by anybody, that a canal across the isthmus would be a very important commercial work. Oddly enough (in a book written in the interest of the Nicaragua route), the author seems to admit that the question whether the Panama sea-level canal or the Nicaragua lock-canal is the better route, is, as a "technical" question, still open (p. 16); but as he says (p. 17) "the aim of this book is political," and as this political aim is to show that the control of the transit is a vital matter for the United States, his views would seem to apply with equal force to any canal, no matter through what country it may run nor what it may cost. Indeed, they would apply to the proposed Tehuantepec ship-railway, for this, once built, might be used to bring over the whole British navy (striking at us, as Prof. Keasbey would say, through the Suez Canal), and lay it down in the Gulf, ready for action at our very doors.

As an historian, Mr. Keasbey hardly seems destined to attain a very high rank. His work is the result of painstaking industry, unaided, however, by any power of arrangement, the result being rather a disorderly heap of materials than a coherent analysis of the march of events. The book is consequently rather difficult reading; and the difficulty produced by lack of literary skill is increased by the mistaken efforts of the author to evolve order from confusion by an artificial arrangement not based on facts, but introduced to support a preconceived theory, representing the isthmus as the theatre of a titanic struggle between England and the United States for the control of the key to the Western Hemisphere, if not to the commerce of the world. Unfortunately, the facts recorded by the author, from the downfall of Spain and the mercantile system, fail to show any continuous policy on the subject in any country, while they do show beyond question that the only country which now contains any body of persons demanding the exclusive control of the isthmus and talking as if a titanic struggle for it were contemplated, is neither England nor France, but the United States, although, as the author very clearly shows, we are "estopped," or, in plain English, bound by our own promises, not to engage in any struggle, nor to demand any exclusive control.

Yes, the collection of facts made by Mr. Keasbey not only does not support, but disproves, and even renders absurd the conclusions which he undertakes to draw. One of the curious facts in the history of the project, recalled and made plainer than ever by this author, is that we really were, at one time, not so very long ago, threatened by an enemy on the isthmus—a foreign enemy engaged in carrying out a political plot hostile to our interests. In 1846 a pamphlet was published in London on the canal question by an unknown writer, who called himself "N. L. B.," and who, after likening the position of Nicaragua in the New World to that of Constantinople in the Old, pointed out that if the isthmus were cut through, that State, "destined to attain an extraordinary degree of prosperity and grandeur," "would command, by virtue of her central position, the entire coast of North and South America." He predicted that England would "see with pleasure" a powerful Central American State, capable, by "backing Mexico," of preventing "any further encroachments from the North," and declared that England had, "more than the other Powers, a political interest in the execution of this project" (p. 16). The enemy who actually appeared in Central America, however, was not England, but the author of this interesting prediction, engaged at the time of its publication in a conspiracy to verify it. Six years later, the pamphleteer had got possession of the Government of France by violence, and eighteen years later had established an Emperor in Mexico, and was sending out Michael Chevalier to "make sure of his rights in Nicaragua" (p. 293). The episode of the Mexican empire is rightly regarded now as having been a purely Napoleonic adventure, and we have never borne the French people any ill-will for it; but the historical fact remains that the only people against whose attempt to control the isthmus we have had to threaten force has been the French.

So long as the theories of the mercantile system lasted—that is, to the end of the Napoleonic wars, and the loss by Spain of her American colonies—outlying possessions on this side of the ocean were regarded as so much valuable property, to be "milked" by the home country, and as military or naval "keys." Such, in fact, in a military period, they really were. This was almost a necessary result, as the author seems to be aware, of the fact that national interests had been long identified with those of the reigning family (he calls the period one of Royal Monopoly); and that the aim of Government had been to regulate trade so as to bring in as much money as possible. Militarism was the groundwork of this system; domestic prosperity was conceived of as enjoyed, and was to a considerable extent enjoyed, at the expense of the rest of the world. While this system lasted, no doubt the control of the isthmus played a great part in all speculation as to the future of the western hemisphere. But with the appearance on the scene of the United States as a first class pacific Power, all this came to an end, and can never be brought back, because the ideas which underlay it have been outgrown. The modern Western world rests on individualism, free contract, and liberty, as distinguished from Governmental management, the two foremost Powers in the modern movement having been the United States and England. Since the present period has begun, England has had no more interest in aggrandizement on this side of the water than we have had in Europe. Her colonies here are notoriously of little or no value to her, as they tax themselves and make their own tariffs, while she is responsible for their defence.

This period the author rightly calls the period of liberalism and individual initiative. It is marked by the development of the United States as a great neutral and pacific Power, by the adoption of free trade by England, and, greater than all, by the introduction into common use of inventions and appliances which make the world commercially one, destroy time and space, efface political boundaries, and convert the earth into a great industrial machine, the interests of each part of which are identical with those of every other, and to which the termination of the general peaceful activity by war means ruin such as mankind has not known for centuries. It is a period in which peace has become a necessity. One of its most signal early triumphs was the ratification of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty in 1850, an agreement by which the two foremost commercial nations in the world mutually undertook that any isthmus canal which might be built to unite the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, should be a guarantee of a more lasting and universal peace. For what the two nations promised each other was not simply that neither should ever obtain exclusive control of any ship canal, or fortify it against the other; by the eighth article of the treaty they agreed that they would, so far as possible, establish the principle of the neutralization of all routes for all time. Their object was avowedly "the benefit of mankind" (Art. vi.). And now we are told by the author of this volume that this period came to an end in 1865, and that we are living in a new era, in which the canal project is a "national undertaking."

What he means by this is that within the last thirty years a certain number of persons, of whom he is one, and who have mainly belonged to one party, have fostered a plan for tearing up the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, having the canal built by the United States, or under its direction, and then claiming it as part of the "coast-line" of this country (the phrase was a "happy thought" of Blaine's), and assuming exclusive control.

Over the Clayton Bulwer treaty it is not worth while to waste time, for the author does not seem to pretend that England is not in the right in insisting that it is in force,

The peculiarity of his position is that, like all those who have taken up the cudgels for exclusive control, he proposes that we should act as if the treaty did not exist. International law and the Constitution, which make treaties part of the supreme law of the land, Mr. Keasbey evidently regards as being subordinate to the Monroe Doctrine. The Frelinghuysen-Zavala compact with Nicaragua (p. 426), negotiated in 1884, represents his ideal, and this provided for national ownership of the canal and a protectorate over Nicaragua. It was never ratified, because, in 1885, Mr. Cleveland withdrew it from the consideration of the Senate on the ground that it was opposed to the traditional policy of the country. Had it been adopted, as it probably would have been had the Republican party remained in control, the issue as to the existence and binding force of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty would have been definitely presented.

Treaties generally remain in force until circumstances so change as to make them useless. Aware of this, Mr. Keasbey wishes to make it appear that something has taken place which makes it necessary for us to claim not merely that the treaty is outgrown, but that it follows from this that we must control the isthmus. For this purpose, however, he is obliged to resort to pure fancy. His first fancy is that England is longing for the exclusive control herself, when the fact is that she strenuously disclaims anything of the sort, and insists upon the Clayton-Bulwer treaty as preventing it (p. 412). His second is his "new period" of exclusive control; the fact being, not that any period of national control has begun, but that he and his friends want to establish this principle in defiance of the whole historical tradition of the country for three-quarters of a century. Finally, he brings forward his great discovery that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is in conflict with the Monroe Doctrine, the fact being that, but for the existence of the treaty, England would have been entirely at liberty to deal with any Central American state as she pleased. This is the point which the victims of the Monroe craze never fail to miss. If the Clayton Bulwer treaty were cancelled to-morrow by consent of both parties, England would be at liberty to do anything that the treaty prevents her doing; and the theory of the author is that she is herself longing for the exclusive control of the isthmus. But with the treaty out of the way, what would prevent her getting exclusive control? The Monroe Doctrine, and that alone. But the doctrine has no force except so far as it may be backed up by a threat of war. The argument, therefore, comes to this, that the assertion of a claim to exclusive control of a canal through territory over which we have no jurisdiction, at the risk of a war with our most dangerous rival, is better than a perpetual joint guarantee of peace. The argument could have no meaning except for conspirators bent on changing the policy of the United States from that of a great pacific, industrial, and neutral state into a belligerent military Power. That there are men at Washington quite ready to become the beneficiaries of such a conspiracy, there is ample proof.

Chapter xxiv. is a grotesque summary of the author's views. This continent, he declares, is "to be reserved for the exclusive enjoyment of its present inhabitants," and this position we are to vindicate by assuming exclusive control of any canal that may be built. The great law of life is the survival of the fittest (p. 558), and we are the fittest. The designs of England are opposed in the East by Russia, while on the West "the United States dispute her further advances," and "conflict is consequently imminent". (p. 568). "The ideas of the American people are rapidly reverting to militarism" because "Canada blocks the way on the north," and "to the south the people are held in check by treaty obligations with a friendly state" (p. 571). We need the canal in order to be able to annex Hawaii, which is described as among our "littoral islands" (pp. 571-2). Arbitration is out of the question "because the American Monroe Doctrine is by no means so well established in the world as is the British imperial system," and we could "hardly expect any European arbiter to appreciate the justice of our present claims" (p. 587). Besides this the question is one of "national integrity" (p. 588). "For the present," Great Britain will continue to "work out her present imperial plans," and we must consequently "look for sympathy" "among her other competitors" (p. 592)—that is to say, to Russia, which has no interest in opposing the Monroe Doctrine, and with whose designs in the East the United States are "in no wise concerned" (p. 593). But if we prefer to "continue the contest single-handed," we must "round out our southern frontier" by constructing the Nicaragua Canal. As the Clayton-Bulwer treaty stands in the way, the author's final conclusion is that we had better "allow the treaty to stand for the present," but build the canal, and then, provided it is built with American capital, we can "assuredly control and defend" it, "despite international provisions to the contrary" (p. 597). That is, let us build the canal under the treaty, and then tear the treaty up, and fortify the canal against the world. Such a rigmarole as this cannot be seriously discussed.

"OUR DOLOMITES."

Through the Dolomites from Venice to Toblach: A Practical, Historical, and Descriptive Guide-Book to the Scotland of Italy. By Alexander Robertson, D.D. With forty-two full-page illustrations and map. London: George Allen; New York: Scribners. 1896. Pp. xii, 232.

To the true Dolomite-lover a new book on his favorite region is a cause of apprehension; he is satisfied with no half-way praises, no admissions that the Dolomites are splendid mountains of their kind; he expects them to be so clearly set forth that no reader can miss the just belief that they are of a kind unapproachable. His Pelmo, Fünffingerspitze, and the Drei Zinnen are to be compared only with Whymper's Matterhorn or Conway's Golden Throne. For a guide-book the imperishable Baedeker suffices, and there are already too many gossiping books of travel written by people who can laugh under the shadow of the Cimon della Pala. What is to be expected of a new book which, in its title-page, calls the most glorious part of the Alps "the Scotland of Italy"! As well talk of the "Tierra del Fuego of Sicily," or of "Saxon Switzerland." Scotland is a respectable mountainous country, with its own beauties and its own grandeur, but it is simply incommensurate with the Dolomites; the two cannot be described within the same book covers.

These natural apprehensions are dispelled as soon as we open the attractive and handsomely printed little volume of Dr. Robertson. Having paid the highest compliment to his native country by likening it to the Dolomites, he drops the comparison, and betakes himself to the making of a book which, so far as our acquaintance with the literature goes, is altogether the best upon its subject in any language. Though called a "guide-book," it attempts none of the posting, lodging, path-finding and purchasing functions which are so well performed by Baedeker's 'Eastern Alps.' Nor does Dr. Robertson attempt the impossible task of dethroning Miss Edwards's 'Untrodden Peaks and Unfrequented Valleys' from its position as the classic book of travels in this region. Dr. Robertson supplies a third and equally important aid to the voyager or reader—a study of the history, architecture, art, and life of a region whose natural beauties are rivalled by the romance of its history. 'Through the Dolomites' is a companion for him who has had the happiness to spend days or weeks in the Piave valley; and it is the best of books for preliminary reading by him who has still before him the delight of a first visit.

To the historical accounts and allusions Dr. Robertson has given much well-bestowed thought; his eyes are open for those Roman remains which are found all the way from the *Via Pustumia*, near Treviso, through Feltre, Belluno, Castel Lavazzo, and Caralto, to the Roman bridge below Pieve di Cadore, and the site of the Roman castle above it. He even identifies Greek towns—Damos, Grea, and Gogna; but his evidence is not stated, and without decisive evidence one must doubt such bold conclusions on spots so far from the coast. Modern wars have studded these valleys with hotly contested battle fields: Rusecco in 1509, painted by Titian; battles of "the mountain troopers" (that is, rolling stones and logs) which swept away the Austrians at Riccorbo and Chiappuza in 1848 and at Tre Ponte in 1866. Dr. Robertson's earlier history is somewhat affected by an optimistic view of what constituted the "alliance" with Venice from 1420 to 1797, and he does not clearly state why, in 1463, "the Republic of Cadoro gave to the Republic of Venice the Bosco di San Marco." But it adds interest to the beautiful forests to know that the Venetian galleons and galleys which assaulted the Turks and carried the Crusaders came from the Dolomites.

To the search for and identification of pictures much attention is given in the book; and while there seems too much readiness to accept altar-pieces and frescoes as the work of Titian and his contemporaries, Dr. Robertson does point out many obscure and neglected pictures; of especial importance are the twelfth-century frescoes of the Gothic chapel of Salagona on "the Ridge of Gold," for the first time brought to the notice of English-speaking travellers.

Side by side with this erudition and spirit of research stands a very agreeable interest in the people and their life. The peasants of the Dolomites are a bold and hardy race, and the author brings out a certain stateliness in their buildings and their habits which is lacking in most parts of Switzerland. The "Biblioteca Cadorini" at the far-away village of Vigo is not an isolated example of the honorable custom of book-collecting. It was in Borca that there was gathered the splendid De Luca collection of Aldines, Comminianas, and manuscripts. At Belluno and Pieve are little museums. In Valle the author spent some time in a palace which he must have the credit of discovering, and there he unearthed a bit of decayed Venetian life. No English author has so lived among real, breathing Cadorini, and he had his reward: for him were opened the garrets full of for-

gotten furniture; to him the peasants brought bronze pots and carved chairs; to him the owners of the neglected palaces displayed their panelled wainscots and rich leather hangings.

By this association Dr. Robertson became heir to some lively country sayings which he has recorded. At Agordo he was told that "This is the only spot for water and for air; there's not another." At Perarolo the young women, stooping under burdens of wood and hay, say, "I have already taken the bend." The peasant woman at Damos "cannot dress her children with pomp." "The ground is always out walking here in winter," says an old peasant of San Martino. The life in these mountains is indeed hard. The timber industry (described in detail by Dr. Robertson) has for centuries been the chief source of income, and it is an interesting contrast with the ruder and more wasteful methods of American lumbermen; yet even in the Boite valley they cut too furiously. Dr. Robertson finds many cases of emigration to America, and discovers—what has escaped the notice of previous inquirers—that each village has a corresponding town in the United States, to which its emigrants regularly betake themselves. Another of the dangers and hardships is brought out with sorrowful distinctness: it is the "boas," the landslips. Of the dozen such "ruins" which are noted in the book, the most striking by far is the fall of 1771, which brought down a great slice of Monte Forca upon the doomed valley, and built a dike behind which backed up Alleghe Lake, four hundred feet deep. One characteristic of the region the author seems to have left altogether unnoticed, the jolly chimney corner, circling a detached hearth, which is adorned with the monumental bright iron fire-dogs of the country. Auronze and San Vito he has visited, but he knows not the snug warmth of the open hearths nor the smell of the bubbling stew.

To the scenery of the Dolomites the author pays due tribute, and he has enriched his book with more than forty beautiful half-tones, which go as far toward suggesting the splendors of the region as is possible for small black and white pictures. The reader has before his eyes the majestic forms of Civetta, Pelmo, and the Drei Zinnen (the author unjustifiably adheres to the far less striking name of the Tre Cime di Lavaredo), and the astounding mass of Cristallo, so perfectly reflected in the Dürrensee that the picture in the book may be literally turned upside down without disturbing its beauty or its truthfulness. But how present by photographs the faint pink of Civetta, the orange-tawny of Tofana, or the rose color of Croda di Lago?

To find flaws in a book which gives such pleasure of reminiscence and adds so much promise to "the next trip," would be ungenerous. Indeed, the errors of description are too few to be mentioned. Two general criticisms may, however, be made: one on the treatment, the other on the scope of the work. There is not a page too much of it on any subject; but there is too little upon the mountains, the traveller's Titanic friends and neighbors. The very names stir and arouse one, and sound like words from an heroic language: Lau, Sief, Cornon, Zumelles, Duran, Averau, Lares, Dubiea, Pismeda, Malcora, Digona, Promper, Mijion, Sforniai, Popena, Mojazza, Cridola, Tudaio, Crepedel, Pomagagnon, and the mighty brotherhood of Nuvalau, Tofana, Cristallo, Sorapiss, Pelmo, and Antelao. And yet these are friendly and hospitable giants. With all their majesty, Matterhorn, Weisshorn, Finsteraarhorn, and all the other wind-blown monarchs are German princes—haughty, cold, and unapproachable; the Dolomites have the Italian gentleman's softness and the Austrian count's *Gemüthlichkeit*. It cannot be that Dr. Robertson properly loves them, or he would make their individuality and prodigiousness stand out as clearly as he does his towns and his churches.

The other criticism is that the book covers only a part of the Dolomites—the two largest of the five north-and-south valleys. Cadore is not all, nor the most magnificent. The hurtling Cismone has gorges unapproached in the Pieve valley. Can Dr. Robertson not have seen Primiero, that he dismisses it with a mention? Has he ever stood in the Val di Pradidali, in the midst of the Pala di San Martino group? Has he crossed the Fedaja Pass or skirted the Langkofel and Rosengarten? Has he stood on the elephant-back of the Schlern? An author has no right to do a part of his work so well that the need of a like industry, truthfulness, and insight is doubly felt in the regions which he has not described. In thanking Dr. Robertson for giving us a fresh, helpful, and invigorating book on one of the noblest mountain regions in the world, is it too much to ask him for a companion volume on the rest of that famed land? For even his favorite Antelao is, as Miss Edwards's peasant said of another peak, "only one of our Dolomites."

Ranch Life and the Hunting-trail. By Theodore Roosevelt. The Century Co. 1896. Small 4to, pp. 187. Illustrated by Frederic Remington.

It is but a few years since the grassy plains west of the Mississippi Valley were occupied by the red man and the game on which he subsisted. Then the white hunters and trappers, backed by the railway and the soldier, began their work of destruction, and, by depriving the red man of his means of support, prepared him for control on the reservation. Myriads of skeletons over vast areas where, in the vengeful phrase of the pioneer, the good Indians are buried and the others dare not venture without a pass from the agent, recently marked the wasteful career of our hunters. Now even the Indian signs are growing scarce and faint; occasionally the traveller may find imprints of scattered lodges, or, by the stream upon the flats, the deeper traces of the village. The game is almost extinct, the robe-hunter has vanished, the savage dresses in cloth and sleeps in blankets. When the wild tribes were gathered in by the soldiers, the "cattlemen" were in waiting to restock the ranges. Each rushed forward as large a herd as he could secure for the best location, and strove to keep his neighbors as far off as possible, that he might have room for increase. Settled on the chosen grounds, he and his fellows combined for mutual interests and thus kept their holdings for a time. But they were mere squatters; the immense herds fed over Government lands, took care of themselves, and, if they managed to live through the winter, were rounded up once or twice in the summer for branding the calves and selecting the beeves. Homesteaders and surveyors then came to cut up the ranges and initiate different methods. A multitude of small herds could not be handled as a few large ones; there must be more constant supervision, and provision of food and shelter.

This book deals with temporary conditions; but they are well worth the record. The days of the "cattle kings," the "cowboys," and the great "roundups," as the author knew them, may be nearly over, but their story will not lose its interest. It marks a stage in the development of the country that cannot be ignored. There is probably no one better able to deal with the subject than Mr. Roosevelt. His sketches of the range, the herd, the cowboy, and the cattleman, of the ranch and the hardships and pleasures of ranch life, are drawn from personal experience and observation; and they are admirably done. They favor the ranchman somewhat in so forcibly setting forth the cruelty of climate and surroundings while dealing rather gently with that of the man who burns his brand into the flesh with the red iron and allows his helpless victims to freeze and starve on the blizzard-swept plain. The cowboys and cattlemen as seen in this work are true to life. They have many estimable traits; they are strong, self-reliant, manly, and well adapted to their vocation; and they will not disappear with change of conditions, as one might suppose. They will continue to be rough riders, but, becoming herdsmen in more constant watch of their bands, will to some extent approach the men on whom they now look down, the "sheep men," who spend their days and nights with the "woolly idiots" in their charge.

The cowboy from the Southwest brought with him a number of terms in the use of which our author is not entirely happy. "Chaperajos," in several places, should have been *Chaparejos*, or *chapparejos;* "the Spanish word lasso" should be *lázo;* "hackamore—a species of severe halter" is the Spanish *jáquima* (pr. háhkeemah), the headstall of a halter; and it may be suggested that possibly "Doughgies," a word which the author says he has never seen written, is the Spanish *dógos*, derisively applied to the young steers on account of their size; a *dógo* being a small dog. Mr. Roosevelt's observations on the natural history and the game of the region are thoroughly trustworthy, and consequently possess a considerable scientific importance. As adventures, the hunting experiences are not far above the average; for this reason they give a better impression of the chase than they would if more sensational. What is said of the Indian and the treatment to be accorded him is unusually just and considerate.

The volume is one of permanent value; it is effectively illustrated, and altogether is uncommonly interesting. As it first appeared, it was larger and more expensive; the present edition is the more convenient in size and price.

Richard Cobden and the Jubilee of Free Trade. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1896.

Sir James Stephen said of Jeremy Bentham's books that many of them were like exploded bombs buried beneath the ruins of the abuses against which they were directed. Much the same must be said of the labors of any successful reformer. It is but a few years since the struggle for the abolition of slavery enlisted the hearts and minds of a number of noble men, but the attainment of their object necessarily resulted in their removal from the attention of mankind. Their work has passed into history; it and they belong now to the past and retain for this generation only an historical interest. So is it in modern England with Cobden and his mighty achievements. Few living men have any recollection of the era

of protection, and free trade has become so much a part of the nature of things that it would be unreasonable to expect men to dwell upon it with enthusiasm. The point of view changes; as we pass on, we look on a different side of reforms and improvements. Few people spend much time in considering the enormous gain from the introduction of railroads. They are occupied more in considering how they may be extended or in complaining of their abuses. There is perhaps more talk of late in England of the disadvantages of free trade than of its blessings. Hardly any one ventures to propose a return to protection—that would be too preposterous; but there have been suggestions of "fair trade," of retaliatory duties, of an imperial customs union, and other disguised forms of protection, and Lord Salisbury has intimated that free trade may have been somewhat hastily and improvidently adopted.

It is therefore not surprising that the "Jubilee of Free Trade" was not the occasion of any great popular demonstration in England. We must, however, confess to some surprise that the celebration of this jubilee by the Cobden Club was not more enthusiastic than it would appear to have been from the addresses collected in this volume. Mr. Henry Dunckley and Sir Charles Villiers spoke, indeed, with no faltering voices, and in Mr. Courtney there was no shadow of turning. But Mr. Dunckley and Sir Charles Villiers belong to a past age, and Mr. Courtney found no youthful supporters. M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu furnished an appreciative estimate of Cobden's work, but he actually raised the question, "Is it certain that the work of Cobden is wholly and irreparably destroyed?" and went no further in his reply than to say that the force of his teaching and example, although weakened, "is not entirely exhausted." Dr. Theodor Barth endeavored to extract some encouragement for free-traders out of the course of economic policy in Germany, but his success was not brilliant. One cannot but wish that John Bright might have been spared for this occasion, or that Gladstone's vigor had remained a little longer unabated. Why should John Morley not have been heard from, who of all men should be able to speak with authority concerning Cobden? Surely the principles involved in the free-trade movement are of the utmost importance in these days. Protective duties are but one manifestation of the perversion of the power of government by special classes and interests, and even in England the cause of freedom demands incessant vigilance of its defenders.

The Year after the Armada; and Other Historical Studies. By Martin A. S. Hume, F.R. Hist. S. Macmillan Co. 1896.

WE welcome the appearance of Mr. Hume's historical essays for two particular reasons: first, because we cannot have too much information about that great flowering time of the Anglo-Saxon race, the reign of Queen Elizabeth; secondly, because Mr. Hume combines fulness of learning with lightness of touch. There are persons who turn to dust whatever they handle, even the heroic ages of the world. When a man submits to be the bond-servant of second-class Germans, he becomes an insufferable bore. Dr. Johnson once said of Goldsmith that he knew nothing; that he merely transplanted knowledge from one book to another. So it is with the army of colliers in the mine of commonplace monography. They are equally destitute of human interest and of power to make the past live again. They disdain style, and seek only to be correct and exhaustive. Let our young historians follow Mr. Hume's example, and try to produce sound history which at the same time will be accepted for publication in the *Gentleman's Magazine*.

'The Year after the Armada' is but the first of nine studies. Mr. Hume's work at the Record Office has brought him into close contact with the Spain of the Philips, and he throws heart into writing of what he has found among the rare publications and manuscripts of that period. Dons and swashbucklers, sea-captains and prelates troop through his pages in their fit characters, roaming up and down the western fringe of Europe to spin their plots and to wage their wars. Spain and England stand out in relief, not as types of ideas and institutions, but as persons and rivals. The pomp and finery of courts, the love of fighting, the daring, greed, and energy of a great age are all portrayed by Mr. Hume with truthful drawing and with warmth of color. His book is not one to be consulted, but to be read.

Mr. Hume begins with the attempt of an English joint-stock company to set Dom Antonio on the throne of Portugal in 1589. He has furbished up some Spanish and Portuguese manuscripts to supplement Record Office materials and adjust the point of view. Altogether they furnish him forth with a very pretty story of a huge fiasco. The inducements offered by the pretender were more attractive than the promises made by modern vendors of gold mines. Upon the reduction of Lisbon, Dom Antonio was "to hand to her Majesty the Queen, as an aid to the costs of the fleet, five millions in gold." He was to pay her annually 300,000 ducats in gold, delivered in London with carriage prepaid. He was to surrender seven Portuguese fortresses to England and pay the English garrisons sent to defend them. He was to fill all the bishoprics and archbishoprics of Portugal with English Catholics. Finally, he was to give every soldier fifteen months' pay, and the whole army permission to sack Lisbon for twelve days. No wonder that with these inducements 18,500 men were enlisted for the expedition. The Queen, in her usual thrifty way, managed to elude financial responsibility, while providing for her own profit in the event of success. Drake was one of the main promoters of the enterprise, and the Earl of Essex escaped from court to join him. Sir John Norris, who had served with credit in Ireland and the Low Countries, was taken along to command the troops. His force was identical in quality with the contingent led by Sir John Falstaff to the battle of Shrewsbury.

"The scum of the towns, the sweepings of the jails, were pressed for the voyage, and Pricket (or Wingfield), in his apology for the expedition, lays most of the blame of failure on the kind of men they had, and complains bitterly of the justices and majors sending them 'base, disordered persons, sent unto us as living at home without rule' . . . . Of the men at arms, all but the three or four thousand old soldiers, mostly from the Netherland wars, were idle vagabonds whose first idea was loot and whose last was fighting."

Yet so complete was the Spanish *débâcle* after 1588 that even this motley assortment of filibusters captured and occupied Corunna without difficulty.

The goal of the expedition was Lisbon, where disaffection towards Spain was supposed to be intense; but Fernando de Toledo arrived in time to save the town. Elizabeth became violently opposed to a project which detained Essex abroad, the Portuguese nobility refused to rally round Dom Antonio, and, on the 8th of June, Drake received on board at Cascaes the wreckage of a sordid host. The bubble was pricked within two months of the time when it was blown. Dom Antonio's claims "ended with the ignominious failure of the English attempt to avenge a great national injury by a joint-stock enterprise."

Of Mr. Hume's other essays—most of which have appeared in the *English Historical Review*, the *Fortnightly*, and the *Gentleman's Magazine*—the most valuable are "The Coming of Philip the Prudent," and "A Fight against Finery." One expects to find soundness of research at the Record Office. We hope that Mr. Hume's vivacity may also become endemic there.

On Many Seas. By Frederick Benton Williams. Edited by his friend William Stone Booth. Macmillan Co. 1897.

THIS is a notable book; a realistic record of cruel, bitter privations, hardships, and sufferings, and of man's brutality to man. How it came to be written is an interesting story. A part of the East Side House Settlement at the foot of East Seventy-sixth Street is the Webster Free Library, of which Mr. William S. Booth is librarian. Mr. Booth for several years followed the sea. Among the constant frequenters of the library was a man, now employed by the city in the capacity of steam engineer, who for fifteen years was also a sailor. On this account a friendship was established between the two, which led to a mutual exchange of nautical experiences. Mr. Booth was so impressed with the vivid, dramatic force and realism of his friend's narrations that he induced him to commit them to paper, promising to edit and prepare them for the press. The name of the author as printed is an assumed one; but such modesty was not called for in the case of so excellent a work.

He was born at Lovell, Maine, and in 1866, in his fourteenth year, determined to follow the sea as a profession. His first experience was gained in a coasting schooner sailing southward. In this vessel he had a preliminary taste of the brutal accompaniments of a seafaring life. For some slight indiscretion he was fearfully beaten by the entire crew, led by the first mate, and, had it not been that he was opportunely rescued by the captain, his career as a sailor had ended then and there. His second voyage was to China and Australia in a full-rigged ship, the *Tangore*. In a boat attack on a Chinese pirate junk he lost his forefinger and the end of his thumb. The *Tangore*, after loading wool in Australia, sailed for London, at which port Mr. Williams left her and shipped on an English ship bound for Cardiff to take in cargo. The vessel was wrecked on Land's End, whence he made his way to London, and joined a Welsh brig bound for St Lucia, West Indies. While in that port he took part in a mutiny and was promptly thrown into prison. Upon his release he shipped on an American barkentine for Philadelphia, and during the voyage he was attacked with malarial fever, to which it was supposed he had succumbed. Preparations were made to throw him overboard when, much to the regret of the mate, he exhibited signs of life and the funeral ceremonies were postponed. On the way home the provisions gave out, and all hands were reduced to the verge of starvation. The captain's wife, who, on leaving St.

Lucia, weighed 250 pounds, through lack of food was reduced to a mere skeleton when Delaware Breakwater was sighted.

At Philadelphia the author joined a Nova Scotia bark bound for Antwerp. He was almost without clothing. As he says, he made the voyage across northern latitudes in a naked condition. At Antwerp commenced his experiences in ships of varied nationalities. Twice he voyaged around Cape Horn, twice to Calcutta, to South America and the United States. He served as a sailor on a Chilian man-of-war; on a whaler, and on craft of all sizes and rigs. He never fails to record with bitter emphasis the cruelties inflicted upon the men by officers of the merchant marine. He gives in detail many instances, among them an account of his treatment by the captain of an English ship bound to London from Calcutta, when he was suffering from scurvy, and the horrible abuse of himself and other members of the newly shipped crew of an American cotton-ship from New Orleans to Havre.

There is no monotony or repetition in the incidents he describes, and he makes little use of those technical phrases which ordinarily render the reading of sea tales so wearisome to the landsman. No more powerful delineation of the terrors of the ocean was ever written than his story of the two months' struggle of a little brig against adverse gales off Cape Horn. On this occasion his ribs were broken. For twelve days that he lay in his bunk, with every roll of the vessel he could feel the movement of the loosened bones against his side. His sense of humor is somewhat grim. It is mainly employed in describing the intolerable meannesses of a captain or the brutality of a mate. In the chapter telling of the death by suicide of the captain of a German bark on which he was serving as sailor, he relates as follows the enshrouding of the deceased:

"We turned the sides of the canvas up, and ran a seam down in front, and then, setting the lantern on his breast, I, who was at his head and to windward, turned the flap up over his face and stitched it down, while the sailmaker did the same at his feet to leeward. Having stitched the flaps down all round, I said to the sailmaker, 'I'll just take a final stitch through the end of his nose, Sails, and then I'm done.' 'No, don't do dat,' said the sailmaker, and as he glanced up I saw, by the light of the lantern, that he looked white and nervous. 'Why, certainly,' said I, 'he'll feel slighted if we omit the final stitch,' and as I said it I jabbed the needle stoutly through his nasal organ."

The author makes no pretence to literary skill, and probably his narrative gains in force thereby. The editing by Mr. Booth is, as he says, confined principally to the elimination of yarns suitable only to the atmosphere of the forecastle.

History of English Literature. By Bernhard ten Brink. Vol. III. To the Accession of Elizabeth. Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

We have here the final volume of the English translation of Ten Brink's 'Geschichte der Englischen Literatur.' This corresponds to vol. ii., part ii., of the German (published in 1893), and brings the subject down to the death of Surrey. The great merits of the original work are so well known that it would be superfluous to insist on them here. We are compelled, however, to speak in somewhat emphatic terms of the fashion in which the present volume has been treated by the translator. Ten Brink's German is singularly clear, easy, and attractive; the English of the volume before us is confused, harsh, and repellent. It is a sin to put so badly written a book into the hands of students. But this is not the worst of the matter: the volume abounds in misrenderings, some of them of the most extraordinary sort. Five minutes' examination of any part of it will convince anybody that we are not exaggerating the translator's offences against both German and English, and—we must add—against common sense as well. A few specimens, however, must be quoted, if only in justification of the strong language we have been forced to use:

"Der Anonymus bezeichnet sich selber als 'armen Sünder'; einer seiner Abschreiber aber hatte den klugen und damals nicht ungewöhnlichen Gedanken, an seine Stelle eine Mehrheit von 'würdigen Gelehrten und Doctoren der Gottesgelahrtheit' treten zu lassen. Dem frommen Sünder kamen solche Prädicate kaum zu." P. 355.

"The anonymous writer calls himself a 'pore sinner'; one of his copyists, however, had the happy thought—not uncommon in those days—of entering instead a number of 'worthy scholars and doctors of divinity.' Such appellations would scarcely have suited the pious 'sinner.'" P. 5.

"Besonders häufig vernimmt man auf diesem Gebiet den Namen Guillaumes de Deguilleville, der uns zuerst in der Betrachtung von Chaucer's geistlicher Dichtung begegnet ist." P. 355.

"A name specially often met with in this domain is that of Guillaume de Deguileville, whom we first came across when discussing the religious bent of Chaucer's mind." P. 5.

"Je correcter er in seiner Gesinnung und seinen Ideen, je gleichmässiger er in der Durchführung seines Planes, je wählerischer er in seiner Diction erscheint, desto weniger," u. s. w. P. 356.

"The more correct he is in his sentiments and ideas, the more equal the construction of his plan, and the more choice his diction, the less," etc. P. 6.

"Laborirt er an Unsicherheit der metrischen Auffassung." P. 454.

"He laboured under the uncertainty of the metrical idea." P. 102.

"Und wenn schon die Alten in die Idylle gelegentlich eigene Erlebnisse und Anspielungen auf politische Tagesereignisse verwebt hatten, so sehen ihre italienischen Nachahmer hierin die eigentliche Bedeutung des Genres." P. 455.

"And even though the ancients occasionally introduced into the idyll, experiences of their own and allusions to political events of the day, their Italian imitators considered this the real character of the *genre*." P. 102.

"dem vermittelnden Hausirer." P. 490.

"the intermeddling Pedlar." P. 137.

"Der Wallfahrer hat somit die Wette gewonnen; doch erlässt er den besiegten Gegnern die Busse, die sie nur sehr widerwillig entrichtet hätten." P. 491.

"The Palmer thus wins the wager, and his vanquished opponents are offered an indulgence which they are rather unwilling to accept." P. 138.

"Abwechselnd werden ein paar Worte der einen und der andern vernehmlich; dazwischen fallen Schimpfworte, Streit- und Hohnreden, heftige Verwünschungen, welche die beiden Prediger austauschen." P. 492.

"First a few words of the one, then of the other is heard, in between the storm of abusive and spiteful language and vehement denunciations which the two preachers hurl at each other." P. 139.

"Es führt uns einen Pantoffelhelden vor, der während der Abwesenheit seiner Frau das grosse Wort führt, in ihrer Gegenwart sofort zu Kreuze kriecht." P. 492.

"This piece introduces a hen-pecked hero who, when his wife is absent, is fond of playing the bravado, but in her presence acts the humble." P. 140.

"Gattin und Gast . . . machen sich . . . beide davon. Hans dünkt sich etwas damit, dass er das Feld behauptet; doch da fällt ihm ein, der Rückzug des schnöden Paares könne eine andere, ihm selbst verhängnissvolle Bedeutung haben." Pp. 492, 493.

"Wife and guest . . . leave him to himself. Johan feels somewhat elated at being left master of the field; but it then strikes him that the return of the insolent couple might alter matters, and prove fatal to himself." P. 140.

"Dieser Erfolg gründet sich nicht etwa auf Neuheit des Inhalts der Handlung. Ein schwärmerisch verliebter und zugleich lüsterner Jüngling, der, um an das Ziel seiner Wünsche zu gelangen, sich an eine Kupplerin wendet; eine Jungfrau, die der vereinten Wirkung ihres heissen Blutes und teuflischer Verführungskünste nicht zu widerstehen vermag — derartiges hatte die mittellateinische Poesie und auch die Vulgärdichtung bereits geboten." Pp. 494, 495.

"This success was not the result of any novelty in the subject of the action, where a gay young man is madly in love, and, in order to gain possession of the object of his desire, consults a procuress, a woman unable to control the combined effects of her own hot blood and devilish seductive arts. Such subjects had already been treated by Mid-Latin poetry, and also by the poetry of the common people." P. 142.

"Henry Parker, Lord Morley, der in alten und neuen Poeten gründlich belesen war und Petrarca's Trionfi in englische Verse übertrug, welche, wenn auch nicht im Stile Wyatts, jedesfalls wohl gemeint waren." P. 591.

"Henry Parker, Lord Morley, who was thoroughly well read in the ancient as well as the later poets, and who had translated Petrarch's 'Trionfi' into English verse, and although not rendered in Wyatt's style, was at all events well intentioned." P. 237.

The importance of the book must serve as an apology for the space given to these specimens. It is to be wished that every person interested in English literature might read Ten Brink's 'History.' A good translation is, then, a great need. As for the present volume, it ought to be withdrawn from the market.

Walks in Florence and its Environs. By Susan and Joanna Horner. 2 vols., illustrated. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

It is with regret and sadness that we take hold of the Misses Horner's 'Walks in Florence,' unaccountably sent out for review fifteen whole years after the appearance of the last edition. It is ungrateful to criticise at this date a book written by passionate lovers of the subject, which served its purpose well in its time. But what has not changed since! The galleries have been rearranged, whole collections transferred; a new criticism has sprung up in the interval and been widely accepted; appreciations then whispered as paradoxes have had time to become commonplace. The book of the Misses Horner still has a value, but no longer as a guide, rather as an account of opinions and tastes prevalent fifteen years ago, and as a description of Florence as it was then—at its heart still the Florence of Dante and Michelangelo.

Hinc lacrymae; for it is no more that Florence of the past, that wonderful contrivance of the human spirit to supply the intramural lack of variety and interest of situation with the beauty of perspectives subtly changing from open to narrow spaces, and of exquisite detail intended to be seen at close range. Where is the Mercato Vecchio, with its sunny arcades; where the toppling Ghetto, even as a tower-crowned hill relieving the monotony of the plain; where that graceful arch through which you gazed at a transfigured Giotto's tower?

And what has taken the place of these? Broad spaces and desolate streets drawing attention to what the old builders were so careful to conceal, nay, to disguise, the dreary flatness of Florence this side the Arno. A piazza with mock giant arches and monstrous, misunderstood cornices, and an equestrian Victor Emanuel—a wax group in bronze—take the place of that Mercato Vecchio so mellow with the gold of matchless associations, refined enough for a Greek *lesche*. And Noah laid bare by his jeering sons was no more pathetic a sight than the back of S. Giovanni exposed in its insignificance. To crown all, a colossal tombstone of blinding white marble takes the place of that hope, that fount of charmed possibilities, the (alas) no longer lacking façade of S. Maria del Fiore.

To these manifold changes, all deplorable and few excusable, the Misses Horner conspicuously draw attention by the very absence in their book of any reference to them, for all have taken place since this was published. Only for the haunts of art and of beauty, outside the now desecrated town, left miraculously untouched by the Florentine of to-day, incapable of rivalling his ancestors, and bent, it would seem, on destroying every vestige of a hated superiority—only for such spots do the Misses Horner offer a guide still useful. The copious historical notices, it scarcely need be said, also retain their value.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Anderson, R. E. The Story of Extinct Civilizations of the East Appletons.
Hope, Anthony. Phroso. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Iverach, Prof. James. St. Paul, his Life and Times F. H. Revell Co. 75c.
Lamb, Charles. The Last Essays of Elia. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan 50c.
Mackin, Mrs. James A Society Woman on Two Continents. Continental Publishing Co. $1.50.
Ostrander, D. Treatise on the Law of Fire Insurance. 2d ed. St. Paul: West Publishing Co
Pool, Maria L. Boss and Other Dogs. Stone & Kimball. $1.25
Pope's Iliad, Books I. VI., XXII. and XXIV. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co 25c.
Pott, Rev. Francis. An Introduction to the Principles and Practice of Chanting. Henry Frowde. 20c.
Ricketts, Prof. P. de P., and Miller, E. H. Notes on Assaying. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: John Wiley & Sons.
Sands, Manie. The Opposites of the Universe. New York: Peter Eckler.
Sawtelle, Alice E. The Sources of Spenser's Classical Mythology. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Scribner's Magazine. 1896. 2 vols. Scribners.
Shipman, L. E. Urban Dialogues. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Smith, Goldwin. Guesses at the Riddle of Existence. Macmillan. $1.25.
Taylor, M. L. On the Red Staircase. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
The Early Correspondence of Hans von Bülow. Appletons. $4.50.
Verne, Jules. Facing the Flag. F. T. Neely. 50c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 11, 1897.

The Week.

It appears that silver has something to do with the "hold-up" of the arbitration treaty in the Senate—how much, cannot be known at present. Why it should have any it is difficult to see, but the process seems to be something like this: Great Britain has the gold standard. It is a theory of the silverites that Great Britain is trying to force the gold standard upon us, using tremendous secret pressure through the Rothschilds and the Morgans. The arbitration treaty is popular among the gold-bugs in England and this country. Therefore it is an object of suspicion. Don't be in haste to ratify it. That some such feeling as this exists among the supporters of Bryan there is little doubt, yet it is not universal, as is shown by the action of the South Carolina and Alabama Legislatures, which voted unanimously in favor of the treaty. To all such persons we make the suggestion once more that the arbitration treaty had its beginning on this side of the water, and not on the other side. It took its first impulse in our own Congress. It is our doing. It was not enthusiastically welcomed by Lord Salisbury or by the party which he leads. There is no more connection between the treaty and the silver question than there is between it and the immigration question, probably less.

The Venezuelan boundary treaty, the text of which is now published, is in substantial accord with the reports previously published. The arbitrators are to be Lord Herschell and Sir Richard Collins on the part of Great Britain, and Chief-Justice Fuller and Justice Brewer of the United States Supreme Court on the part of Venezuela, with a fifth to be chosen by them, or, if they fail to choose one, then by the King of Sweden and Norway. They are to meet in Paris, or at such other place as they may choose, hear all arguments advanced on either side, and make a decision in writing within three months thereafter if practicable. Occupation for fifty years, either by settlement or by the exercise of political control, makes good title. All else is left to the judgment of the arbitrators. The Venezuelan Congress has still to pass upon the treaty, but there can be no doubt that it will be ratified at the coming session of that body. If they should reject it, they would never get any more Monroe Doctrine from us.

Senator Teller offered last week an amendment to the Nicaragua Canal bill providing that a new and complete survey be made under the direction of the President, and that no work be done or bonds issued until the survey is approved by him; and that if the survey shows that the cost of the work will exceed $150,000,000, nothing further shall be done without the authority of Congress. This amendment was accepted by Senator Morgan, evidently at the point of the bayonet, for the advocates of the bill a few days before declared that all such delays meant the death of the measure. Senator Aldrich in particular scouted the suggestion of Senator Sherman that the canal project be laid over temporarily, in order to find out exactly where we stand with respect to the Nicaraguan Government and to remove any obstacles found to exist there. The Teller amendment is a tardy and forced acknowledgment that the supporters of this bill were hopelessly in the wrong when they ignored the survey of the board of Government engineers, and insisted on going ahead in the face of that report, and without any survey from anybody else. The fact, alluded to in debate, that no complete survey had ever been made by anybody except that board, was as coolly ignored by the supporters of the bill as the letter of Minister Rodriguez informing them that the canal company had ceased to exist, and that it had no rights under the old contract, and that the United States Government could not acquire any rights under it even if the contract were still alive.

In his speech on the previous Monday Senator Vilas pointed out the fact that the first thing to be done under the bill is to pay the holders of the dead franchise the amount of money they have already spent in one way and another on the canal, not to exceed $4,500,000, "and the interest thereon." This payment is to be made in bonds of the company guaranteed by the Government of the United States. This sum of $4,500,000 is to be paid even if the franchise proves worthless. As Senator Vilas said:

> "Whatever becomes of all the rest of it, that section takes effect by the passage of the bill. We may never, if we should have a good board of directors, engage even in the construction of this already discredited route; we may never be able to realize the least particle of right under the concession of Nicaragua; but whatever we get or do not get, the stockholders of the Maritime Canal Company obtain $4,500,000 of bonds, and so much more as the interest on their expenditures amounts to up to the time."

They are to have also $7,000,000 of non-assessable capital stock by way of profit, but, of course, that will be worth nothing unless the canal is built, and may not be worth anything even then. The only reason, in Senator Vilas's judgment, why the United States should try to crawl into the skin of the corporation, whose concession will expire on April 27, instead of going to work in the direct way and opening negotiations with Nicaragua for a concession which shall not be liable to doubt and contention, is to have an excuse for paying this money to men who have been engaged in a bad speculation.

Senator Frye wants an item of $100,000 put in the sundry civil bill for the improvement of Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. It is not so much that he desires to have the harbor improved as to have the American Government perform "an act of sovereignty" in the islands. Under the treaty it is doubtful if we have any supreme rights in Pearl Harbor, but Mr. Frye would have the matter put beyond all question by our just going ahead and acting as if we were sovereign there. He thinks the present Hawaiian Government would not object to our appearing in Pearl Harbor in the rôle of a sovereign; but anyhow that wouldn't matter. The important thing is to "show clearly how far our jurisdiction extends." This is an elegant way of putting it, and it is a great pity that Walker, Capt. Kidd, the Dey of Algiers, and other filibusters and pirates had not learned, with the wise, to call their stealing conveying. All they ever intended was to perform with dignity like Senator Frye's "an act of sovereignty" in territory not their own, and to scuttle ships and hang men just to show clearly how far their jurisdiction extended. We have not much improved on their barbarous and lawless methods, but we infinitely surpass them in manners and in the art of using fine language to conceal or even adorn national crimes.

The controversy between the two branches of Congress over the immigration bill has ended in a victory for the House. The Senate made two radical changes in the original measure. One required that the applicant for admission must be able, not simply to read the English or some other language, but either English or the language of the country in which he has resided—a requirement which would shut out intelligent natives of one European country who had removed to another and had not acquired its language. The other change was a provision that a man able to pass the educational test might bring in a grandparent, but might not be accompanied by his wife if she were unable to read. Neither of these requirements could be defended, and there were suggestions that the President would veto the bill if they should remain features of it. The Senate has finally backed down, and an agreement has at length been reached. The original action of the Senate has provoked a very severe criticism

from Congressman Clark of Iowa, who used to be editor of the Keokuk *Gate City* and now writes occasional letters to it from Washington. He characterized the bill as it was remade by the upper branch "a fantastic measure that ought not to become law; that shuts out a man's wife and children, and brings in his grandfather; that shuts out a German Mennonite, who stands at the head of industrious genuine Christian Protestant piety and civilization, and brings in a Cuban revolutionist half-breed, who worships a crucifix and chops off the head of a woman with a blade like a corn-cutter."

Civil-service reformers will read with great satisfaction the exposition in the *Sun's* Washington correspondence of the extent to which the spoils system has been abolished. While the pressure for office under the next Administration is greater than was ever before known, the number of places available is far smaller. Excepting the small post-offices, the *Sun's* correspondent reports that "there are not now 10,000 offices of all kinds in the United States left outside of the operation of the civil-service law." Moreover, the idea of many office-seekers that the law is a joke, and that Senators and Representatives can get around it, is all wrong. The dispatch says on this point:

> "The office seekers will find it a very serious matter. Almost every Government office in all the departments, below the grade of those the appointees to which must be nominated by the President and confirmed by the Senate, is now under the jurisdiction of the civil-service law, and can be filled only by those who are certified by the Civil-Service Commission as having made the highest record in competitive examinations open to all."

The only "ray of hope" visible is the chance that the new Administration will remove a lot of the Democrats in the higher places, promote Republican subordinates, and then fill the very lowest grades from the Republican applicants. "Under this method the new-comers must take all the menial places; but under the circumstances it looks as if they must be satisfied with these or nothing." To appreciate what all this means, one must remember that it is only fourteen years this winter since the civil-service act was passed as a harmless concession to the reformers.

All the news that we get as to the attitude of the McKinley Administration towards civil-service reform continues to be most encouraging. Republican spoilsmen have been hoping that the next President would "let down the bars," and render it easy to make vacancies which could be filled by the "right men." Probably the easiest way of doing this would be by making the examinations now required of applicants for desirable consular positions so easy that the places might be disposed of in the old way of favoritism. But a long statement from Canton as to Mr. McKinley's intentions in this matter represents that President Cleveland's order requiring examinations is considered "an excellent provision"; that Mr. McKinley "doubtless thinks that a man who cannot pass a reasonable examination upon subjects with which he will have to deal in his official capacity, is not fit to be appointed"; and—best or worst of all, according to the point of view—that "there is every reason to believe these examinations will be made pretty rigorous."

The President's order consolidating pension agencies will result in a saving of $161,000 a year. This will pain Chairman Dingley, who is certain that economy in governmental expenditure is impossible. Of course a large mind like his has nothing but scorn for a petty saving of $161,000 annually. It is millions or nothing with him, and as he sees no chance for cutting off millions at a stroke, he concludes that nothing can be cut off at all. But economies on a large scale are not the salvation of either individual or Government when embarrassed. They are, in fact, seldom possible, but small savings here and there are not only possible but highly desirable. The pension service will be not merely not crippled, but actually improved by cutting off $161,000 a year in unnecessary salaries. Two hundred thousand dollars a year saving in salaries was made in a single department of the Treasury as a result of the inquiries made by the Dockery committee. There is no doubt that similar retrenchments could be made in almost every branch of the Government service, were Congress resolutely bent on economy and ready to approach the question in a business-like spirit. A few more such economies would soon foot up a million or two a year, and so make a sum large enough for lavish Mr. Dingley to think it worth while to look at.

The problem of breaking down the civil-service law is causing the Platt statesmen at Albany a great deal of anxious thought, but a promising start toward a satisfactory solution was made last week when the Senate judiciary committee appointed as a sub-committee to draw up a bill Messrs. Lexow, Krum, and Cantor. Mr. Cantor, the third member of the sub-committee, is Croker's old agent at Albany, and has all the usual Tammany contempt for "civil service." The sub-committee is in fact a perfect illustration of the natural way in which the Platt and Tammany machines come together whenever an assault is to be made upon good government. What is delaying the plans of the anti-civil-service reformers at present is the pending decision of the courts upon the interpretation of the law given recently by Judge Keogh, which, if sustained by the Court of Appeals, will make all efforts to break down the law unavailing. He held that the constitutional amendment was self-executing, and that nothing that the Legislature might do, or fail to do, could have any effect. If the Court of Appeals shall sustain that view, which its previous decisions give the strongest reasons for believing that it will, even the great minds of Lexow, Krum, and Cantor will find the problem of upsetting the law too difficult for them. The word "competitive" is the chief foe they have to encounter, for no examination except by a board of commissioners outside the departments will meet this demand. Col. Waring gave the enemies of the law a severe blow on the very day of the sub-committee's appointment, when he asked to be relieved of the conduct of examinations for his department. They have been in the habit of pointing to his control of the examinations as proof of the superior merit of the department method. He says it is an annoyance, that it interferes with the work of the department, and that complete outside control of the examinations would be more desirable in every way. Mr. Roosevelt has made similar statements about the Police Board, so that the "Progressives" have really nothing in support of their plans save their desire to get possession of the offices for the "men they want." Gov. Black is with them, of course. A Governor who is capable of appointing Payn has put himself outside the pale of speculation as to his course in any attack upon good government. Only the Constitution and the courts stand in the way of the hungry Boys of both parties; but these form a barrier which even Lexow must respect.

Payn's nomination was "jammed through" the New York Senate in the best Platt style, but there was an unusual amount of friction developed in the process. It was an unprecedented thing to have nine Republican Senators, one-fourth of the entire number, refuse to obey orders, and, what was even more surprising, to have many of them accompany their refusal with reasons for it which confirmed all that the opponents of the boss had said about the transaction. If there had been any doubt about Payn as "a stench in the nostrils of all good and honest men" before the debate on his confirmation, there was none after it had ended. The charge had been confirmed by the adverse votes of nine Republican Senators and by the plain and courageous speeches of most of them. As for the speeches in his defence, these should be interpreted as also confirming the charge. Gov. Black's personal share in the business was revealed by several of the speakers. "I told the Governor," said Mr. Brush, "that I could not respect myself and could not face my own conscience and vote yes on this question." "I went to the Governor," said Mr. Tib-

bits, "and told him it was impossible for me to stand by him." What must be the character of a Governor who compels members of his own party to say such things as these to him? Can there be a political future in this State for a Chief Executive who begs Senators to do him the personal favor of helping to put a notorious scoundrel in office, and who is subjected to the humiliation of having them refuse because their consciences and self-respect will not permit them to grant this request?

The meeting held last week in this city to procure the release of the Irish dynamite prisoners in England was addressed by Mr. John E. Redmond, the Irish member of Parliament, and Mr. Bourke Cockran, and doubtless its object was a good one. Mr. Redmond's speech was temperate and persuasive. He admitted he "was not there to make charges against English judges." He dwelt on the public excitement at the time of the trials, and on the fact that the men were tried under the "treason felony act," which was passed to catch John Mitchell in 1848. But as long as the Irish resort to physical force, we must expect the English to defend themselves by ferocious legislation. When we threaten people's lives, we must expect them to shoot us. There is something unmanly in the Irish complaints of the way Englishmen meet attempts to kill them or blow them up. It is undoubtedly bad policy to keep the Irish dynamiters in jail after the establishment of the new régime and the virtual abandonment of coercion; but how on earth does Mr. Bourke Cockran expect to help their deliverance by ascribing their condemnation to "British malignity," and calling the courts which condemn them, "not asylums of law, but engines of lawlessness," and by justifying the hesitation of the Senate to ratify the arbitration treaty on the ground that Great Britain is properly an object of suspicion and distrust? Englishmen are human, and bad people to threaten or bully. It is poor rhetoric to ask them to do justice because they are notorious scoundrels. We would suggest to all holders of meetings in America for the redress of Irish wrongs, to try moderation, suavity, reasonableness, and appeals to peace, good will, and civilization. The days for the more furious Irish ranting have gone by. The Irish are now strong enough for sober speech.

The Cuban reforms authorized on Thursday by royal decree appear to be somewhat more liberal than those voted by the Cortes in 1895 on the eve of the present rebellion. Ten years ago they would have been received with enthusiasm in Cuba and regarded as a complete fulfilment of the wishes of the autonomist party. Even the smaller measure of home rule offered in 1895 was accepted by all but two of the Cuban Deputies as satisfactory. But we regret to say that there is no likelihood of the present offer bringing peace to distracted Cuba. The matter has passed beyond the sphere of political agitation, and become a question of desperate and implacable war. In Spain itself the Government's offers seem to be taken as a sign of weakness, and it will be strange if the rebels do not take the same view and feel themselves correspondingly encouraged. Not long ago Cánovas was stoutly maintaining that no reforms would be granted until the rebellion was utterly stamped out. There is no pretence that the island is pacified, nor even that it can be before the rainy season sets in in June. Thus the offer of a limited autonomy necessarily has the air of something conceded in alarm or as a result of diplomatic pressure. Where the real pacification has taken place is at Washington. The bellicose Lodge, the for-one-day furious Cameron, the enraged Sherman, all are silent. We understand that a hint from McKinley has brought about this refreshing change. Pot-valiant Republicans, the President-elect has intimated, are to him just now *personæ non gratæ*. Hence the late limitation of Cuban patriotism in the Senate to Democrats like Hill and Turpie, at the end of their terms and with nothing to expect from the incoming President.

That the French press should have burst into flame at Sir Michael Hicks-Beach's speech on Egypt is only the natural result of putting a spark to tinder. It was not so much the substance as the manner of the Chancellor's remarks that played the mischief. It was well understood that England proposes now to stay in Egypt and to push on to Khartum when she gets ready; also, that she will pay the bills out of her own treasury. These facts could have been calmly stated so as to offend nobody, but Sir Michael seems to have gone out of his way to rasp French sensibilities and to give a serious shock, as John Morley instantly pointed out, to the delicate negotiations about the Turkish situation. The coöperation and good will of France and Russia in that matter are indispensable; and just after Lord Salisbury had apparently secured them, along comes his Chancellor to imperil the European concert, and to do it in an entirely unnecessary way. The performance is a curious commentary on Salisbury's own sarcastic remarks made no longer ago than the debate on the Address, about the Jingo statesmen whose patriotism gets the better of their judgment. No wonder that everybody is guessing at the possible motives of Sir Michael's outbreak. If it were only a personal question, the solution might be found in the Chancellor's having to eat his own words of last year. Then he assured the British taxpayer that the Egyptian expedition would not cost him one penny; now he has to ask for about $4,000,000 on that account. A little patriotic big talk might naturally seem a good way to make the dose go down easily. But the Chancellor is a member of the Cabinet, and unless he has been guilty of an extraordinary indiscretion, his words must be supposed to have the approval of the Prime Minister.

The Balfour myth is one of extraordinary sway in all lands but England. In Germany Herr Arendt talks mysteriously of what "my friend Mr. Balfour" is going to do for bimetallism; in France the English First Lord of the Treasury is a mighty power to sustain drooping bimetallic hopes; what awe Mr. Whitney and Senator Hoar entertain for the brainy, the brilliant, the bimetallic Balfour, we all know. In his own country, unfortunately, in the House of Commons itself, which he leads, they laugh at him. Sir William Harcourt, in the debate on the Address, had particularly good sport with Balfour. He was referring to the First Lord's amazing speech on Irish over-taxation. Said Sir William:

> "I think the First Lord of the Treasury might have done well to have imitated the reserve of the Chancellor of the Exchequer the other day; but down in Lancashire the First Lord plunged into the matter with a rashness which alarmed some of his best supporters. As far as I can understand, he thinks that indirect taxation is not of much account, and that it is a quantity that might be neglected. His words were that a man may consume or not consume, as he pleases—in a word, that if he consumes he pays, and if he does not consume he does not pay. That settles the question of indirect taxation. Then the right honorable gentleman says there is that in regard to indirect taxation which there is not in regard to direct taxation, and that there is an element of free will in the matter. Truly, a Pelagian sentiment—meaning, in a word, that direct taxation is of the nature of predestinational doctrine."

As soon as he could for the laughter, Sir William proceeded: "I cannot think that this was one of the most fortunate of the essays of the right honorable gentleman. I have known him to do better even on the subject of bimetallism." This set the House roaring again. The simple truth seems to be that Balfour took up the bimetallist dodge to humor his Manchester constituents whose trade with India was languishing, and who thought the fall in silver was the cause of it. Trade has since picked up, and the Manchester spinners have got over their bimetallic mania, but Mr. Balfour sticks to it out of sheer Scotch obstinacy. Held purely as an academic thesis, his bimetallism (he has had to confess) will never influence his official action in the slightest degree, and so it is no wonder that it has become an object of general ridicule in England. To render it completely ludicrous, it was only necessary that the senior Senator from Massachusetts should publicly make a fetish of it.

REPORT ON THE INDIANAPOLIS CONFERENCE.

THE meeting of the Chamber of Commerce on Thursday was one of unusual importance. Mr. J. Harsen Rhoades made his report as chairman of the delegation to the Indianapolis conference, and accompanied it with a brief speech which was warmly applauded. Then Mr. William E. Dodge gave a highly interesting account of what he had learned as a member of the committee at Indianapolis which reported the platform and plan of procedure adopted there. The platform, as is well known, embraced three leading ideas—(1) the maintenance of the gold standard; (2) retirement of the Government's legal-tender notes; (3) banking reform. Upon the last-mentioned subject, which is perhaps the most difficult one to deal with, Mr. Dodge gave a sympathetic review of the facts and ideas brought to his notice by gentlemen on the committee representing Southern States that cast their votes for Bryan in the recent election. He was surprised to learn from these men that it was not Bryan or silver that they wanted or voted for, but "some change to bring relief from the terrible condition of poverty and scarcity of money under which they labored." Then he continued:

"I found that there were great sections of the Southern and Western country where there was absolutely no money at all; where the most primitive forms of barter obtained; where everything was most disorganized. One gentleman told me that in his county, which was quite a rich agricultural county, by some happy accident a fifty dollar bank bill had come down into the county, and that he had taken a horse and buggy and spent four days in visiting all the towns in the county striving to get it changed into smaller bills, but had been unable to do so, and finally was obliged to send it to Richmond. There were Senators who told me that their constituents never saw a dollar of money from the beginning of the year to the end, with the result that they had constantly to go into debt to the local storekeepers. The local storekeepers received their pay in kind. In fact, everything was drifting back to the old times before money was invented. And this was not in one section of the country only, but in large sections."

That the condition described by Mr. Dodge exists in large districts of the South is undoubtedly true. That it is the cause of the discontent which led those States to vote for Bryan and free silver is also true. That anything which cures this evil will cure those States of Bryanism and free-silverism is the belief of the very able and earnest opponents of free silver there resident. The question, therefore, of immediate concern is, how far the condition described is due to the want of banking facilities, how far this want is due to the national banking act and to the national Government in general, and how far to other causes. However much we may desire to eradicate these evils, we must first be satisfied of their origin, since otherwise any remedy that may be devised will fail to reach the disease.

Let us first dispel an illusion that we meet with in the recent testimony of Mr. Royall of Virginia before the House committee on banking and currency. Mr. Royall is a believer in the old ante-bellum system of State banks. Why does he believe in it? Because it furnished a cheap and elastic local currency. What is meant by a local currency? One which will circulate at home and nowhere else. The word home is itself rather elastic. Mr. Johnson, a member of the committee, who is under no prejudice in favor of the present bank-note system, but rather opposed to it, remarked to Mr. Royall that he could hardly reconcile himself to the idea that in order to have a reasonable amount of money in any locality it must of necessity be money which is not of uniform value throughout the country. To this Mr. Royall replied:

"We have found by bitter experience that if you put the Government's endorsement on it, we cannot retain it a moment. It is good then all over the country and everybody wants it. As long as it is backed by our credit only, it is good enough for us, but not good enough for you."

This is like saying that the kind of money wanted is a kind that will stay in a man's pocket—a kind that he cannot spend because nobody else will take it. This is a complete reversal of the ideas usually attached to money, the first requisite of which is that the next man shall be willing to take it at par for anything he has to sell. Suppose that a planter has a pocket full of the local money pictured to us by Mr. Royall. He does not want to keep it for ever. Money is only good to buy things with. He offers it to the country storekeeper for supplies. As the latter does not want to keep it for ever, he looks at it rather sharply and asks what he can do with it by way of replenishing his stock. Will the New Orleans merchant take it at par? That depends upon what the New Orleans merchant can do with it. Can he replenish his stock with it? If not, he will have none of it. Therefore it will be a local currency because nobody can get rid of it. Mr. Royall's idea is that there can be a kind of money that will circulate—that is, buy goods—at home, but will not go away from home because the issuing banks will furnish drafts on other towns and cities in exchange for it. If they will do that, and if the other towns and cities believe that they will, the money ceases to fulfil the conception of a local currency. It becomes national, or at all events excursive, by the very fact of being good.

It cannot reasonably be asked that the people of the North shall consent to a kind of money (which must necessarily be permissible in all the States) which shall be restricted to local use by reason of being more or less bad, so that other people will not take it except after a dispute or at a discount. A very little reflection must teach the Southern people that this kind of money would defeat the very object for which money exists. Money is an instrument of exchange. A very slight experience with a kind of money that "would not pass" would serve to dispel all the illusions of its devotees. There would be no objections, however, to a trial of it in any locality if it could be restricted to that locality; but under our system of government no such thing is possible.

None the less do we consider Mr. Dodge's remarks at the Chamber of Commerce meeting important and timely and stimulating. They provoke thought and discussion on the most serious problem of the hour. There is nothing more needed than an inquiry into the causes of the dearth of money and credit in the localities of which he speaks. How far is this dearth due to a lack of banking facilities? How far is this lack due to legislation, and how far to the state of society, the non-enforcement of law, lack of security, or other causes? That the national banking law, on its note-issuing side, is open to useful amendment, consistent with entire safety, is an opinion we have often expressed and which we still entertain, but we hold that safety cannot be dispensed with, and that a bank circulation which will not circulate is a phantasm even more illusory than free silver.

OFFICES AND POSITIONS.

THE question of municipal ownership of street railways, and of municipal conduct of business generally, has come up again of late in various ways and places. Boston has determined to set up a city printing-office, and "organized labor" heartily endorses the project, on the ground that it promises the printers employed "better wages for less work." Boston organized labor also pronounced, at the time of the great strike in December, in favor of the city's taking over the street railways. Similar proposals have been made in Cleveland. As for New York, the number of things our big-hearted social reformers would have the city undertake for the benefit of the employed is practically unlimited.

All these signs of the times cause great elation in a certain sect of social philosophers. According to them, municipal ownership, and the state ownership that goes with it, are coming on apace and with certainty, and they see a vast transcendental significance in the whole movement. It is the State "coming to self-consciousness." It is society knowing itself to be "organic." It is "social solidarity," "the whole existing for the individual and the individual for the whole," with many other oracular deliverances of the sort. Anyhow, the régime of individual free contract has broken down, except in the mind of a few benighted old fogies, and the beautiful and beneficent reign of a self-conscious and organic state is about to be established.

For our part, we seem to see a simpler explanation of the phenomenon. We do not know much about the State becoming self-conscious; if it ever did such a thing in these days, we should think it would feel like going off quietly into a corner to blush over the self it had for the first time discovered. But we have no head for these deep things. We can see, however, certain very old and very human elements of greed, of laziness and selfishness, of pushing for personal advantage, which have been operative in all history, and which are quite sufficient to account for the movement to convert city and State into a bountiful employer of labor. It is a fact, proved over and over again, that the public, when employing labor, pays "the highest prevailing rate of wages for the shortest prevailing day's labor." Mr. Ethelbert Stewart has lately made public some investigations of his in Philadelphia, New York, Baltimore, and Boston, which again show the truth of this. In Baltimore, for example:

"The blacksmiths employed on public work directed by the city or State, working nine hours a day, were paid from $12 to $17 a week, while those hired by contractors or firms worked ten hours a day, and received from $9.50 to $14 a week. A similar state of things was found to obtain substantially in all other employments, while the few exceptions that appeared at first sight turned out, on a closer investigation, to be more apparent than real."

Is there not here motive enough for organized labor to favor municipal ownership? We surely do not need to call in a mystic State becoming conscious of itself; consciousness of high wages and a "soft snap" is cause sufficient. We do not in the least blame organized labor for desiring an extension to itself of these blessings of municipal and State employment. We would do the same thing were we organized labor. Such action has been directly invited by public extravagance in salaries and wages. Look at the matter in another way. Workingmen have seen the police, the firemen, the letter-carriers, organized as a compact body, given pay above the market rates, able to combine and terrify legislators into increasing their salaries and their privileges from time to time. Why should they not covet similar favors for themselves? Why should they not desire to see street-car conductors and drivers and gas-meter men and pavers and rammers and scavengers in like manner given special pay and special privileges by the city? The thing is perfectly natural. It takes no profound conception of the State, expressed in big German words, to make us understand why these things should be. The good old democratic principle of "I'm as good as you be" goes far towards explaining the mystery.

Nor is it all a question of higher wages for less work. The great distinction between an office and a position comes in here. A position is an opportunity to work, to do something; an office is an opportunity to get something. To hold a position, you have to know your business. You have to be faithful, industrious, efficient. To hold an office, you have only to "get there," and then you may be as indolent and inefficient as you please. Out of a position you may be turned instanter for negligence or ill conduct. From the typical office you can be removed only on formal charges, after a long trial, with ample opportunity for appeal, for mandamuses and writs of certiorari, for veteran-preference and triumphant reinstatement. A corporation has an unpleasant way of watching your work and testing your efficiency; a city pays you more than you are worth, and asks no questions. Therefore away with oppressive private ownership, and hurrah for municipal ownership! Let printing, and blacksmithing, and street-car driving, and all the rest be made offices instead of positions, and the millennium will be upon us.

This, we admit, is a very unheroic explanation of the movement for municipal ownership. It is much grander to talk social metaphysics on the subject, but the facts are as we say. It is no theory of the State that chokes our cities with needy people from the country, or that sets organized labor clamoring for city employment; it is just a plain American eye for the main chance. The idea has got abroad that the city is a generous old grandmother with lots of money to squander. The thriftless ne'er-do-weels simply want to be on hand for their share. It is preposterous, people say, to suppose that the city and State can employ everybody at high wages; who will foot the bills? But it is no more preposterous than that city and State should employ anybody to do work for which he is not fitted, and pay inefficiency more than the market rate for efficiency. Public extravagance and favoritism, increasing lavish expenditures, and multiplication of offices in city, State, and nation—these are the great provokers of Socialism. Anybody who wants to fight Socialism effectively had better begin by fighting them.

THE CHARTER EXPLANATION.

The Charter Commissioners have been induced, after many weeks of urging, to say something in reply to the shower of objections to their work which has been pouring in on them ever since the publication of their report. Gen. Tracy gave to a reporter for the *Evening Post* on Wednesday week something in the nature of a defence of the scheme. It seems that he is the member who is "irrevocably wedded" to the "new assembly" feature of the charter, on the ground that the "present municipal legislature is absolutely powerless"; that the people who live under it are also "powerless"; that the people have no control of their affairs between elections, and are "voiceless" and mere spectators, while their money is being voted, and that the Government is, therefore, an "autocratic, bureaucratic Government." What strikes one as extraordinary about this is, that not a single reason is presented in favor of the "new assembly," except that Gen. Tracy wishes it, and thinks it would be a good thing. He ignores the fact that the city tried such a legislature as he proposes, for over half a century, and that as the city grew in wealth and its population became more heterogeneous, the legislature became a nuisance; its powers were gradually restricted, and it was finally abolished. It was abolished, that is, as the result of experience of its working, because it was corrupt and incompetent, and because the people were voiceless while it was voting away their money. And here we must quote an astonishing passage in Gen. Tracy's statement:

"If, after experiment, it should be found that those who think with me are mistaken, and that the people are not yet sufficiently educated to be trusted in any measure with the conduct of their municipal business, the powers bestowed by the new charter can be withdrawn by the State Legislature, as when ten years ago the Common Council was reduced to its present impotency."

So that the promised "home rule" consists simply in permission to run a career of folly and extravagance until the Legislature once more thinks it advisable to withdraw the charter or alter it. It is probably too favorable a supposition to say the Legislature would withdraw it only after some years of folly. As a matter of fact, it would probably withdraw it when directed to do so by the boss for the time being, without any open reason at all. The measure would be "jammed through," and the malcontents be invited to "shut up."

President Low followed Gen. Tracy's example and explained his action about the Greater New York charter the next day, and Mr. Dillon submitted another explanation on Friday afternoon. Mr. Dillon's statement does not call for much comment. He says that "European experience" justifies the size of the Assembly; that in the "little town of Carlsbad," for instance, they have thirty-six municipal councillors; that as the States have two legislative bodies, New York ought to have two; that two houses will prevent precipitate action; that "a higher grade of men in point of intelligence and character" will find their way into the upper house than into the lower; that the Commission "carefully considered" the size of the districts; that the municipal Assembly will have limited and guarded powers; that it has neither too much power nor too little, but just enough; that the bi-partisan Police Board is a good thing; that to provide for separating the Election from the Police Department is "a theoretic and doctrinaire suggestion." It will be seen that all this is simply Mr. Dillon's assertions and prophecies. There is not the smallest reference to American experience or to the experience of New York. It surprises one in reading it that Mr. Dillon should have

attempted drafting a charter with so little apparent preparation for the work in the shape of reading, or acquaintance with our peculiar conditions. A complete refutation of all this, except the prophecies, may be found in President Low's chapter on municipal government in Bryce's 'American Commonwealth.' The prophecies of these gentlemen we can treat only with respectful silence. There is no way, that we know, of getting the better of a prophet except one, and that is to disbelieve him.

In Mr. Low's statement we find that, in the Commission, he advocated a single legislative chamber, a one-headed Police Department, and a separate Board of Elections. He says:

"It is well known that I favor these things, and it ought to have been taken for granted that I have urged them upon the Commission. Except for Gen. Tracy's interview, I should have remained silent until the Commission had reported to the Legislature. I have urged the single chamber, among other reasons, because I think it lends itself to efficiency, and, in the work of a city, efficiency is a very important factor."

But his action could not have been known, seeing that he signed the report recommending these very things of which he disapproved. His proper course was either to enter his protest against them in the report, or else to make a minority report, setting forth his objections and using the arguments against them he has used already in Bryce's book and in the *Century Magazine*. His failure to do so was very unusual, and excited the surprise of the public. It was the more unfortunate because we believe the instruction of the public to be the very highest duty of men in Mr. Low's position, particularly in our present condition. He owed it to the people of this city to discuss publicly and freely the proposed charter, in anything he printed on the subject, and especially in the report. It was due to them to reiterate there his objections to the proposed scheme; and the more unwilling its promoters were to talk about it, the more private the meetings of the Commission, the greater the haste in getting it before the Legislature, the greater the reluctance to submit it to the popular vote, the more outspoken should he have been. Nothing is more lamentable at this crisis than the silence imposed on our public men by the bosses. Not only has Mr. Low failed to promulgate his own views, but he has left the public to suppose he no longer held them.

He now proposes to support the charter because "it is not settled for all time if it works badly." This disposes of the "home-rule" pretension. If, we repeat, the charter can be supervised, altered, or abolished by the Legislature for working badly, the Assembly will not exercise "home rule"; it will simply enjoy delegated rule. What the authors of this charter mean by "home rule" is simply large powers which need not last one minute longer than the majority in the Legislature, or Mr. Platt, pleases. President Low now says that it makes no difference whether a city has one or two branches in its legislature; that "the form of a city legislature is a matter of comparative unimportance as long as its membership shall be nominated by party machinery as at present." But he showed clearly in Bryce's book that "American experience" proved that all city legislatures were bad, in that they were founded on a radical mistake as to the nature of the city. What he now says of the comparative unimportance of their form as long as the nominating machinery is what it is, is an admission that the party machinery is the cause of their badness. Is it not, therefore, extraordinary that by way of cure he should join in creating a city legislature of his own worst variety, knowing it would be filled by this same party machinery?

He says, secondly, that the defects, which he acknowledges in the charter, "are trifling compared with the fundamental advantages of consolidation." But to give this remark any force he should show that the charter with a municipal assembly is necessary to consolidation, which nobody pretends. Consolidation could take place without this charter and without an assembly. The new city could be governed in the same way as the old one, in the opinion of thousands of prophets. Besides, the defects in the charter are fundamental as well as the advantages. If they strengthen the machine by the creation of a swarm of new salaried, elective offices, they are fatal, according to Mr. Low himself. This type, he says, has been largely abandoned in the United States, "because city government has not shown itself worthy to be trusted with powers so extensive."

His last argument is simple prophecy—that he "believes" this will be a better charter than any now existing; but why it should be better he does not state. If he could show that in some American city the government had been improved by the creation, under boss nominations, of a large municipal legislature, it would go far to prove his case. But he cannot cite anything of the sort. Everything we know of American municipal history in this country goes to show that the more salaried elective officers there are, and the more responsibility is divided, the worse the cities are off. We could cite from experience a hundred reasons for thinking he is wrong; for thinking he is right there is no reason except his own hopeful anticipations and those of Messrs. Tracy and Dillon. There is no example in American history of an enlargement of powers having improved a legislative body. The whole trend of American politics for fifty years is towards a restriction of legislative powers. If the notion were true that giving this municipal Assembly rule over a larger area was sure to improve its quality, the Legislature at Albany would be a model body, for it rules both the city and State. But is it?

COÖPERATIVE HISTORY.

Of making histories on the coöperative plan, there is, apparently, no end. The latest project is the "Cambridge Modern History," which Lord Acton is to edit, and to which nearly every prominent historical scholar in England is to contribute. The period to be covered extends from the close of the Middle Ages to the present time. To "expose the annals of nations" "at their point of junction with the central stream, when they cease to be inert, and carry tribute to the common fortune of mankind"; to treat events "in the natural order of cause and effect, not in the merely outward order of place and time"; to show the achievements of the nineteenth century "since the opening of archives has quickened the pace, and history has risen to be a sovereign and progressive science, serving no cause but its own"; to exhibit, "in their origin and progress and substance," the dominant forces of the present day, and illustrate them by illumination of the past—such are the ambitious aims of this new venture. The fact that the editor is a scholar of great attainments and catholic temper, and his collaborators the most distinguished body of men ever enlisted for such a service, is enough to secure for the undertaking more than ordinary consideration.

It must be admitted, however, that the inherent difficulties of such a task, in the present condition of historical study, are very considerable. If we read the somewhat turgid prospectus aright, Lord Acton and his associates are not without hope of doing for the history of the past four or five hundred years a work similar in kind, only far more perfect in detail, to that associated with the names of a long line of writers, from Herodotus onward, who have "taken the history of civilization for their topic and the known world for their domain." "Historic thought," we are told, "will have a place proportioned to historic action, and the march of European intellect will be traced as it came successively under the dominant influence of religious, philosophical, political, and scientific ideas." The later volumes "will endeavor . . . to exhibit the cause, and the growth, and the power of the ruling currents that still govern and divide the world, and to provide chart and compass for the age to come." The idea is fascinating, but it would be easier of realization if our knowledge of history were wider and more exact, and human judgments less diversified. To begin with, it is easy to overestimate very seriously the amount of assured historical knowledge which the industry of scholars during the present century has made available. We have had, it is true, edited documents by the thousand, monographs by the hundred, and memoirs, diaries, and letters to repletion. The publications of historical societies and the files of historical journals would, of themselves, make a large library. Yet no historical student works long in this mass of material without finding how many and important are the subjects yet unexplored. This is conspicuously true in the period which Lord Acton's history proposes to cover. We have had as yet, for example, no exhaustive critical examination of the century preceding the outbreak of the Lutheran Reformation, or of the seventy years prior to the French Revolution. Of many aspects of the

present century we know less, proportionately, than we do of several centuries before the year 1000. In economic history we have made little more than a beginning; and the same is true of the history of government and law. Until these gaps are filled, it may be doubted whether we are in position to form comprehensive judgments, or to treat of the history of modern civilization with greater success than did those earlier writers who, with less available material, came near to knowing it all. It is with historical as with physical science: the activity of research has raised nearly as many questions as it has answered.

Then there is the question of the point of view. Lord Acton evidently regards history as something more than annals or chronicle, and the interpretation of events as of at least equal importance with their correct narration. Interpretation, however, means, of course, a personal judgment, a rational and consistent theory of things; and even were facts far more numerous than they are, it is clear that the work of an editor at this point is bound to be one of difficulty and delicacy, involving nothing less than the success or failure of his entire scheme. The proper standpoint—whether Catholic or Protestant, democratic or monarchical, economic or political, legal or constitutional—from which to judge of five centuries of human progress is a matter on which there is not, as yet, any approach to unanimity among historians themselves; indeed, so diverse are the views, and so great has been the revolt against mischievous theories and assumptions, that there are not wanting at the present day eminent scholars who find their ideal of historical riting in the work of the mediæval chronicler, who set down in order what he heard or saw, and left the rest to God. The "Cambridge Modern History" is to begin with the close of the Middle Ages. Now it is not too much to say that upon the view taken of the Middle Ages, more than of any other period, depends, in considerable measure, the interpretation of the succeeding centuries—whether the attempt shall still be made to mark off sharply "mediæval" from "modern" times, or whether, as scholars are more and more coming to think, the theory of the "continuity" of history finds in this particular period especial illustration. Lord Acton's prospectus seems to imply the acceptance of this latter view, and the weight of his authority will be very great; but the question, after all, is one of interpretation as well as of fact. Clearly we have to reckon here with one of the secrets of great historical writing —the sane and convincing judgment of the historian himself as to the significance of his facts.

Lastly, there is the requirement of unity in conception and presentation—that one thing needful which no historical work on the co-operative plan has yet attained. To secure the assistance of eminent specialists is always possible, but to mould their work into an organic whole is quite another matter. Winsor's 'Narrative and Critical History of America,' unquestionably the greatest product of American historical scholarship, is not, in any proper sense, a history at all, but a collection of monographs. Traill's 'Social England' is repetitious, contradictory, and marvellously uneven. The 'Histoire Générale' of Lavisse and Rambaud gives disproportionate space to France, and is weak, at least in its earlier volumes, on ecclesiastical topics. A perusal of the long list of scholars whom Lord Acton has called to his aid shows many fundamental divergences of view. Mr. Lecky, for example, can speak with authority regarding Ireland, and Mr. John Morley regarding France, but we fancy that even Lord Acton would find it difficult to reconcile their estimates of democracy, while in religious matters neither of them would be likely to agree with Mr. Frederic Harrison, as the latter would certainly differ from Mr. R. H. Hutton, Principal Fairbairn, or the Bishop of London. Experience has abundantly shown that no historical work, whatever the circumstances of its composition, can win large success unless it is, in reality, the product of a single mind. Some such result as this Lord Acton evidently hopes to attain: if he succeeds, the "Cambridge Modern History" will be, in the fullest sense of the term, an epoch-making work.

THE FRENCH IN NORTH AFRICA.

TUNIS, November, 1896.

IN the first of these letters from North Africa it was remarked that in ancient times the southern shores of the Mediterranean belonged equally with the northern shores to the world of civilization. Their barbarism dates only from the Mohammedan conquests of the seventh and eighth centuries. Before that time there had been a Carthaginian civilization in what is now Tunis and along the coasts of Eastern Algeria, a Greek civilization to the eastward of Tripoli, and ultimately a Roman civilization all the way from the frontiers of Egypt to the Straits of Gibraltar. The Mediterranean was the centre of the ancient world, and all the peoples that lay round it formed for six centuries after Julius Caesar one political and commercial whole, and for two centuries at least one ecclesiastical whole also. In the dissolution of the Roman Empire the African provinces, though not the first group of provinces to be torn away, were the group that was torn away most completely. Efforts were made by Christian Powers long afterwards to recover parts of them. The Norman King of Sicily conquered one part, the Emperor Charles V. conquered another. But these acquisitions were soon lost, and the process of recovering Africa from Mussulman barbarism was not seriously undertaken till our own time, when the European States had made such prodigious advances over the Mussulman states in science and in organization that their victory was prompt and easy.

The process began with the French expedition to Algiers in 1829. The Moorish tribes, and especially the warlike Kabyles, gave the French a good deal of trouble, just as the Kafirs gave the English at the same time a good deal of trouble at the other end of the African Continent. But this was merely because the European troops were few and the country difficult. There never was any more doubt that the French would prevail than there was that the English would reduce the Kafirs. The French are still unpopular with most of the natives of Algeria, and those who know the country declare that if France were again involved in a disaster like that of 1870, she would again, as in 1871, find a revolt break out among the tribes. Though Algeria is now incorporated with France, and returns members to the French Legislature, the number of French colonists established there is relatively small, and the mass of the native population has remained but little affected by French habits and ideas. Still the country is won for civilization, and is in no risk of being lost as it was when the Vandals and the Arabs conquered it.

The second move towards the recovery of Africa was the French occupation of Tunis in 1881. The third was the British occupation of Egypt in 1882. Egypt has always had a history of its own, and need not be discussed here. But the case of Tunis is interesting. The French have not formally annexed it, still less have they incorporated it, like Algeria, with European France. They govern in the name of the Bey, who is still treated as a sovereign, and is even permitted to administer Mussulman justice between Mussulmans. The old treaties between Tunis and several European Powers, therefore, remained in force, and it has been one of the chief aims of the French to replace them by new treaties, more favorable to French commerce, or at least more hostile to the commerce of other countries. This they have lately accomplished as regards Italy. They are now anxious to achieve it as regards England, and are thought likely to succeed. For Lord Salisbury is supposed to be willing to put France in good humor by concessions, even though these concessions should injure the thriving trade which England now drives with the Tunisian ports in cotton goods. The revenues of the Tunisian dominions—the Regency (as it is called) of Tunis — are still nominally the Bey's revenues. They are, therefore, applied locally. Nothing goes to France, and no French money is spent in Tunis; the cost of the French officials and the French army of occupation being defrayed by these local funds. One result of this has been that Tunis has been made to pay for the fortification of the harbor of Bizerta, now one of the strongest places, as well as one of the most spacious land-locked havens, in the whole Mediterranean. The creation of this naval stronghold is, of course, in the interests of France, and of France only, not in any way of the Bey or his subjects. But the revenues of the Regency have paid for the building of the moles and forts which France garrisons and purposes to make a second Toulon.

The fifteen years of French occupation have been years of almost unbroken peace, very unlike the first fifteen years of the conquest of Algeria, for the population of the Regency is easy-going and unwarlike. Even in the sacred city of Kerwan, the supposed hotbed of Mohammedan fanaticism, scarcely any resistance was offered to the invaders in 1881. The country seems now perfectly quiet. One does not hear of brigandage nor of any resistance to French authority. So far, therefore, it may seem that the French have an easy task before them, and that the civilization or Europeanization of the country may proceed rapidly. No careful observer will, however, feel sure that this will be the case, when he reflects both on the character of the population and on the aptitudes, or inaptitudes, of the French for colonization. Though naturally very rich, as their condition under Carthage and Rome proves, the territories of the Regency are very thinly peopled. That the population has increased within the last sixty years is shown by the fact that wild beasts, such as lions and hyenas, formerly not uncommon in the mountains even within forty miles of Tunis, have now become extremely rare. But the people are still few, having regard to the area and its fertility, and in the rural parts they are extremely unprogressive. Large regions of the interior are left to semi-nomad tribes, apparently rather Arab than Berber in their blood, who live in tents or in wretched huts,

and scratch the soil now in one place, now in another. They are very backward, and have so few wants as to have little notion of trying to better their condition. Yet it is on them that any one wishing to develop the agricultural resources of the interior must rely for labor.

The Mohammedans of the maritime towns are more civilized, but slack and listless. Of late years there has been a considerable immigration of Italians, chiefly from Sicily, and also of Maltese. The Sicilians are hard workers, and are employed not only in making roads and railways, but in building and here and there in the more skilled forms of agricultural labor. The Maltese, who are not less industrious and much quieter and more orderly than the Sicilians, conduct a good deal of the minor commerce and of the handicrafts. But neither race colonizes the soil or shows any sign of building up a domesticated peasantry. Still less do the French. France has no superfluous rural population; and though the life of her rural folk is hard and pinched, they are too much wedded to the spot of their birth and the habits of their forefathers to think of migrating to a country where they might easily better their condition. A few Frenchmen have bought and are working farms, but they work them entirely by native labor, with perhaps a Sicilian or two added. When a Frenchman comes, he comes, not to make a home, but to gather a little money and then return to France; he does not think of identifying himself with the country. Thus the native population remains unaffected by Europeans, except in the few towns, and even in the towns the distinction of religion raises an impassable barrier between the European and the Moslem. Not only is there no intermarriage, but there is no approximation in habits and ideas.

What the French have so far done is to make a number of roads (previously the so-called roads were mere tracks across the land), to construct several railways (a very great service to the country), to improve the ports of Tunis, Bizerta, and Susa, and to build at Tunis a new French town outside the ancient Moorish city. A stimulus has thus been given to trade, and the way paved for the development of the country, if either its own sluggish population could be stirred up or a new population induced to enter. That population, if ever it comes, will not come from France, and one is disposed to wish that the aspirations of Italy had been realized, and that Tunis had fallen to her instead of to her more powerful rival. Italy need not have drained her own too scanty resources, as she has done for her miserable colony of "Eritrea" on the Red Sea coast, for Tunis is able to pay its own way. She would have had no such formidable enemies as the Abyssinians have proved, and she might have repeopled the Tunisian territory with the overflow of her own peasantry, instead of seeing them drained off to New York and Buenos Ayres.

Of this there is now no chance. So far from having any idea of resigning Tunis, France regards it as a valuable point of vantage from which to obtain, when the Turkish Empire falls to pieces, the dominion of Tripoli. She is, moreover, anxious to get the trade of the Sahara into her hands. At present this trade, which crosses the Desert in caravans from the negro states north and northeast of Lake Tchad, goes by way of Murzuk or Ghadames to the port of Tripoli. The French desire to bring it to Sfax, or Gabes, or one of the other South Tunisian ports, and have thrown out posts into the Desert in the hope of effecting this. Their ambition is to control the whole of North Central Africa from the upper Nile to the Atlantic, and thereby to control also the negro kingdoms which lie south of the Sahara, between it and the territories under French influence in the northern basin of the Congo. These are far-reaching schemes, and witness to that strange passion for expansion which has laid hold of the European nations, which has induced the Germans to spend large sums on their unhealthy and unprofitable colonies in East Africa and Southwest Africa, and has made the English occupy the almost equally unprofitable regions round the great Nyanza lake—Uganda, Kavirondo, and Unyoro. One African country remains unappropriated, for which there will some day be a great struggle, because it has an almost temperate climate, a rich soil, an admirable situation. This is Morocco. France has long had her eye on it, and would gladly appropriate it, but for the apprehended resistance of Spain and England. It would be a valuable possession to England, but England knows that France and Spain would stand in her way. Thus, while all the rest of Africa, most of it worthless, has been parcelled out among three or four European Powers, the part nearest to Europe and most attractive in itself is reserved for barbarism and misgovernment of the worst kind by the jealousies of three nations.

Sooner or later, however, Morocco, like the rest of North Africa, will be brought within the widening circle of European civilization. The more interesting question which remains doubtful is whether in any of these North African countries civilization and Christianity will lay hold of the mass of the population, either by a social change worked upon the existing inhabitants from above, or as the result of an infiltration of European immigrants. So far as Algeria and Tunis are concerned, this process has not yet begun. French influence has not effected, and shows little sign of effecting, for the people what Punic influence, and afterwards Roman influence, did for the aboriginal Berbers twenty-five centuries ago. The difference between the stages of culture at which the conquerors and the conquered stand is too great, and Mohammedanism resists foreign influences to an extraordinary degree. A Mussulman population sometimes vanishes silently from a country. It has vanished from Rumania and Servia, and is fast vanishing from Bosnia and Bulgaria. But there seems to be no instance in which it has abjured Islam, and thereby opened itself to receive the impress of modern Europe. Be this as it may, the fortunes of Africa are now, for as far as we can see into the future, linked indissolubly with those of the great European states; and the complexity of the ties is shown by such a fact as the influence which a remote Power like Russia has been trying to exert upon the Abyssinian kingdom.

C. E.

Correspondence.

TEN BRINK'S TRANSLATOR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Perhaps we may be excused for imposing upon you and your readers a "plea in extenuation" of our responsibility for the translation of the third volume of Ten Brink's 'English Literature,' criticised in your issue of to-day. We selected the translator for only the first volume. Professor Kennedy's lamented death led to the translation of the others being arranged for in Europe independently of us; only the third, however, was intrusted to the translator whose work you criticise unfavorably. We printed it from the English plates without taking proofs.

The hasty consideration which we have been able to give to your reviewer's criticisms suggests that good judges might differ regarding some of them. We do not wish, however, to take the time to get the translator's defence from England before letting your readers know the limits of our responsibility.

Respectfully yours,

Henry Holt & Co.

29 West Twenty-third Street,
New York, February 4, 1897.

FOR THE NONCE, "*PURPOSELY*" AND THE LIKE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Hardly was it to be expected that, as results from substantiating the definition which heads this letter, the information regarding *for the nonce* supplied by English dictionaries of recent days could be shown to be deficient. Among the several senses of the phrase about to be considered, let that first be taken which is strictly antithetic to *accidentally, casually, fortuitously.*

To determine how early this sense of it appeared demands, no doubt, farther research. At present it is ascertained that, as exemplified below, the phrase, modifying a finite verb, and meaning "purposely," had some vogue just before the accession of Henry the Eighth:

"Some other beggers, falsely, *for the nonys*
Disfygure theyr children, god wot unhappely,
Manglynge theyr facys, and brekynge theyr bonys,
To stere the people to pety that passe by."
—Rev. Alexander Barclay, *Shyp of Folys* (1508), vol. i., p. 304 (ed. 1874).

A little later, in his *Cronycle compyled in Latin*, a translation of Sallust's *Jugurtha*, Barclay twice renders *consulto* by *for the nonest, for the nones*, namely, in fol. 51*v* and 71*v*. The first edition of the *Cronycle*, undated, is here referred to.

The subjoined quotation is likewise in point:

"My reasons and authorities of purpose are commonly taken out of their own doctors and writers, and such books as are not counted protestants, nor made by any of this new learning. *For the nonest* I forbare to allege the learneder sort, lest the unlearned should say they could no skill on such books, nor knew not whether they were truly brought in." Bp. James Pilkington (1563), *Works* (1842), p. 643.

Again, Richard Bernard, translating Terence in 1598, Englishes his *de industriâ* and *deditâ operâ*, in the *Andria* and in the *Eunuchus*, respectively, by *for the nones.*

Illustrations of *for the nonce*, employed, by distinct implication, to the same effect as above, but with specification (in the subsequent context) of what is purposed, are the following:

"A cook thei hadde with hem *for the nones*
To boyle chyknes and the mary bones,
And poudre marchant, tart, and galyngale."
—Chaucer, *Canterbury Tales, Prologue* (about 1390.)

"Thai war assemblit *for the nanis*
The gret gammis Circenses for to se."
—Bp. Gavin Douglas (1513), *Works* (1874), vol. iii., p. 196.

"The bischoppis all, and mony abbot, also,
Into the tyme, with vther lordis mo,
Convenit all togidder *for the nanis*
Of Sanct Margaret for to translait the banis."
—William Stewart. *The Buik of the Croniclis of Scotland* (1535), vol. iii., p. 105, st. 45, 930 (1858).

"Mee thinke, also, I haue read that Iulius Cæsar ware *for the nonce* a garland of Laurell, to hide his baldnesse withall." Sir Thomas Hoby, *The Covrtyer of Covnt Baldessar Castilio* [Baldassare Castiglione] (1556). sig. K ii. *r.* (ed. 1577).

In the first quotation, pointed otherwise, *for the nones* is clearly taken, by Dr. Richardson, in his *Dictionary*, to denote "for that purpose," "for the purpose aforesaid," and not as construable with *To boyle*.

Differently, in an author noticeably more modern than those who have just been cited, the expression is emphasized, with *for* and a substantive annexed:

"Cordial Medicines are made *for the very nonce for the sick* (as the Sacrament, for sinners)." Rev. Edmund Hickeringill (about 1682), *Works* (ed. 1716), vol. ii., p. 122.

Curiously enough, *for the nonce*, to signify "purposely," "intentionally," is still current, but only among illiterate persons of advanced age, here in Suffolk; as in, "He jossed up agin me *for the nonce*: 't wan't a accident." Professor Joseph Wright, editor of the admirable *English Dialect Dictionary* now in course of publication, obligingly informs me that he has not traced this peculiarity, in living speech, to any part of Great Britain.

In old authors, it is moreover to be observed, *for the nonce* is often introduced with perplexing vagueness; seeing that, in various connexions, it is ostensibly convertible with *studiously*, with *voluntarily*, *deliberately*, *advisedly*, and even with *for a time*, and with *then*, *afterwards*. In many instances, also, it looks as if it were simply syllabic padding, to integrate a verse; it being, so far forth, comparable with *bedene*, *iwis*, *mid iwis*, which, in distant days, were, not seldom, merely chiming expletives. In support of most of these conclusions, the evidence now to be offered might be multiplied tenfold from materials before me:

"Weyl were hyt do rygt *for the nones*
To wurschyp swych cherlës bones.
What wurschyp shulde men make
About swych cherlës bodyes blake?"
—Robert Mannyng, *Handlyng Synne* (about 1303), p. 269, v. 8691 (1862).

"And eftyr, quhen thai [Romulus and Remus] worth men, thai becam, *for the nanys*, briggantis of the wod." Bp. Douglas (*ut supra*), vol. ii., p. 291.

"Than the knightes couched their speares, and ran at thē with all their force; and the flemynges opened and gaue them way, it was sayd *for the nones*, and fledde, and sayde amonge themselfe, let vs flye and gyue them way, for we are sure the bridge wyll nat beare thē." Lord Berners, *The Cronycle of Froissart* (1523), vol. i., p. 717 (ed. 1812).

"A peyne y suffre harde, *for the nones*,
For a clothe that y refte ones
Of a pouerre man wythoute rygt."
—Robert Mannyng (*ut ante*), p. 73, v. 2263.

"Syne kingis com, amangis quham *for the nanis*
Stern Tibris regnit, a man byg of banis."
—Bp. Douglas (*ut supra*), vol. iii., p. 174.

"Sammyn wyth this vprisis *for the nanis*
Ane huge nois and clamour all atanis."
—*Ibid.*, vol. iv., p. 113.

"Blessed shall he be that *for the nones*
Shall throwe thy chyldren agaynst the stones,
To brynge the out of memorie."
—Bp. Myles Coverdale (before 1539), *Remains* (1846), p. 572.

"To saif Mankynde, that was forlorne,
Christ bure ane creuell crowne of thorne;
The Pope, thre crownis, *for the nonis*,
Off gold, pouilderit with pretious stonis."
—Sir David Lindesay (1552), *Poems* (ed. 1865–'71), p. 148.

In the oldest quotation of this group, a Norfolk knight, whose cattle have befouled the graves in a churchyard, replies, ironically and irreverently, to a bondman who complains to him of their misdoing.

Only the first three of the immediately preceding quotations, with those produced higher up, am I now able to bring forward from literature, to vouch, unchallengeably, for "purposely," and words either virtually, practically, or approximately, synonymous with it, as senses which have been borne by *for the nonce*. Nevertheless, the paucity of those testimonies is owing, without doubt, to my having neglected to make memorandums of others, when they were observed. With respect to the leading sense adverted to, though a good number of lexicographers pretty certainly went on recording it after it had ceased to define the phrase in any but an archaic acceptation, or in one no longer standard, it must have been, for a considerable period, prevalent, and have continued to be familiar to the learned. This position is established without difficulty.

Deditâ operâ, *de industriâ*, *consulto*, *tout exprès*, *à dessein*, and the like, are the interpretations of *for the nonce* given in more than a dozen old dictionaries—even down to Ainsworth's in the edition of 1828—that have been examined, not one of which, strange to say, recognizes it as interchangeable with "for the occasion," "ad hoc," the usual signification attaching to it all along, uninterruptedly, and attaching to it as an item of popular diction, though Dr. Johnson, in his haste, constructively pronounced it to be "not now in use." Thus, Bp. Thomas Cooper, of the era of Queen Elizabeth, has: "De industriâ aliquid facere. Cic. To doe of purpose or *for the nonce*," and "Deditâ operâ. Cic. Purposely, *for the nones*, of set purpose." Rider, Florio, Minsheu, Francis Holyoke, Miége, Littleton, and William Robertson, with others, might be adduced to the same purport. Skinner, in his *Etymologicon*, makes *for the nonce* equivalent to "serio et de industriâ," and then, going off at score, indulges in the fantastic and nebulous exposition: "Dicimus enim *To do a thing for the nonce*, cùm compendio rem peragere conamus, et caput rei petimus." In passing, Howell's Italian for the locution, *industriosamente*, "laboriously," or "craftily," does not suit with his French for it, *expressement*.

Ruddiman, in the glossary prefixed to his edition of Bp. Douglas's *Æneis*, has: "For the nanis; *for the nonce*, for the purpose, on purpose." Hearne, glossing, in 1725, Robert Mannyng's *for the nones*, *for the nons*, equates it to "de industriâ, operâ deditâ," and to "designedly, on purpose." Jamieson, in his *Etymological Dictionary of the Scottish Language*, adds nothing, touching *for the nanis*, to what may be gathered from his predecessors.

In a discussion wider of scope than this, notice would have to be taken of *with the nones that*, found at least twice in Chaucer, and of much besides which has not been touched upon.

Of the divers crazy guesses, as to the origin of *for the nonce*, which have been put forth, there is an ample detail in both of Archdeacon Todd's editions of Johnson's *Dictionary*, but not a single glimmer of real light. Yet neither Messrs. Halliwell and Wright, in 1859, nor Dr. Richardson, so late as 1865, should have been unacquainted with the interesting discovery for which the credit belongs to Mr. Richard Price. Thanks to him, we now know that the phrase, in the antique forms of which the *n* of *nanes* is provectional, began from *for than anes*, *for then ones*, etc., "for the one," that is to say, "for the special occasion or purpose." Skinner, and his successors for a long period, as well, were unaware of the existence of *for then anes*, occurring, as elsewhere, in *The Liflade of St. Juliana;* and yet, possibly, they would have dispensed with blind conjecture, and theorized to good effect, if, while bearing in mind the old *nale*, *nanger*, *neyes*, *nother*, *nown*, *nuncle*, *the tone*, *the tother*, and so on, they had fallen in with and pondered the ensuing passages:

"Then the emperor was content *for that once*, and bade they should no more do so, but that the old ordinance ought to be kept." Rev. William Tyndale (1530), *Expositions and Notes* (1849), p. 266.

"Yet wil we so terme it *for this once*." Sir Thomas Hoby (*ut ante*), sig. H 5*r*.

"Fiue or sixe . . . plotted a solemne drinking at one of their houses, laid in Beere *for the once*, drunke healths in a strange manner, and died therof within a fewe weekes, some sooner and some later." Rev. Samuel Ward, *Woe to Drunkards* (1622), p. 28 (ed. 1627).

Nonest has been seen above; and Robert Greene, in his *James the Fourth*, has *nonst*. In these, *nones* is "corrupted by form-association with superlatives." Of the same character are *against*, *alongst*, *amidst*, *amongst*, and *anenst*. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, January 15, 1897.

Notes.

HENRY HOLT & Co. have in preparation a series of Lives of the Great Explorers, by well-known writers.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. announce 'Moltke's Letters to his Wife,' in two volumes; 'Reminiscences of a Yorkshire Naturalist,' by the late Prof. W. C. Williamson, edited by his wife; 'Animal Episodes and Studies in Sensation,' by G. H. Powell; 'How We Made Rhodesia,' by Maj. Arthur Glyn Leonard; 'A Narrative of the Boer War,' by Thomas Fortescue Carter; 'The Highland Brigade in the Crimea,' by Lt.-Col. Anthony Sterling; 'The Court of England under George IV.'; and 'From "The Bells" to "King Arthur,"' a critical record of the first-night productions at the Lyceum Theatre, London, by Clement Scott.

Fleming H. Revell Co. issue during the present month the Autobiography of the late Dr. Charles F. Deems, supplemented with a memoir by his sons.

Charles Scribner's Sons promise 'America and the Americans,' from a French point of view; 'American Lands and Letters,' by Donald G. Mitchell; and 'The Builders, and Other Poems,' by the Rev. Dr. Henry van Dyke.

'A Primer of Psychology,' by Prof. Edward B. Titchener of Cornell, will bear Macmillan's imprint, as will also Dr. Henry Sweet's forthcoming 'Students' Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.'

'Christian Citizenship,' by Dr. Carlos Martyn; 'Hero Tales from Sacred History,' by Dr. Louis Albert Banks; and 'The Epic of Paul,' by William Cleaver Wilkinson, are announced by Funk & Wagnalls.

'Walks and Rides about Boston,' by Edwin M. Bacon, author of the admirable Dictionary of that city, is to be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Copeland & Day will issue 'Miscellaneous Odes,' by Francis Thompson; 'Memorial Day, and Other Poems,' by Richard Burton of Hartford; 'A Book of Lyrics,' by Father Tabb; and another volume of verse by John Vance Cheney.

Way & Williams, Chicago, have nearly

ready 'Hours with Famous Parisians,' by Stuart Henry.

A limited edition of 'The House of the Heart,' poems by Irving Brown, formerly editor of the Albany *Law Journal*, is in the press of the Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo.

The American Baptist Publication Society have nearly ready 'Christianity and Property,' by Dr. A. E. Waffle, and 'The Conservative Principle in Our Literature,' by Dr. William R. Williams.

The Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind purposes to reprint in raised characters, for the use of its pupils, Mr. David A. Wells's little book, 'Robinson Crusoe's Money,' which is well known for the good service that it has done in educating the mentally blind as to what constitutes good money.

The Delegates of the Clarendon Press, Oxford, have determined on a standard and uniform series of Greek and Latin authors from the best manuscripts, for use in schools, colleges, and universities, and edited by the first English scholars.

Volume viii. of Mr. Charles Booth's 'Life and Labor of the People in London' (Macmillan) continues the classification of the population by trades, and contains also a "Picture of Pauperism" which resembles that drawn in 'The Jukes' by our countryman the late Richard Dugdale. Volume ix. and last of this great work is to appear presently; it will contain a summary and analysis of the previous volumes, and will also deal with the conclusions to be drawn from the whole inquiry.

Of service to lawyers is 'Bender's Lawyers' Diary and Directory for the State of New York,' for 1897 (Albany: Matthew Bender). Some sixty pages more of matter than in last year's issue testify to the publisher's intention to make it as comprehensive as possible.

Mr. Stopford A. Brooke's 'English Literature' (Macmillan) is the best small manual of the subject that we have seen. In 250 pages Mr. Brooke gives a clear and eminently readable sketch of the whole material, from the seventh century to the middle of the nineteenth. Furthermore—and in this point he does not resemble some other writers of handbooks—he proceeds on the basis of a really intimate acquaintance with a large part of the field. It is easy to pick flaws, and we have noted a number of errors and omissions in matters of detail; but, on the whole, the book is admirably fitted for its purpose.

Mme. Darmesteter (Miss Mary Robinson) has translated, under the title of 'English Studies,' a number of essays by her late husband, the lamented Orientalist, James Darmesteter, which have to do with English literature and kindred matters. Darmesteter's versatility was surprising, and his feeling for life and literature was keen and fresh to a degree not always found in men of his erudition. He knew the English mind and character well, and whatever he had to say about it deserves attention. The volume before us, then, is worth reading, though the papers it contains were not meant for immortality. Their "occasional" character is, of course, no drawback to the "occasional" reader, for whom, indeed, they are primarily meant. There is a touching preface by the translator, and an excellent portrait of the author adds to the attractiveness of the book.

Everybody yields to the charm of Mr. Austin Dobson's 'Eighteenth Century Vignettes,' and everybody will therefore be glad to see the third series of them, which is now on our table (Dodd, Mead & Co.). There is no falling off in the interest, no lack of spirit and variety. Mr. Dobson is an unsurpassed artist in minutiæ. He takes infinite pains with trifling details of manners or letters, not because he exaggerates their importance in themselves, but because he has a just sense of what they mean in their relation to the century as a whole. His talent in extracting diversion and enlightenment out of anything and everything—an old catalogue, for example, of a not very remarkable library—is remarkable. We have nothing but commendation for this new volume, which, we take it, does not contain more than half-a-dozen dull lines.

Hertz's "Miscellaneous Papers," of which we have a translation by the hands of D. E. Jones and G. A. Schott (Macmillan), form the first volume of the collected works of this brilliant investigator as edited by his friend and pupil, Dr. Philipp Lenard. They number twenty-two, most of them on the earlier investigations which Hertz carried out before the great electrical researches by which he is best known. To these are added the Heidelberg lecture "On the Relations between Light and Electricity" of 1889, his tribute to his great master, Helmholtz, 1891, and his investigation "On the Passage of Cathode Rays through Thin Metallic Layers," 1892. These last, and the research, "Experiments on the Cathode Discharge," are the papers which have the widest interest. In an introduction of seventeen pages Dr. Lenard gives a very interesting sketch of Hertz's scientific career up to the time of his epoch-making discovery of the electric waves. In 1877, at the age of twenty, he went to Munich to carry on the engineering studies to which he had decided to devote himself; but at this point he began to doubt whether his natural inclination lay in this direction, and soon determined to turn to physics. A year later he went to Berlin to become the pupil of Helmholtz and Kirchhoff. There he remained, the latter part of the time as Helmholtz's assistant, until his removal to Kiel as privat-docent in 1883. Immediately on his arrival in Berlin he was led to attempt the solution of a problem in regard to electric inertia which had been proposed as a prize research, and was successful in winning the prize and the high commendation of the faculty. In 1880 he took his degree. His prize research and his inaugural dissertation are the first and the longest papers in this collection. Much interest is added to the brief narrative by extracts from his letters to his parents during this period of his life.

Prof. A. Cartault's 'Étude sur les Bucoliques de Virgile' (Paris: Colin) is an interesting and original book of 500 pages written on the high lines of literary criticism of the classics in which the French excel. Of its thirteen chapters, the first deals with the youth, the patrons, and the friends of Virgil; the second is a study of the chronological order of the Eclogues; the next ten are devoted each to a single eclogue; and the last treats *les réalités rustiques* in Virgil's Eclogues and in the first eleven Idyls of Theocritus. The main object of the book is to set forth what can be exactly discovered about the youth of Virgil, and to study the formation of his poetic talent. The author investigates carefully the poet's studies and his sources, and shows how Virgil used these sources, sometimes translating almost literally, again imitating freely, now departing so far from his models as to produce what is practically an original work. To follow Virgil as his genius developed and as he grew year by year more sure of himself and of his own inspiration, is a fascinating pursuit, and the book will commend itself to every lover of the great Roman bard.

How much may be made of a dry subject is well shown in Lee Phillips's 'Virginia Cartography,' forming No. 1039 of the Smithsonian Miscellaneous Collections. Mr. Phillips gives a list of such maps of Virginia as he has met, and a full history of each one, making an invaluable guide to his subject. The list is a long one, beginning with the 1585 map of John With or White, who has been identified with John White the Governor by Kohl and Stevens, but contrary to the record, as Mr. Phillips has good reasons for believing, and ends with the latest railroad map by an American house. Of John Smith's map, to which high praise is justly given, four impressions are described, and much attention is given to the map of Virginia Farrer, one of the few examples of woman's handiwork in that line. From Smith to Jefferson and Fry only one map became acceptable as a standard, that of Herman, the founder of Bohemia Manor, who made the drawing in 1670. Of interest is the note on the map appearing in the English edition of Washington's Journal in 1754, which Mr. Phillips traces to the *London Magazine*. It is natural to find that the French war (1755–1763) and the Revolution (1774–1783) stimulated the issue of maps by English and French, some of which deserve to take very high rank as examples of artistic map-making. Mr. Phillips is entitled to great credit for his labors, which will be useful to every American library. The proof-reading has been carelessly done, as not a few typographical errors are to be found.

The Consular Reports for January are largely taken up with an account of land taxation and labor laws in New Zealand. This is in response to "many hundreds of letters" of inquiry received by our consul at Auckland within the past two years from intending emigrants from the United States to that country. The terms on which land can be obtained are reasonable, but the cost of clearing it, the lack of a local market, the poor roads and the small profits on shipments to England more than offset this advantage. The consul at Barcelona reports that during the season of 1896 "there were 478 bull-fights in Spain, and 1,218 bulls and 5,730 horses were killed." The value of these animals and the wages of the twenty-three matadores were about three-quarters of a million of dollars. The most famous of the matadores, Guerrita, "appeared in sixty-eight fights, killed 174 bulls, and received in all $51,000."

The ninth report emanating from the Massachusetts Commissioner of Public Records shows that Rhode Island has followed in the wake of its neighbor State, and that Connecticut is likely to come next. Mr. Swan for the first time makes a complete tabular statement of what has been achieved by his office in the preservation of municipal records since 1890. It is a very remarkable proof of efficiency; but Mr. Swan still advocates a public-record office. He has another amusing chapter on the overburdened town clerk and his miserable compensation (when there is any). The craze for genealogical research, it seems, is now increasing his burden, but not his fees. Were he held responsible for non-performance of every duty exacted of him by law, every clerk's office in the State would stand vacant. In reference to binding, Mr. Swan points out the superiority of canvas to leather, as resisting damp, heat, or fire (even in a safe); and

as Pennsylvania has legalized typewritten records, he warns imitators that ribbons charged with permanent ink should be insisted upon.

From the seventeenth annual report of the New York Free Circulating Library, it appears, by actual observation in April last, that in history, biography, and travels a larger percentage of works (mostly juvenile, doubtless) is taken out by children than by adults. The library has begun a sort of card-catalogue of criticisms "clipped from the current literary magazines which were formerly sold for old paper," to be accessible to the public. Books, too, hopelessly worn out are no longer sold as waste, but are devoted to the city asylums and prisons. These economies remind us of the use of the discarded leather coverings of car-seats on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad for bookbindings in the travelling library maintained by that road.

The past month ushered in the Bulletin of the New York Public Library, a most interesting document. It gives a succinct account of the origin of the several Astor, Lenox, and Tilden foundations, their status in funds and volumes at the close of the year 1894, and of the steps taken for consolidation and the procuring of a site for the new building. The Tilden endowment, estimated at $2,000,000, is about twice that of the Astor, which is again twice that of the Lenox (apart from a life interest yet pending). The Director, Dr. John S. Billings, tells of the vigorous measures initiated, since his accession, at both the existing libraries, for shelving and cataloguing, supplying books of reference for free consultation, and making periodicals subscribed for available before binding. He also enumerates the more important gifts of the past year, three of the items coming from England.

The gratifying announcement is made in the *Library Journal* for January that the 'American Catalogue' for 1890-'95 is ready for the binder. The same number contains the proceedings of a recent meeting of the New York Library Club with the New York State Library Association, at which the best books of 1896 were discussed in classes by several reporters. In the juvenile field, according to Miss Hewins, no very good book had been produced—"that is, no book worthy to be put into the A. L. A. selected list."

Following the *Zeitschrift für Schulgeographie* that has been established for a number of years in Germany, the first number of a *Journal of School Geography* has just been issued under the editorship of Prof. R. E. Dodge of Teachers' College, New York, in association with Mr. Hayes of the United States Geological Survey, Prof. Kümmel of Lewis Institute, Chicago, Prof. McMurray of the Buffalo School of Pedagogy, and Prof. Davis and Mr. Ward of Harvard. "Each of the editors is a worker in geography, either as an investigator or teacher, or both. Every one is now teaching or has taught; all have to do with the problems of the schools; and several are making these problems their chief study." In spite of the number of periodicals now issued, and of the considerable number devoted to the general interests of secondary education, there is a distinct need of a special journal covering the field here entered. The first number contains several articles giving a variety of practical counsel and information, both helpful and useful to teachers. Subscriptions ($1.00 a year) may be sent to the publishers, 41 North Queen Street, Lancaster, Pa.

The *Annales de Géographie* for January contains an article on the transcription of geographical names, with especial reference to Russian, and a description of the geographical divisions of Brittany. In an interesting account of the different projects for increasing the navigability of the Loire, attention is called to the steady decline of the cities on its banks in industries and population. Nantes, for instance, which, a century ago, was the first port in France, is now the twelfth in rank. This is due largely to the fact that for two-thirds or three-quarters of the year the difficulties presented by the shifting channel and low water are so great as practically to close navigation. There is also a study of the characteristics of the races inhabiting the valley of the upper Nile, with an ethnographical chart, and an encouraging review of the success of the new methods of agricultural instruction introduced six years ago into the primary and grammar schools of Belgium.

Among the contents of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* for December is a story of exploration in northeastern Iceland, and a lively description of Erzerum and Trebizond. Erzerum Dr. Saad calls a "city of the dead" from the appalling misery of its inhabitants since the massacres. The annual summary of geographical literature for the year shows a considerable falling off from that of 1895. Europe holds the first place with nearly a third of the 801 works noticed, and is followed at a long distance by America, Asia, and Africa. There are supplemental numbers on the geological results of recent explorations in Central Asia and China, and (by Dr. Karl Dove) on the topography, climate, flora, fauna, and resources of South Damaraland in German southwest Africa. This country apparently has little mineral wealth, and the soil is too poor to sustain a large population, while to buy grazing land and stock a ranch—the only profitable industry—would require a large outlay of capital from which there would be no return for ten years.

The principal article in the Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund is Dr. Bliss's report of his excavations in Jerusalem. The extent of his work may be realized from the fact that during the past year he has opened a mile of tunnels. The dimensions of the true Pool of Siloam have been determined, and the ruins of an ancient church on its north side have been discovered. Mr. Gray Hill begins an account of a successful journey to Petra in 1896, and there is an interesting description of a visit to the cave of Machpelah in Hebron, by a Jew in 1523, with comments by Canon Dalton, one of the very few Christians who have been permitted to examine the interior of the mosque built over the cave.

Cosmopolis, the triglot review, is about to become in certain countries a tetraglot. Henceforth in Russia there will be annexed to the present French, German, and English divisions a Russian part. A like experiment will soon be tried in Italy and in Denmark, where the subscribers of the review will find in each month's issue an Italian or a Danish addition. The main body of the review will remain as it is, constant, but there will be special editions for circulation in certain countries, with a supplement in the vernacular of each of these.

For many reasons unusual interest has attached to the efforts of the friends of Colorado College to raise the $150,000 necessary to secure the conditional gift of $50,000 by Dr. Pearsons of Chicago. His offer was made just before the panic of 1893—a panic which reduced many of the local benefactors of the college to comparative poverty, and which aroused such manifestations of feeling in Colorado towards the Eastern section of the country as might have seemed to a cynical observer sufficient to quench the very spirit of benevolence. In spite of these adverse conditions, and although the revenue of the college was seriously affected, the faculty and students by their devotion and self-sacrifice encouraged the friends of the institution to renewed efforts, which have finally been crowned with success. The number of contributors to the fund surpasses 1,000; and more than $100,000 has come from donors in the Eastern States. Independently of the great work which a college situated as this one is has to perform—it is not aided by the State Government—and which itself constitutes a patriotic appeal, it certainly seems as if no more impressive lesson to the promoters of sectional prejudice could be given than the generosity with which benevolent people from all parts of the country have responded to this appeal.

—A noteworthy incident in the preparation for independence is followed out in the *American Historical Review* for January by Andrew McFarland Davis, who sets forth the case of Frost vs. Leighton. The matter came before the Superior Court of Judicature of the Massachusetts Bay, which, by a decision rendered in 1738 and repeated in 1739, "refused to enforce an order issued by his Majesty in Council, because the powers of the court derived through the charter and the laws passed to carry the same into effect, were, in the judgment of the court, inadequate for that purpose." The case is as interesting as it is historically important. Gaillard Hunt contributes an amusing and instructive article on office-seeking during John Adams's Administration. Adams's sentiments about appointments were high toned, but certainly modified in practice at a time when "offensive partisanship" was much more common with Federal officials than now. In other respects, this generation may recognize itself in these century-old documents from the State Department. The American field is also well cultivated by Joseph S. Walton in "Nominating Conventions in Pennsylvania," and by Frederick W. Moore in "Representation in Congress from the Seceding States 1861-'65," a first paper, "limited to the cases in which the respective houses of Congress judged the qualifications of applicants for membership from the States in insurrection," and designed as an introduction to the difficult subject of Reconstruction. Among the Original Documents are Marshall's letters to Washington when Envoy to France, and Cobden's letters to Sumner during our civil war. These last, with some lack of insight, are able comments from an outsider friendly to the North, but who would have tolerated both the economic and the moral enormity of slavery rather than support a war for abolition—who, in fact, might have been a pacific member of the Peace Congress on the eve of hostilities. Much of his criticism may still be taken to heart. "I wish," he writes on January 11, 1865, "I could see more intelligence in your midst on questions of finance and political economy. Your Congress seems to me just about on a level with the British Parliament of 1818, before Huskisson commenced his first reforms of our fiscal system which were afterwards followed up by Peel and Gladstone." And on March 2: "The country is revelling in a saturnalia of greenbacks and Government expenditure, and

is under a delusion that it is a genuine prosperity. It is destined to a rude disenchantment, and this will test the statesmanship of the Republican party." In thirty-two years, except for resumption of specie payments, we have not budged an inch!

—Mr. C. H. Firth prints, in the January number of the *English Historical Review*, Thomas Scot's account of his actions as "intelligencer" during the period of the Commonwealth. Scot entered the Long Parliament in 1645, sided with the Independents in the struggles of 1647 and 1648, and was one of the judges who condemned Charles I. He strongly opposed the Protectorate, and in his confession pronounces Cromwell "one of the greatest tyrants England ever saw or felt." In January, 1660, Scot became Secretary of State, but, after the readmission of the members who had been excluded in 1648, he took refuge in the Netherlands, where he was shortly afterwards induced to surrender; on October 17 he was executed. He held the office of intelligencer from 1649 to 1653, and in 1659 was reappointed; but his confessions, which he seems to have been led to believe would save his life, appear not to have been thought important enough to protect him. His account, however, throws considerable light upon the foreign and domestic intrigues of the time, and is enlivened by naïve characterizations of those whom he employed as tools. One of his first acts was to inform himself of the doings and plans of the Levellers, with the result that four of them were soon imprisoned. He held weekly correspondence with Cromwell while the latter was in Ireland, meantime keeping agents actively employed in Scotland. Werden, his principal agent in France, "played a double game," and later, instead of keeping his promise to "renew his correspondence & discoverys" at Brussels, became a leader in Booth's rising. Another emissary, Lewis de Bourgoigne, travelled from Calais to Bordeaux, working among the adherents of the Prince of Condé as the ones most likely to favor the English "had there been occasion ministred of attempting them by land." A correspondence with Cardinal de Retz came to nothing. The threatened intervention of the Duke of Lorraine kept Scot busy, not only in Flanders, but especially in Rome, where some of the Cardinals with whom his "instruments" had influence "were led to beleeve that G. Cromwell was much disposed to a liberty of Religion, if not formall tolleration of Popery, and would much incline the Parliament thereto, and therefor that it was not safe to provoke either." In the end, the Duke failed to obtain the aid and "spirituall benediction" he desired. The agent set to watch Lilburne in Holland was unsuccessful, for the reason, so runs the confession, that "John's genius was too mighty for him." Scot knew, chiefly by means of intercepted cipher dispatches, of the progress of negotiations between the King and the Presbyterians; but a proposition to betray the King into his hands he "peremptorily and in a few words renounc'd," as "unsuitable to Christianity." When the army turned against the Parliament, in November, 1659, Scott committed to Col. Bampfield the task of reconciling him to the King; but of the outcome of the mission, or whether, indeed, it was ever seriously undertaken, he never knew.

—No great name of the first rank appears in the 49th volume of the 'Dictionary of National Biography' (Macmillan). Nevertheless, there is plenty of fame between the two covers, from Robinsons (filling 57 pages) to Russells (filling 68), and a deal of interesting reading. The American contingent is rather small—John Rolfe, Mary Rowlandson (the Indian captive), the Rev. Ezekiel Rogers of Rowley, Mass., and John Robinson, the Pilgrims' pastor before the exodus from Leyden, whose autograph signature is preserved in a book in the British Museum. We might add Gen. Ross, who burnt the capitol at Washington in the war of 1812, for which his biographer supplies approval rather than extenuation. Under John Robinson, we observe (p. 21) a faulty first initial ("W.") for the late Dr. Henry M. Dexter, a Puritan apologist who agreed with Dr. Palfrey in deducing a nominal flogging of Obadiah Holmes in Boston in 1651 from the victim's exalted account of his feelings, as if "struck with roses." The same logic would make the burning of the martyr Rogers perfunctory, for we read on p. 129 of the Dictionary that his children (*teste* Count Noailles) comforted him "in such manner that it seemed as if he had been led to a wedding." Sir Boyle Roche's most famous bull is tacitly discredited by his biographer, who tells us that his speeches were prepared by others for his amazing perversion in delivery. The poet Rogers receives very amiable treatment, with good reason. We are reminded that Prince Rupert was one of the founders of the Hudson's Bay Company. Lord John Russell has hardly a better title to distinction than his eleven years' persistence in removing the Jewish disability to sit in the House of Commons on behalf of Lionel Nathan Rothschild, who, with his kindred, also figures at length in this instalment of the Dictionary.

—With volume iv. Mr. Conway brings to an end his edition of the writings of Thomas Paine (Putnams). There can be no question of the value of this edition, which takes a high place at once as the only complete collection of Paine, and largely because of the diligent labors of the editor. This volume contains the 'Age of Reason' and the controversies growing out of it. The original edition is made the basis of the reprint, allowing the correction of some curious errors that have crept into the text in the many reprints. The history of the work is well told by Mr. Conway, but he could not refrain from once more referring to the malice of Morris and the perfidy of Washington. Paine says so much in his own defence, as well as to his own injury, that it was unnecessary to seek so forced an explanation of the sufferings he endured in his struggles for free thought. Some political writings, of little value, and some interesting scientific papers fill out the volume. We doubt the expediency of printing the poetic attempts of Paine. They might be cited as evidence of his versatility; but they are poor stuff at best, and not above the level of the squib-writer of the day. Mr. Conway's notes are full, and usually in excellent taste, and he naturally places a very high estimate upon the services of Paine, whom he calls "the great commoner of mankind, founder of the republic of the world, and emancipator of the human mind and heart." A sentence in the introduction informs us that Mr. Conway intends to write a defence of citizen Genet, of whose career in America very little good can be said. It is difficult to believe that to such a crack-brained diplomat it was seriously proposed to intrust "Louis Capet" for transportation to America. Yet Mr. Conway thinks it was so.

—Gen. Nelson A. Miles's 'Personal Recollections and Observations' are published in small quarto by the Werner Co. (Chicago and New York) with all the attractions of the subscription-book of the better sort. The reproductions in full page of Remington's illustrations are very spirited and taking. The portion of the book which narrates Gen. Miles's personal and very important part in recent Indian wars is original matter of a high order, and is authoritative in the best sense. His keen and just perception of the true origin of the conflicts, and of the special character they take from the nature of the Indian, is most instructive. His references to Indian habits, morals, ideals, purposes, and standards of right are those of an expert whose sense of justice has made him take a kindly view of the red man, while he does not ignore the barbarism in which the race is still sunken. He adds his weighty testimony to that of leading military men who have gone before him, in saying that he has never known an Indian war in which the white man was not the aggressor. Wherever he touches the personal life of the Indian or of the frontiersman, his lines are true and firm—a graphic reproduction of his own experiences. The rest of the book is of much less value. The autobiographic outline is especially meagre in regard to the civil war, in which the author's career was a most brilliant one. The dissertation on aboriginal ethnography is neither a scientific treatise nor a popular sketch. It falls short of the one and is too full for the other. The picture of the development and progress of the West has too much of the quality of the guide-book or gazetteer. A less pretentious volume, consisting of the chapters on the author's own experience and observation of the Indians, would have a prominent place in every library, and, written as these are with the *verve* and strength of a competent man on ground which is his own, would give Gen. Miles a much better literary reputation than the bulky book as a whole is likely to make.

—Mr. Goldwin Smith's 'Guesses at the Riddle of Existence' (Macmillan) come to us as a welcome reminder of the fact that six and thirty years ago he encountered the redoubtable Dean Mansel on the battlefields of theological metaphysics, and added philosophic laurels to his chaplet by his attack on the famous Bampton Lectures, in which Mansel, in his anxiety to disarm rationalism, "inadvertently demonstrated the impossibility of believing in God" and became "an awful warning to the polemical tactician," as his former adversary takes occasion to impress upon Mr. Balfour. Mr. Goldwin Smith's attitude then was that of a liberal thinker, loath to give up the spiritual heritage of civilization, except under the stress of the more imperious demands of truth and sincerity; it has not changed since, though the march of events has put a more agnostic complexion on his views. His method also has remained the same, and his guesses at truth retain the form of criticisms of other people's guesses, as clear in thought and as felicitous in expression as of yore. With a sureness of touch and lucidity of statement which it would be well for professed philosophers to imitate, he exposes the hollowness of the current nostrums intended for the cure of our spiritual ailment; but of positive conclusion there is little or nothing. No one evidently regrets this more than Mr. Goldwin Smith himself: he sees trouble everywhere in the social atmosphere, and "the storm-centre of the trouble seems to be in the region of re-

ligion"; he sees also the source of the trouble, but nowhere a remedy. Yet he declines to declare himself an agnostic. He will not say, as so many, that the search for light on the riddle of existence must or should be abandoned, or that our perplexity makes no practical difference. And for that surely he deserves such thanks as Rome accorded to the vanquished Varro after his defeat at Cannæ—the thanks due to one who does not despair of the human reason and its satisfaction.

—Macmillan publishes a limited large-paper edition, of 500 copies, of Irving's 'Alhambra' with Mr. Pennell's illustrations, which contains, besides all the matter of the ordinary edition, twelve lithographs, by Mr. Pennell, of views in the old Moorish palace. In spite of the generous praise which Mr. Whistler has lavished upon these plates, we cannot think them unqualified successes, or that their presence is any great addition to the value of the book. Their size makes them unpleasant as illustrations, while their marginless state renders it difficult to judge fairly of their merit as independent works of art; but it seems to us evident that Mr. Pennell has by no means yet mastered the resources of an art that is new to him, and has tried to render by its means effects much more suited to his tried implement the pen. The charm of lithography is in the facility it gives for multiplied and soft half tones; it is essentially a *gray method*. The glitter of sunlight on sharp and complicated architectural forms demands the crisp incisiveness of the pen point for its suggestion. Mr. Pennell has tried to use pen-technique for the production of pen-and-ink effects with no better tool than the soft lithographic crayon, and the result is that his lithographs are a sort of weaker and woolly pen-drawings. Once or twice, indeed, there is a suggestion of the glow of light rather than the glitter; but, in general, the pen drawings in this volume seem to us much more successful renderings of the scenes attempted than do the lithographs.

—M. Eugène Müntz has written a sound and thorough monograph on the 'Tapestries of Raphael,' which is published, in a sumptuous limited edition of 330 copies, by J. Rothschild of Paris (New York: Brentano's). As M. Müntz is well known as an authority on Raphael and as an authority on tapestry, he was doubly fitted for the execution of his present task, and the work contains everything that is known concerning Raphael's tapestries and those which have been attributed to him. In one place we think he has made a slight slip, but he himself furnishes the material for its correction. In discussing the series of tapestries of playing children which Giovanni da Udine designed for Leo X., he demonstrates that these were twenty in number, but in reconstructing the list from all available sources the number seems to amount to twenty-one. It is evident that there is a mistake somewhere, and, after describing, from an old inventory, Nos. XIX. (Children with Paroquets) and XX. (Children with a Pheasant, or Children with a Woodpecker and a Partridge), he hazards the remark that "il est fort probable que l'une de ces deux pièces fait double emploi avec celles qui ont été décrites ci-dessus." It seems to us quite evident from the descriptions alone that the doubling is in another place, and the illustrations render it absolutely certain that Nos. XIV., a tapestry in the collection of the Princess Mathilde, and XXI., a drawing in the print-room of the Berlin Museum, are identical. In order to make his list tally, M. Müntz has but to omit his last number entirely and add the reference to the Berlin drawing to his No. XIV. The book is published in a large quarto, paper-covered, beautifully printed, and lavishly illustrated with nine plates on copper and 125 text cuts, and furnished with title-page, dedication, etc., in colors, and with rubricated initials. Two of the plates are etchings of Raphael's portraits of himself and of Leo X.; the other seven are the special glory of the book, being photogravure plates from the celebrated Hampton Court cartoons, which have now been photographed for the first time by special permission of the Queen of England, to whom the volume is dedicated. They do not all reach the highest level of execution, but they afford the best means, short of a trip to London, now attainable for the study of these works, while the minor illustrations take the place of study in half the capitals of Europe. Here is a veritable feast for the amateur of art.

—Some interesting legal questions have arisen in reference to the Goncourt bequest, and while there has been no intervention on the part of the natural heirs of Edmund de Goncourt, and no attempt to break the will, MM. Daudet and Hennique, the testamentary executors, have been in a good deal of doubt as to what was the best course for them to follow, and the foundation of the Académie des Goncourts has been considerably delayed. It was a philosophical and literary will that M. de Goncourt composed for himself, rather than one in strict legal form. He bequeathed his estate to a future academy which was, at the time he made his will, non-existent, having neither moral nor physical personality, and so being incapable of inheriting anything. This was pointed out to him by his notary, and he then added a codicil by the terms of which MM. Daudet and Hennique were made his universal legatees. There seems to be some doubt whether the courts may not hold that this is an evasion of the law, and it is said that there is some possibility that certain distant relatives of M. de Goncourt may raise the question, although nearer ones have declined to do so. But at any rate the sales of the Goncourt pictures and objects of art will go on as they had been planned. The first sale will take place on February 13, when will be offered the collection of drawings, about the value of which there have been so many conflicting reports. In the opinion of M. Georges Duchesne, who has charge of the sale, Goncourt himself was not mistaken in their value, and they will probably bring in the sum at which he estimated them. The second sale will take place on February 20, and will include the objects of art. Afterwards, at about the beginning of March, the Chinese and Japanese collections will be sold, and this will take at least an entire week. MM. Roger Marx, Bracquemond, and de Chennevière, in accordance with the wishes of M. de Goncourt, have arranged and classified these collections and made the catalogue of them. Two catalogues, in fact, will be published: one, a magnificent volume, with elaborate prefaces and illustrations, which will be sold at 40f.; the other, a résumé only, to be given away. Finally, in April, Goncourt's copyrights will be sold, and the well-known house at Auteuil, so that it is expected that the whole value of the estate will be in hand by the 1st of June, when, if no legal obstacles arise, the foundation of the new academy will be made.

HARPER'S CLASSICAL DICTIONARY.

Harper's Dictionary of Classical Literature and Antiquities. Edited by Harry Thurston Peck. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers. 1897.

THE plan of this work is truly encyclopædic. It aims "to give in a single volume the substance of all the information that it has hitherto been necessary to seek among many books and in many places." This information is classed in the preface under nine heads: biography, including the Christian fathers and the great classical scholars and philologists of modern times; mythology; geography; history; literature; antiquities, including public and private life, military, religious, and legal antiquities, music, philosophy, science, and epigraphy; language—including (among others) articles on Grimm's and Verner's laws—pronunciation, the *sermo plebeius*, dialects, and grammar; bibliography, brought down to the latest investigations; and illustrations.

Naturally, the book is a large one. It contains 1,700 pages of the size of Harper's Latin Lexicon (which is itself a work of a little over 2,000 pages). It is excellently printed in good type. The quality of the paper is well fitted to set off the 1,500 illustrations without being so shiny as to make reading a disagreeable task. At first sight one feels nothing but gratitude to Professor Peck for the labor which he has undertaken. As Livy remarked of his own work, *Res est immensi operis.* A book of this sort has long been needed, and this one will, we have no doubt, find a permanent place in every public library of importance and upon the shelves of a vast number of classical students and men of liberal culture. It is matter for great regret to us that we cannot add that it will be found completely trustworthy.

No one man's knowledge would fit him, in these days of specializing, to prepare a work of this magnitude. Prof. Peck has realized this fact to a certain extent, but not by any means fully enough. We do, indeed, learn from the preface that special articles have been written for the dictionary by twenty-six eminent scholars whose names are duly given; but examination shows that they contribute only about 131 pages, or less than 8 per cent. of the whole work. For the rest of it the editor declares himself solely responsible, and adds that he has devoted to it, for nearly five years, every hour that could be spared from other arduous duties. This period, even had it been entirely devoted to the dictionary, can scarcely be considered very long for such a task, and here again Prof. Peck has underestimated the seriousness of his undertaking. In spite of the numerous excellent hand-books and dictionaries, like those of Marquardt, Hermann, Göll, Lipsius, Blümner, I. Müller, Gilbert, Baumeister, Smith, Seyffert, and Schneider, the field is too great for one man to reap in any reasonable time, and the crop, while far from being in this instance a total failure, is yet foredoomed to disappoint the vows of the single laborer.

Everybody will be grateful for such articles as those on Umbria by Bücheler, Persia by Geldner, Pindar by Gildersleeve, India by Lanman, Homer by Seymour, and Lexicography by Lewis. Those on Ennius and the Senecas, Pompeii, Satire, Terence, Sermo Plebeius, and Grimm's and Verner's Laws, by Cruttwell, Lanciani, Pease, Ashmore, Cooper, and Wheeler, call also for special praise. Tarbell's archæological and architectural articles, too, are just what were to be expected

from his accurate knowledge and precise skill in definition. Of the articles by the editor himself, high commendation is to be given to those on Domus, Theatrum, Musica, and Balneum; and space will not allow us to chronicle his successes in details. Where so much has been done, and well done, it seems rank ingratitude to criticise severely; yet the editor's own acknowledgment that he knows his book to be open to charges of inconsistency and error, must not prevent us from indicating some of the faults which are to be found in it.

Next to a false reference to authorities, there are few things so exasperating in a dictionary as a false *cross*-reference. To refer the reader to a second and perhaps to a third article, and to furnish the promised information in neither, is a practical joke of a very disagreeable kind. This book is not free from such jokes. For example, under *Caricature* we are referred to *Pictura*, for *Hypogæum* to *Sepulcrum*, for *Timema* under *Diké* to the word itself, and under that to *Judicial Procedure*, and we get no comfort anywhere. Under *Pirene*, we are told that, according to one tradition, Pegasus struck out this spring on the citadel of Corinth, while under *Pegasus* it is said that the production of Hippocrene was the only connection of Pegasus with the Muses; for another tradition about Pirene we are referred to *Sisyphus*, where there is nothing whatever on the subject.

Of misprints the book is pretty free; we note Brune for Brunn in the preface, Rumfel for Rumpel under *Pindar*, 'Livy Epit. 140' for '142' under *Drusus*. Quantity seems to be marked only in cases where reasonable doubt might arise in the ordinary reader's mind, and the short and long marks are both used. It would have been better, perhaps, to mark only those penults which are known to be long. Why should we find *Patrŏcles* (the general), but in the very next article *Patroclus* or *Patrocles* (the hero)? And what is the evidence for *Cleopātra*?

Another needless aggravation is the frequent omission of the exact sources from which illustrations are taken. In these days the matter is easily settled, and every serious scholar wants to know the authority upon which a picture depends. "From a lamp," "from a cameo," "from a frieze at Rome," "restoration"—such indications are most unscholarly and all but useless. And while the editor has in general avoided the more common pitfalls—for example, we rejoice that at last in a reference book the student is warned against the old fraud called "the baths of Titus"—yet many will look with a good deal more than doubt upon a collection in which are included (without a word of caution) the three "portraits" of Horace here given. As for the cut called "Cleopatra, Painting on slate, from the Villa of Hadrian," Prof. Peck ought to have searched and learned that no genuine paintings have ever been found in this villa, and that the picture in question has been hawked for years about the museums of Europe and America, only to be repudiated. The right hand alone is enough to stamp the whole as a forgery. Many of the other illustrations are well executed, yet there are some outline cuts which are caricatures of the originals and merely serve to disfigure the book. Such, for instance, are the map of Italy, the cuts of the Venus of Milo, of certain coins, of a bust of Sallust, of the Roman wolf. In this time of photography and cheap process cuts there is not the slightest excuse for such crude performances, or for fancy pictures inherited, many of them, from untrustworthy books like Rich or the 'Museo Borbonico.' Publishers ought to be ashamed to serve up the old things over and over again.

Alma-Tadema's "Symposium" is reproduced in a rather poorly executed cut. The original itself is fair game for criticism, but this cut makes the two banqueters look like a pair of boozy tramps. On the whole, the admission of any modern pictures into a serious book on classical antiquity is a doubtful experiment, and certainly this particular choice was needless, since there are plenty of ancient representations of the symposium which might have been used. And if we *must* have a modern picture of Sappho, Cipollini's monograph would perhaps have saved Prof. Peck from another selection from the English school.

In the department of Attic legal antiquities the editor is far from being at his best. No bibliography is given under *Judicial Procedure* or under *Diké*, and there is much repetition in the two articles. The old edition of the 'Attischer Process' is cited under the latter; the revision by Lipsius under *Paragraphe*. Under *Anacrisis* (where the book is called *Prozess*), the explanation of διαμαρτυρία is incorrect; under *Metœci*, the statement is not true that with ἰσοτέλεια followed naturally the right to own land, since a separate decree gave this privilege. The definition of *Psephus* is not borne out by the accompanying illustration, and the cross-reference to *Diké* does not help at all.

Under *Tibia* and *Capistrum* the editor shows that he is not acquainted with Howard's treatise (the only one in English worth reading) on the ancient pipe; under *Symmoria* he seems not to know the textual question regarding the number of citizens who might unite to furnish a trireme. Under *Hercules*, we find no mention of him as a god of marriage; under *Cruquius* there is no allusion to the burning question of the genuineness of his MSS. of Horace. From the statement under *Æschylus* one would suppose that the editor thinks that the "Choephori" is found in only one MS. Under *Livius* we are willing to believe that Professor Peck means one hundred and twenty-one when he says that the first *twenty-one* books were not published until after the death of Augustus. There is no 'door-bell' actually mentioned in Suet. *Aug.* 91, nor is it certain that bells for summoning servants are meant in Sen. *de Ira*, 3, 35. The reference to the *Pseudolus* in the same article (*Tintinnabulum*) should be 1, 3, 98 (or better, verse 332), not 1, 3, 112. The whole article on bells might be greatly improved. No source is given for the picture that accompanies it. Under *Apollonius* of Tralles, it is said that he and his countryman Tauriscus were the sculptors of the Laocoön! Under *Album* (in the appendix), one of the numerous Pompeian election posters in favor of M. Cerrinius Vatia is called a notice "advertising a scribe."

In this review we have purposely touched upon the most diverse topics. It is evident that the editor should have divided up his great subject, intrusting each principal field to a sub-editor, and reserving for himself the general supervision and the writing of those articles only for which his studies had peculiarly fitted him.

A PRE-RAPHAELITE *AVANT LA LETTRE.*

Ford Madox Brown: A Record of His Life and Work. By Ford M. Hueffer. With numerous reproductions. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Pp. xx, 459.

When the definitive history of that artistic movement known as Pre-Raphaelitism comes to be written, a very large place in it will be given to a never very celebrated or very successful artist who died, almost in obscurity, on October 6, 1893. Whether or not Ford Madox Brown may properly be considered the true founder of Pre-Raphaelitism, his grandson, the writer of the present volume, is amply justified by the facts in calling him its precursor. An older man than any of the "brothers," the chosen master of Rossetti, and the adviser (if not strictly the master) of Hunt, his influence upon these young men must have been great. He never joined the Brotherhood himself, and several reasons have been given for it. There is even a contradiction of memory as to whether he was ever asked to do so. A comparison of the statements of Brown himself, of Holman Hunt, and of others would seem to show that if he was not formally asked, it was because he did not care to be, and that the obstacle was simply his greater age and experience, which rendered him somewhat less enthusiastic than his young friends, and gave him a distrust of brotherhoods and formal associations as leading to "cliquishness." In his art he was for many years more Pre-Raphaelite than almost any of the Brotherhood, and he remained a Pre-Raphaelite longer than any of them, except Holman Hunt, who has never changed.

Ford Madox Brown was born in Calais in the year 1821, the son of a retired purser of the British Navy, who resided abroad for reasons of economy. He early showed artistic tastes, and began the formal study of painting as a pupil of Gregorius of Bruges at the age of fourteen. In 1838 he became a pupil of Wappers at Antwerp, and it was the knowledge then acquired that gave him prestige, when he went to England, as a technician and as one who "was up in the Belgian School." On just how much technical achievement this reputation was based it is difficult for one to say who has not seen his earlier works. His methods were so revolutionized afterwards that his early training in painting went for nothing. His drawings, in the examples here given us, are almost incredibly feeble in handling. How he learned to paint may be well understood from his own words:

> "Those were the days," he says, "when my respected master, the late Baron Wappers, having been commissioned by his Government to paint the *Belgian Revolution*, had, for speed's sake, two of his pupils, whose duty it was to smear in with their hands, early in the morning, as much asphaltum as he could afterwards cover in with revolutionary heroes during the remainder of the long summer day. . . . These were the days when Wilkie's best works were coated with asphaltum, which has since made fissures all over them; when Hilton's *Sabrina* was so flooded with it that it now has to be hung alternately right side and wrong side upwards to prevent the figures from entirely running to the top or bottom of the picture."

In 1840 Brown went to Paris and spent four or five years there. He went into no school, but worked for and by himself. At this time Delaroche was the recognized head of the French school, and his style seems to have influenced the young Englishman in the choice of subject and general manner of treatment of such pictures as the "Mary Queen of Scots going to Execution," which was painted at this time. There seems to be no evidence that he was influenced by Delacroix and the colorists, or that he ever heard of the great land-

scape school that was then growing up in France from the influence of his countryman, Constable. It seems to have been entirely of his own motion, and without knowing anything of parallel attempts, that he then made his first efforts at realistic lighting, and tried, in his "Manfred," to paint figures in the open air as they would really look. He was not successful, and soon began to "study Rembrandt" and went back to his bitumen. In 1840 he paid his first short visit to England, and met the young lady who became his first wife and who died in 1845. In 1844 there was another short visit to England, and the exhibition at Westminster Hall of his cartoons of "Harold," "Adam and Eve," and the "Spirit of Justice," which seem to have impressed no one but Haydon, who, if a bad artist, was sometimes a good critic. It was the failing health of his wife which led to the voyage to Italy that was the turning-point in Madox Brown's career. Three important things happened during this voyage. First, he saw the Holbeins at Basle, and was deeply impressed by their unshrinking and absolute realism; second, he met in Rome the "Nazarenes," Cornelius and Overbeck, and his attention was drawn to their mediævalizing theories and their use of the term Pre Raphaelite; third, he saw the work of the early Italian painters. The results of these influences were shown almost immediately on his return to England, where, his wife having died in Paris on the way home, he settled in 1845.

The "Chaucer at the Court of Edward III.," begun in Rome, was not finished until 1851, but in 1846 he painted his "Portrait of Mr. Bamford" and in 1876 his "Wickliffe Reading his Translation of the Bible to John of Gaunt." His own account of the portrait may be quoted in full (as given in these pages), as showing better than could anything else the temper in which it was undertaken. The italics would seem to be the artist's own:

> "It is," he says, "the first evidence of an entirely new direction of thought and feeling on my part. . . . To those who value facile completeness and handling above painstaking research into nature, the change must appear inexplicable and provoking. Even to myself, at this distance of time, this *instinctive turning back to get around by another road* seems remarkable. But in reality it was only the inevitable result of the want of principle, or rather confliction of many jarring principles, under which the student had to begin in those days. Wishing to substitute simple imitation for *scenic* effectiveness, and purity of natural color for scholastic depth of tone, I found no better way of doing so than to paint what I called a *Holbein of the nineteenth century*. I might perhaps have done so more effectively, but *stepping backwards* is stumbling work at best."

It would be hard to express more explicitly the essential doctrines of Pre-Raphaelitism than is here done. "Simple imitation" and "purity of natural color" (*i. e.*, crudeness and brightness) were its great aims, and were first formulated by a man who was, to all intents and purposes, a foreigner, newly landed in London, and who knew not Ruskin. The other great mark of the movement, its mediævalizing tendency and the worship of the early Italian painters, is shown with equal clearness in the "Wycliffe." Here we have a composition arranged under a pointed arch, the principal figure bolt upright and squarely facing the spectator in the exact middle of the canvas, and supported by subordinate groups to right and left; a diffused light with no dark shadow anywhere, the figures being relieved against a distant landscape and pale clear sky; closely studied mediæval costume; and heads evidently copied directly from nature. If this is not a Pre-Raphaelite picture, it is certainly very near it, and it was the exhibition of this picture which called out the celebrated letter from Rossetti asking to become Madox's Brown's pupil. It is worth noting in passing that the letter was signed "Gabriel C. Rossetti," Rossetti not having as yet adopted the Dante which afterwards figured in his signature. It was in Madox Brown's studio that Rossetti was set at the accurate copying of still life, which he did not at all like, and it was to Madox Brown that he came, in 1848,

> "laughing, or at least more or less joking, about some discovery of Hunt's. It turned out that they were the reproductions of Orcagna's frescoes at Pisa. . . . I told him it was all nonsense to laugh at them—they were the finest things in the world, and he'd far better go and look at them again; and, of course, he said just what I did after he'd thought about it.
>
> "As to the name Pre-Raphaelite, when they began talking about the early Italian masters, I naturally told them of the German P. R.'s, and either it pleased them or not, I don't know, but they took it."

So was the Brotherhood founded, and the only reason given by Hunt for Brown's never having been formally invited to become a member, besides his age and the unpopularity of his works (!), is "that his works had none of the minute rendering of natural objects that the P. R.'s, as young men, had determined should distinguish their works."

If in the one particular of minuteness of detail Madox Brown was not yet a Pre-Raphaelite when the Brotherhood was founded, he soon became one to the fullest extent; and no more thoroughly Pre-Raphaelite paintings exist than "The Last of England" and "Work." Neither can any clearer insight into Pre-Raphaelite methods be gained than from the perusal of some passages of Madox Brown's diary. His phrase of "stepping backwards" describes Pre-Raphaelite practice perfectly. Pre-Raphaelitism, as practised by its founders and as advocated by Ruskin, was essentially an appeal to the boy or the savage; it was the denial of synthesis, of composition, and of art, and the attempt to produce a literal imitation of nature by exact analysis and by a return to the most primitive of technical methods. Their practice was more important than their theory, and this was to paint each object separately, direct from nature, on a pure white ground, proceeding thus until the last object was finished and the last bit of canvas covered, when the picture was complete. Justness of effect and beauty of tone are impossible by such a manner of working, but a certain glaring brightness of color and a hard glitter of detail are gained. The savage love of bright color and the savage desire for clearly recognizable facts are both satisfied. At the very time when the men of Barbizon were producing their splendidly synthetic and essentially artistic work, the most serious artists of England were struggling with the impossible task of reforming art by reforming it altogether.

On Thursday, the 19th of June, 1856, Madox Brown "came home and debated what I was to do. By Friday night I settled upon two fresh subjects." One of these was afterwards called "Stages of Cruelty," but is generally referred to, for obvious reasons, as "the Lilac Leaves." He had decided upon the picture on Friday night, and this is the account of the first day's work: "Saturday, 21st—After some bother and delays, began by three and worked till eight at the garden one; painted eight bricks and some leaves." Observe that, in this case, there cannot have been even an outline on the canvas. The "eight bricks" were painted all by themselves. A month later (July 19) he has "A great deal of trouble in arranging the leaves at the side of the head, pinning on fresh ones where they are blighted." It is only on the next day that he begins "designing the two lovers." The picture was finally laid aside and not finished till 1891. "The Last of England" was also painted in the open air, and, "when the flesh was being painted, on cold days," "to ensure the blue appearance that flesh assumes under such circumstances." The result on the painter's health was disastrous; that upon the pictures is best given in his grandson's own words:

> "When one stands before the picture ["Work"], it is difficult for the eye to find a point on which to settle. The color, too, is not 'colorist's color,' at least as I understand the words; it is wanting in harmoniousness, disturbing, and what not. One might almost say that both pictures ["Work" and "The Last of England"] had been painted with the then newly discovered aniline dyes."

Such was the true Pre-Raphaelitism of the early fifties, and of its exemplars Holman Hunt is the only survivor, as he was the only one who continued to work in that manner. Millais early deserted to the camp of the Academy. Rossetti, the greatest artist of the band, was never much of a Pre Raphaelite, and his immediate disciples, who constitute what is still called, by an abuse of speech, the Pre-Raphaelite school, are not Pre-Raphaelites at all. With the founding of the "Firm" (Morris, Marshall, Falkner & Co.), the movement changed front entirely, and became an æsthetic movement instead of a realistic one. Madox Brown was here also something of a "precursor," having been in the habit for some years of designing furniture for himself and his friends. He was oneof the founders of the "Firm," and furnished it with many cartoons for stained glass. As a result, after 1865, "his pictures became rather essentially decorative than essentially realist." As a member of the English æsthetic school he is best known, and in that capacity he has been a good deal overshadowed by the greater artistic and poetic feeling of Rossetti and the vastly greater ability of Burne Jones. It may be doubted whether, in the words of his biographer, "this stage of his art was nearly as much his own as was the realistic one." Yet in this later vein he produced such works as "Cordelia's Portion" and "Elijah and the Widow's Son," to name but two, which have great and serious qualities, if also grave defects. First of these qualities are to be ranked fine dramatic feeling and emotional expression. His color is also said to have attained great splendor and depth. His drawing was always tentative and uncertain, and in his effort for dramatic expression he was tolerant of strange awkwardnesses and ungainly attitudes. Another fault was an inexplicable fondness for great bundles of crinkled drapery that destroy all simplicity of mass and dignity of line. His last years were devoted to a series of decorative paintings for the Manchester town hall, which show in their composition all the merits and all the faults of his later manner. Of their effectiveness as decoration one who has not seen them in place has no right to judge.

We may conclude with another citation from Mr. Hueffer's admirably impartial summing up:

> "His work was never suave, never *quite*

complete; but it was vigorous and honest to the end, always instinct with a noble feeling for style, and, within its wide but well-defined limit, as thorough as possible."

JEWISH LIFE IN THE MIDDLE AGES.

Jewish Life in the Middle Ages. By Israel Abrahams, M.A. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THE research involved in this piece of work must have been patient and profound; nevertheless the author presents his results in an attractive manner. Acknowledging his indebtedness to distinguished scholars, he is confident that there are not five in a hundred of his citations (of which there are many hundreds) which he has not verified by reference to the original sources. To the brilliant work of M. Anatole Leroy-Beaulieu, 'Israel among the Nations,' Mr. Abrahams's study brings on special lines much valuable confirmation, but it is very differently conceived from that highly rhetorical yet powerful argument. Mr. Abrahams is in no sense an apologist. He extenuates as little as he sets down in malice. But it is much more difficult to recover from the past a true conception of men's actual life than to recover a true conception of their ideals. Both are reflected in contemporaneous literature, but the latter with much more exactness, for it is proverbial wisdom that we cannot accept the indictments of a Jeremiah or a Juvenal as literal transcripts of the social truth; and with as little confidence can we accept the defensive pleas of sectaries when contrasting the virtues of their own sects with the vices and the crimes of other bodies of believers. It so happens, therefore, that Mr. Abrahams has given us a much less satisfactory account of Jewish life in the Middle Ages than of Jewish aspiration; but he has not made the mistake of confounding the one thing with the other, and by careful check and counter-check has done much to bring us face to face with the realities of an experience that abounds in interesting and significant details.

In one respect he confesses to a personal disappointment: he undertook his task with the impression that Jewish life in the Middle Ages was everywhere more or less similar, and that it would be possible to present a generic image of it. "Deeper research has completely dispelled this belief." We have, consequently, less a survey of Jewish life than of Jewish lives. That Jewish life has worn the same family face since the fifteenth century was the misleading circumstance. But in the correction of Mr. Abrahams's misconception resides the principal value of his book, both for himself and for those who read it. Herein we have abundant confirmation of the idea of M. Leroy-Beaulieu, that the modern Jew is the creation of the Ghetto in the main. But his rhetorical effusion blinded us to the narrow limits within which the Ghetto has done its characteristic work—from the fifteenth to the eighteenth century inclusive. Up to the beginning of this period Judaism had much more freedom and variety than it has had since, much as the last century has done for its expansion, and its history was mainly one of progressive assimilation with its environment, freely exchanging benefits and things socially injurious. Much that has been thought peculiar to the mediæval Jew is shown to have been the common property of the Jews and Christians. It must be confessed that the *ensemble* of mediæval Jewish life is a very pleasing one; joyous and playful to a degree that shames the manners of the present time.

The synagogue was the centre of social life. Any Jew who conceived that he had a grievance against another had a right to interrupt the synagogue service until he had obtained a public promise of redress. Lists of debts discharged were read in the synagogue, and lists of stolen goods. Jews about leaving town gave notice there of their intention, and invited the presentation of pecuniary claims. The gayeties of the synagogue over a wedding were of immense variety, and then, too, the sorrows of individuals were made those of the community. The habits of the synagogue had some curious and many interesting features. It took three centuries of the Ghetto to make the Jews indifferent to dress and cleanliness. It may seem a little matter that a certain rabbi had a bag on the wall near his seat in which he kept a pocket-handkerchief; but this convenient article of dress was generally unknown. Laymen were admitted to participation in the synagogue services, but the right went to the highest bidder. The anti-Semite will find his expectations justified by the public announcement of gifts for charitable or religious purposes, but this custom had the amplest Christian precedent. Boys were considered adults at the end of their 13th year, but long before were admitted to a share in the services; and of boy-orators there were many then as now.

We have a valuable chapter on the communal organization. The burden of taxation fell heavily upon the Jews, and the privileges of the wealthier increased with their responsibilities. It was Christian greed that converted the aristocracy of learning into an aristocracy of wealth, and this not until the close of the seventeenth century. The communal regulations were minute, and every infringement of them had its specific penalty, which the civil arm was sometimes invited to enforce, and sometimes demanded as its right. The Ghetto had its beginnings in the communal organization. As early as the thirteenth century there were voluntary aggregations in certain parts of the great towns and cities; but these were not rigid in their inclusions, and what was dangerous as a voluntary distinction became monstrous as a compulsory imprisonment. Sometimes a protection from the mob, the Ghetto was oftener a defenceless pen. The houses in the ghettos were often owned by Christians who charged exorbitant rents. "There is a curious subcurrent of evidence that the Jews were less exacting in their usurious demands than were others who carried on similar trades." We find them constantly employed in offices of financial trust because of their reputed honesty. Their gravitation to money-lending as their most characteristic occupation was not a voluntary one. They took kindly to handicrafts and agriculture, much preferring skilled labor, not as lighter but as more intellectual; but the restrictive policy of the Church cut them off from one occupation and trade after another, and made money-lending a necessity of their situation, if they had any to lend. Thomas Wilson's famous 'Discourse upon Usury' (1572) is quoted as charging Englishmen with being worse than Jews in their exactions. The former were content with five and ten per cent., "whereas englishe usurers exceed all goddes mercye, & will take they care not howe muche."

The chapters upon courtship, marriage, and divorce are among the most valuable and entertaining. Child-marriage was the rule by the thirteenth century, most girls being married before the conclusion of their legal minority, which ended with their twelfth year. The motives were in part pruriently ethical and in part mystical: any Jewish girl might be the mother of the expected Messiah. After making the engagement of marriage, the parties saw little or nothing of each other until the time for its consummation, the lover sometimes binding himself by written agreement to abstain wholly from the girl's society. The *Shadchan* was a professional match-maker with a legal status, and did a thriving business. Child-marriage did much to increase the frequency of divorce, while the prior engagement frequently broke down. The travelling habit was a potent cause of marital instability. The absentee husband dared not count upon his wife's fidelity or his own, and often on his departure gave the wife a conditional divorce, to take effect if he did not reappear at a stipulated time. There were also "imperfect divorces," designed to protect the wife from rapacious imposition during her husband's absence. The compulsory marriage of rabbis made marriage an ideal state, and furnished it with many beautiful examples. It was the *Chazan*, the synagogue precentor, who was expected to be frail, and too often justified the expectation.

"Monogamy was the result, and not the cause, of an idealized conception of family relations." Jewish life had already at the beginning of the Christian era outgrown polygamy, while there was no formal prohibition of it in the Old Testament, as there is not in the New. The idea that Jewish life followed the Christian example in this particular is without any real warrant. What is true is, that the Jews in Spain followed a polygamous Mohammedan example to some extent, and, always sensitive to their environment, reverted quickly to monogamy in monogamous societies, Jewish or Christian. Jews and Christians were much on the same level during the first eight or nine centuries of the Christian era. "The language of several popes was by no means sternly monogamous." Polygamy, or at least bigamy, was permitted on what seemed to be sufficient grounds. The religious duty of begetting children made such concessions easier for the Jew, but after the tenth century they had no legal force. The same ends were reached by making the business of divorce more expeditious and widening the range of its permission. In the account of marriage customs the student of survivals will find many things he will appreciate, and the student of manners many charming amenities in the relations of young and old, parents and children, man and wife. There is much here to rebuke the conceit of universal progress, and to shame the indignities and disabilities which have reduced the Jew so far below his best estate.

There is a painful chapter on "the Jewish badge." This badge was but the worst of many distinctive forms of dress enforced upon the Jew. It made of him a pariah, the mark of every insult that malignant hatred could devise. It was the invention of Innocent III. (1215), and gives to the irony of his official name its keenest edge. In pleasing contrast with the treatment to which the Jews were themselves subjected was their treatment of dumb animals. This had its sentimental side, as in the Old Testament, where a kid may not be seethed in its mother's milk. To wish that a man might outlast his shoes was not permitted, because a new pair involved the destruction of animal life. Out of a count-

less multitude of details in Mr. Abrahams's book one knows not which to choose. But the general drift is unmistakable: it is to the persuasion that the modern Jew is to a very great extent the creation of Christian narrowness and cruelty, and to the hope and trust that, in proportion as these are outgrown, the Jew will assume his true place in the economy of nations—a place of which he will not be ashamed.

Letters to Young Shooters (Third Series). Comprising a Short Natural History of British Wildfowl, and Complete Directions in [*sic*] Shooting Wildfowl on the Coast and Inland. By Sir Ralph Payne Gallwey, Bart. With 200 illustrations by Mr. C. Whymper, Mr. J. G. Millais, Mr. De Bree, and the author. New York: Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Crown 8vo, pp. xxx, 630.

THE distinction drawn by English sportsmen between "game-birds" and "wildfowl" is one which Americans do not make between those gallinaceous species ordinarily shot for pleasure or profit and those aquatic species pursued for the same reasons. Thus, the well-known and authoritative writer of the present third series of 'Letters' (*i. e.*, chapters in each of three books) dealt in the first place with the choice and use of the gun; in the second, with the preservation and destruction of "game," as pheasants, partridges, and their allies; he now comes to treat of "wildfowl" and of fowling, in which, as in the other branches of sport, he proves himself to be a past master of his craft—the ungentle art of destroying birds with neatness, dispatch, and certainty. We are struck by his extraordinary patience and precision in the minutiæ of the subject he handles at such great length and in such extreme detail, after personal experiences probably unsurpassed in every respect. He also writes with a full heart, and out of its abundance comes everything he can possibly give us to put us in the way of sharing his own pleasurable success in fowling. For example, in the latter part of the book, where he tells us how to make the ideally best punt, the directions are so minute, so precise, and so clear, text and figures alike, that we have no doubt of what he puts in small capitals at the end of this lesson in boat-building: "Any amateur or professional boat-builder who is unable to construct a first-class gunning-punt by following these simple directions, is deficient in brains or in ordinary manual dexterity" (p. 527). It is the same with the management of the big death-dealer—the stanchion-gun, weighing from 80 to 170 pounds, throwing from ¾ to 1¾ pounds of shot, with a charge of powder up to 5½ ounces. We have this formidable armament at full length—not only with "lock, stock, and barrel," as usual, but with all the other fixtures requisite either for its deadly work on wildfowl or against something of the same sort for the fowler. That there is danger from the butt as well as the muzzle of such a weapon appears from the impressiveness with which the author insists that the breeching-rope shall be secure, and recommends an additional safeguard in terms of a grim humor. Thus, supposing the breeching to part, and no safety-rope to have been provided: "When . . . you have rearranged, as best you can, your battered features, mopped the blood from your face, and, if your eyes are not closed up, picked off the floor of the punt those of your teeth that were not knocked down your throat or overboard, you will perhaps be ready to admit, when too late, that a safety-fastening to your stanchion-gun would have been an advantage" (p. 549). We note further in this connection that the author expresses his decided preference for the good old-fashioned muzzle-loader, though of course the shoulder-gun he carries is a modern breech-loader.

Everything about the management of the punt and the big gun, single-handed or with a puntsman, all the methods of stalking wildfowl, by day or night, in all weathers, seasons, and sorts of places, are set forth in this book with the utmost particularity—not without some repetition, some insistence upon details that seem too obvious or too trivial to be dwelt upon at such length, but all tending to the fowler's success in his varied, his arduous, his often perilous pursuit. The spirit of the whole is contagious; we catch it, and in imagination follow Sir Ralph with something of his own enthusiasm, albeit tastes differ, and we confess that we would rather go with him in this book than be in the same boat with him! Here we are in no danger of being swept out to sea, and take none of the risks which would have cost him his life "a dozen times over" but for the very precautions he urges upon all in this volume, where the worst we have to face is our genial sportsman's sad abuse of small capitals and italics. The text is simply riddled—"killed twice over," as he says of some of his ducks that get more than their share of shot—with pellets like this:

"One of the *first* matters to consider under the title of this letter is *safety*. It robs stanchion-gunning of *all* its charm if you are continually wondering *how* you will contrive to reach home *if* the water becomes rough *or* an adverse wind should blow" (p. 580).

Or this again, for a random shot at passages the like of which for single and double underscoring occur on almost every page:

"INSTANT DECISION is essential *when* the *fowler is* in killing range, for, without a *moment's hesitation*, he will have to *make up his mind how and where* to place the shot-charge among the birds so as to bag the *largest possible* number" (p. 599).

It is clear from these cases that the pen in some hands may have terrors as well as the gun; but we are prepared to brave them all, after our dismay, and have no further criticism to pass upon the otherwise altogether admirable book. Its main body, upon which we have not yet touched, is devoted to the systematic natural history of British wildfowl, from the fowler's standpoint. The brent and certain other geese, the widgeon and a certain few other ducks, are the main objects of his pursuit; but all the *Anatidæ*, all the *Limicolæ*, and other water birds are passed in orderly review, with sufficient technical description for their identification, and excellent accounts of their respective habits. The most practised closet-ornithologist may profitably turn to these pages for information in some cases. The author knows what he writes about, and handles the subject with great precision. He has made one of the best "practical" treatises on ornithology we have read for a long time, and we know where else to to look for Latin names or taxonomic niceties which would be out of place here.

The illustrations are all we should expect from the names of the artists who have contributed to the beauty and interest of the author's work. The fine portraits of the birds themselves are to the life, and the full-page plates of sporting scenes illuminate the text. The finest one of them, to our eye, represents the fowler on the ooze, alongside his punt, amidst his battue of dead ducks, with his hat in his hand to "another sportsman on the scene"—a peregrine falcon soaring overhead—and saying, "Take one and welcome, you splendid fellow!" Another telling composition is the "Blown out to Sea," when the fowler and his punter are just about to throw the big gun overboard to keep from being swamped or capsized in the surf. But were we to particularize concerning the animated scenes and portraits, we should hardly stop short of the whole series, and should have to include even the humbler woodcuts which show everything about the punt and the gun, drawn to scale with an accuracy that accounts for every fraction of the inch. Such excellence of text and illustrations as we attest throws the literary infelicities we have criticised back to the vanishing-point, like a gaggle of geese in the gray of the morning after a miss-fire. The author misses no shots in the book, but brings his game to bag in his own gallant way; and success in writing of fowling, as in fowling itself, is the best criterion of means to that end.

Elements of Psychology. By G. Croom Robertson. Edited by C. A. Foley Rhys-Davids. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

An Outline of Psychology. By Edward Bradford Titchener. Macmillan. 1896.

IT is not altogether easy to determine whether the abundance of psychologies issued in recent years is due more to the rapid progress of that science, to the expectations which the public has been induced to entertain about it, or to the differences of opinion prevailing among its professors and stimulating each to have his say upon the subject. At any rate, we have here two more text-books of psychology which are neither of them devoid of pedagogic value. The volume bearing the name of the late Prof. Robertson is indeed nothing but a compilation from notes of his lectures preserved by his pupils at the University College, London, edited with discipular piety by one of them, Mrs. Rhys-Davids, and betrays its origin in its form and every phrase. It is abrupt in literary statement, cautiously empirical in standpoint, and, as its plentiful references to Spencer, Bain, Sully, and Höffding show, hardly intended for independent use as a text-book. A fastidious critic might on principle object to it that lecture notes do not become a book by the fact of publication, and that it is a doubtful service to the departed to fling upon the world posthumously what they did not choose to publish in their lifetime.

Prof. Titchener's book stands on an entirely different footing. It is the work of a young man still actively engaged in teaching, and forms a methodical and carefully arranged statement of his present views. These are well brought out by a manner of writing which, in spite of a certain fondness for technical terms, is preëminently clear and direct. We note several points of interest about his treatment of mental phenomena. (1.) His psychology is essentially experimental, and he tells us that he has not described any experiment which he has not himself performed. (2.) It confines itself to the consideration of the adult normal human mind, and excludes on principle all reference to genetic methods, to infant, animal, abnormal, and social psychology. The very sufficient reason Prof. Titchener gives for this procedure is that these studies have not yet reached the level of science, and his adhesion to the course laid down is not substantially impaired by his selecting an occasional

illustration from the tabooed branches of psychological inquiry. (3.) He brings psychology into the closest possible relation to physiology. To be experimental, he says, psychology must employ the method of introspection under experimental conditions—that is, adapt the methods and machinery of the natural sciences. As a matter of fact, the science whose language he adopts, and to whose authority he appeals, is almost exclusively physiology. Sometimes, indeed, he seems to jump at the physiological where explanation in purely psychological terms seems quite attainable, and to carry his deference to physiology further than is necessary or warranted, as, *e. g.*, when (p, 342) he states it to be simply a *fact* that there is "no psychosis without neurosis." That is doubtless a highly probable and convenient theory to work with, but, as a sheer statement of established fact, we prefer Prof. Robertson's diagram (p. 43), and his view of the *inferential* character of the particular physical processes that are asserted to correspond to many familiar mental processes.

(4.) As might have been expected from a translator and pupil of Wundt's, Prof. Titchener is strong on the "elementary" processes of consciousness. But, like Münsterberg and Külpe, he has reduced the master's *three* to two by the rejection of any special volitional process shown in effort, attention, voluntary movement, choice, self-consciousness, etc. This is interesting as showing how inevitably Wundt's naturalistic method tends to destroy the conceptions linking psychology to the higher philosophic sciences, in spite of his own struggle to retain them. Prof. Titchener allows us to be under no illusion on this point. He has no use for will in psychology, and interprets all such processes in terms of physiology. Thus, the explanation, *e. g.*, of the differences of mental constitution, of the retention of past experiences in memory, of the owning of mental processes by the individual "self," etc., is in each case frankly found in the existence of the bodily organism.

It is true (5) that the book concludes with a short chapter on the philosophy of mind, touching upon the further questions which, according to Prof. Titchener, lie beyond the science of psychology, relegates them to metaphysics, and quotes with apparent approval some of Lotze's remarks on the unity of mind. But after so thoroughgoing an admission of physiological explanations, after so unhesitating an acceptance of the metaphorical descriptions of bodily motions found in physiology as "nerve-currents," "cell explosions," "transfers of energy," and what not, it is not easy to see what there is left in psychology to demand further treatment in metaphysics. Nor is a metaphysical reinterpretation facilitated by the very definite way in which Prof. Titchener has set psychology on the side of the lower sciences over against the higher, such as logic and ethics. It is to be hoped that he will see his way to be more explicit in a subsequent edition, and show us, *e. g.*, how he would conceive of metaphysics as reëstablishing the unity of the mind which has been so ignominiously expelled from psychology.

After thus drawing attention to the main characteristics of Prof. Titchener's standpoint, we may conclude by congratulating him on producing, within the limits indicated, an interesting presentment of his subject, the use of which as a text-book is rendered easy by an excellent index.

The Bay Colony: A Civil, Religious and Social History of the Massachusetts Colony 1624–1650. By William Dummer Northend, LL.D. Boston: Estes & Lauriat. 1896.

Samuell Gorton: A Forgotten Founder of Our Liberties, First Settler of Warwick, R. I. By Lewis G. Janes. Providence: Preston & Rounds. 1896.

THE frontispiece portrait of John Winthrop in Mr. Northend's volume, and the termination of the narrative with Winthrop's death, harmonize with the liberal reliance upon this worthy's Journal by the present historian. Nearly forty per cent. of Mr. Northend's references are to this source, and his point of view may be said to be substantially that of Winthrop. Textual citations from this authority are correspondingly numerous. While welcome in themselves, they often stand in need of such a gloss as the Rhode Islanders, for example, have been supplying for the past two centuries, and Mr. Janes the latest, in the work bracketed with Mr. Northend's above. Orderly and interesting as is this succinct chronicle of the Bay Colony, it falls short of suggesting to the unlearned reader the vast contention which has raged over the subjects of some of the chapters, as, Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson, and Samuel Gorton. One coming fresh from Bodge's 'History of King Philip's War,' also, might feel a certain softening in the picture of the treatment of the Indians. Nevertheless, while Mr. Northend manifestly reverences the Puritan founders and their foundation, he is not a professional apologist. In this respect he compares favorably with Palfrey, the first volume of whose Abridgment parallels his own undertaking, and cannot be said to be more readable, more perspicuous, or more just.

We must refrain from episodical comment on this presentation of the ever-memorable struggle of theocratic government, on the one hand against interference by the Crown, on the other against the disrupting tendencies of immigration and the natural enlargement of the human spirit. The seeds of revolution and separation are clearly discernible in the one phase of the colony's experience during the quarter-century under review; the futility of the cut-and-dried in civil, religious, and social arrangements equally shines forth in the other. We prefer to direct attention to Mr. Northend's chapter xiv. on the dispute between the Assistants and the Deputies for its bearing on the present *reductio ad absurdum* of representative government in this country since the power of nomination has been taken away from the people. As early as 1640 in the Bay Colony an endeavor was made to secure such nomination of the magistrates (*i. e.*, Governor, Deputy-Governor, and Assistants) in town meeting. The deputies to the General Court elected at these meetings were thereupon to "call for nominations for magistrates, record the names of those nominated and the number of votes for each, and make return of the same to the next General Court." This body was to count the votes and report the highest back to the electors, who might on election day vote pro or con, but for no other nominees. In 1642 a nominating convention, meeting at Salem and composed of delegates from the several towns, was proposed, the names thus certified to the Secretary of the Colony being alone eligible. In 1643 reversion was made to the plan of 1640, "with some explanation." In 1644 the machinery was: nomination in town meeting, sealing of the votes and confiding them to a committee to meet similar committees at the shire-town of the county, counting of them, and report of the highest, who alone could be voted for or against. This system was doomed to disappear with the growth of population, and no proposal to restore to the people its ancient and salutary right has ever obtained a foothold among us, who are now but the veriest slaves of the Machine.

Mr. Janes does not add much to our knowledge of Gorton (who is anything but "forgotten"), but he makes plain the peculiar views of this uncomfortable neighbor to the Bay, touching the power of colonists to organize themselves without a charter and to abrogate the body of English liberties. Gorton

"held that, as subjects of Great Britain, the colonial governments should conform in their legislation and judicial action to the principle of English common and statute law. If chartered, they were bound to do this by the terms of their charters. If not chartered, each individual had the right to claim the protection of English law, and any denial thereof was a usurpation of authority. This was the head and front of his alleged anarchism."

His disorganizing religious views also are exhibited by the aid of an unpublished voluminous commentary on the Lord's Prayer. They resembled those of the Quakers in respect to prophecy, inspiration, and outward ordinances, without, however, accepting the "inner light" or the non-resistant attitude towards government. His idea of Jesus would be called Unitarian. "With Theodore Parker, he taught that the divine nature is both masculine and feminine; and, in one of the most striking and eloquent passages in his Commentary on the Lord's Prayer, he argues for the equal recognition of woman in the Church and as a teacher of religion."

Gorton, like Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson, Mary Dyer, Randall Holden, and Obadiah Holmes, has left a large and vigorous posterity, and will, we may be sure, never lack a vindicator.

Modern French Literature. By Benjamin W. Wells, Ph.D. (Harv.). Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1896.

THE first three chapters of this work, introductory to the historical scheme of the sequel, contribute so little to the purpose of the volume that they might well have been condensed into an opening sketch, instead of taking up one hundred and eighteen pages. The remaining chapters are devoted to the literature of this century from Mme. de Staël to our own day, passing in review the productions of France in poetry, the drama, criticism, and prose fiction, with detailed treatment of the Romantic and Naturalistic movements. Neither the author's ample prefatory acknowledgment of indebtedness, nor his declaration that he has himself verified the validity of opinions freely adopted, can quite make up for want of originality in leading conclusions, so that the work may be described, not unfairly, as a clear summary of French judgments on French literature set forth to English readers. Chapter ix., for example ("The Evolution of Lyric Poetry"), already published as a separate essay, discloses the authority of Brunetière; while others pay recognizable tribute to such well-known leaders as Faguet or Lanson, even without the voucher of footnotes. Perhaps because of this deference to French authority, Dr. Wells seems to lack warmth in commending, and shows to better advantage in estimating critical, rather than creative, work. To judge of this, the reader has but to contrast the excel-

lent chapter (viii.) on the "Evolution of History and Criticism" with the mere list of epithets and rhetorical interrogations on the subject of Hugo's 'Les Châtiments.' And probably also out of deference to French opinion the works of Verlaine, the Décadents, and the Symbolistes are discussed as serious contributions to the poetry of the nineteenth century. We may note that this modesty has had the minor effect of fairly spangling many pages with uninviting quotation marks.

In spite of wide and generally careful reading, Dr. Wells's principles of discrimination are not invariably clear. If Gustave Planche, Jules Janin, and Paul de Saint-Victor are to be omitted from the list of critics as "not standing for something," why need notice be taken of the "ephemerally popular" contemporary, Jules Lemaître? Any account of French Romanticism may well be expected to mention the name of Mürger, but it is wanting, as, among contemporary poets and novelists, we miss Catulle Mendès, who is at least as earnest in his artistic aims as Joris Karl Huysmans, and who writes undeniably better French. Some of these omissions may no doubt be explicable on the ground of a too great attachment to the literature of the moment. Dr. Wells has rendered service to reader or student in his examinations of Hugo, Flaubert, and Zola; his treatment of Hugo is especially exhaustive and accurate in its conclusions as to the total worth of this author's work.

More careful revision would remove several errors of detail, of which we note the following: Frédéric et *Bernadette*, Ragabas, Forte comme la Mort, La Duchesse de Langleais, Méta Holdennis. The opportunity of a new edition might also be seized by Dr. Wells for checking his taste for irrelevant and confused comparisons, the appended specimens of which have not been unfairly picked: "Madame de Staël used to sit at her mother's feet, and drink in the strong drink of the debates and discussions around her, storing up silently, like a busy bee, material," etc. (p. 120). "While his [Lamartine's] verses flow as naturally as the gentle rain from heaven, their ethereal mushiness drowns the germs of healthy realistic action" (p. 161). "The Mephistophelian spirit that enamels our overstrained consciences with its sceptical Pyrrhonism, mocks at duty and virtue, and answers every noble aspiration with a sneer" (p. 366). "Little more than the echo, sometimes the distorted echo, of such nebulous thinkers," etc. (p. 402). Such lapses as those just noticed provoke and justify Paul Louis Courier's petulant exclamation, "Dieu, délivre-nous du malin et du langage figuré!"

The Story of Canada. [The Story of the Nations.] By J. G. Bourinot, C.M.G., LL.D., D.C.L. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

THE editor of the "Story of the Nations" series had a stroke of good fortune when he enlisted Dr. Bourinot, whose volume on Canada takes rank above most of its fellows in the set. Written by one who has enjoyed every facility for informing himself, it represents the reading of many years compressed into popular form. The author claims "always to have consulted original authorities," and his statement is borne out upon every page. He begins with Leif Ericson, and alludes to the general elections of last June, so that he pretty well covers the ground. His first interests are constitutional, and he has made the department of parliamentary procedure his own. Nevertheless, he resists the temptation of filling his chapters with politics, and writes in the easy, agreeable strain expected of him on the present occasion. We advise summer tourists when starting for Quebec or the Maritime Provinces to add this historical sketch to 'Their Wedding Journey,' 'Baddeck and That Sort of Thing,' and 'The Seats of the Mighty.' The illustrations are particularly good. We have rarely seen a more suitable selection in a book of the kind. Many of the cuts are taken from inaccessible works, and the choice has been judiciously made with a view to explaining the text.

The unwary reader might suppose from Dr. Bourinot's surname that he was of French Canadian extraction and that he would be tempted to portray events from the French standpoint. This is not the case. He is a Jerseyman by origin, and has always been a Britisher of strong imperial leanings. The most picturesque part of Canadian annals lies before the cession, and Dr. Bourinot only follows universal precedent when he gives the bulk of his space to the period between Cartier and Montcalm. As might be expected from the fact that the author was born in Cape Breton, the Acadian and Louisburg chapters are done with special care. The volume concludes with an entertaining excursus on the French Canada of to-day and the manners of its inhabitants.

We fear that Dr. Bourinot has somewhat idealized Jacques Bonhomme, both in his private and public relations. "The temperate habits of the French Canadian make them [*sic*] necessarily valuable employees in mills and manufactories of all kinds. Indeed, they prefer this life to that of the farm, and until very recently there was a steady exodus of this class to the manufacturing towns of Lowell, Holyoke, and other places in New England." We imagine, on the contrary, that the French Canadian's willingness to work for a small wage has appealed to the mill-owners of this country quite as much as his indifference to *whiskey blanc*. Again, apropos of the typical village which one finds in the basin of the Lower St. Lawrence: "Whitewash is freely used inside and outside, and there is on the whole an air of cleanliness and comfort in the humblest cottage." We can vouch for the whitewash, but the cleanliness is a beautiful illusion of the sympathetic historian. How can twelve people snowed up for five months in a house of four rooms keep clean? As for the summer, if Dr. Bourinot is fond of fishing, let him explore the country through which the Labelle branch of the Canadian Pacific Railway runs. A few nights in the best hotels of that region will tend to modify the view he now holds of French Canadian cleanliness and comfort.

We leave outside this notice such weighty constitutional questions as the Quebec Act and the founding of the Dominion, for the sake of according brief praise to Dr. Bourinot's account of the three domestic disturbances which have arisen in Canada since 1815—the "Papineau War" and the two risings instigated by Louis Riel. A statement of Lord Durham in 1839 shows the significance of the first of these: "I found two nations warring in the bosom of a single state; I found, not a struggle of principles, but of races." Dr. Bourinot describes the conflict with spirit, castigating Sir Francis Head as he deserves. The Riel rebellions are treated with eminent fairness. Since the last one was repressed, the life and property of settlers in the northwest territories have been as secure as they would be in Ontario or Quebec. The Mounted Police deserve to stand beside the Spanish Civil Guard.

We can heartily commend this book to all who are on the watch for a concise and readable outline of Canadian history.

A Record of the Buddhist Religion as Practised in India and the Malay Archipelago (A. D. 671-695). By I-Tsing. Translated by J. Takakusu. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

CONTEMPORARY accounts by foreigners are of interest and value in contributing to our knowledge of a country or of a people, whether the time be ancient or be modern. Special importance may be attached to such accounts when the writer is a trustworthy observer and his subject one upon which we need information. This is true of the record which a Chinese traveller of the seventh century, one I-Tsing, himself a Buddhist, has preserved of his visit and long stay in India more than twelve hundred years ago. I-Tsing is the third of the famous Chinese pilgrims that journeyed to the holy land of the Buddhists. Fā-hien had been the pioneer in these sacred pilgrimages two centuries before him; and I-Tsing's contemporary, the Celestial Hiuen Thsang, had returned from the shrine of the Enlightened and died but a few years before I-Tsing started for India's shores. Born A. D. 635, an ardent student of the Sacred Canon of the Buddha, a member of the Holy Buddhist Order, I-Tsing was thirty-seven years old when he found himself at last able to carry out his cherished plan of visiting Hindustan. For more than a quarter of a century he remained abroad, most of which time he spent in India. This faithful pilgrim brought back to China a large number of Buddhist texts and spent several years in translating these religious volumes into his native tongue.

The present Record of Buddhist Practices, or 'Nan-hai chi-kuei-nai-fa-ch'uan' (a record of the inner law sent home from the southern sea), he composed while in Sumatra (A. D. 690–692). In it he dwells chiefly on the monastic life and discipline of his time, as his object was to correct certain erroneous practices, or misrepresentations of Buddhistic rules, that had crept into China. The chapters are necessarily of great interest to students of the Vinaya texts; but, more than that, they contain much that the general reader, or the curious, will peruse with no small pleasure. The Sanskrit scholar will find abundant material for careful study in pages 152–185, where I-Tsing enters upon literary and linguistic matters with reference to Sanskrit. The material thus furnished by the Chinese pilgrim was known, indeed, before; but it was not, until now, so accessible as the present translation makes it. Incidental allusions by I Tsing render important service in fixing dates in the desert region of Hindu literary chronology. Passing mention, for example (p. 178–180), of Bhartrihari, and the sentence "It is now forty years since his death," enable us to say with comparative certainty that this Sanskrit writer of proverbial philosophy passed away about A. D. 651.

The importance of the work may be judged from the long letter with which Max Müller introduces the book. The translation of I-Tsing had been begun some years ago by Kasawara, one of Max Müller's Japanese Buddhist pupils. After this young man's untimely death, the present translator took up the task anew, and it seems he has completed it in a thorough

manner, availing himself of the various contributions to the subject by French, English, and Japanese scholars. He has prefaced the volume with an elaborate and useful general introduction. A map is added, tracing I Tsing's travels. The book is timely and is welcome.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Austin, L. F. At Random: Essays and Stories. Ward, Lock & Co. $1 25.
Baldwin, James. A Guide to Systematic Readings in the Encyclopædia Britannica. New and revised ed. Chicago The Werner Co.
Barnes, Prof. C. R. Analytic Key to the Genera and Species of North American Mosses. Madison, Wis.: University of Wisconsin. $1.
Bosanquet, Mrs. Bernard. Rich and Poor. Macmillan. $1.50.
Di Brazza Countess. An American Idyll. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.50.
Brett, R. B. The Yoke of Empire: Sketches of the Queen's Prime Ministers. Macmillan. $1.75
Bryan, W. J. The First Battle. Chicago: W. B. Conkey Co.
Codman, John. An American Transport in the Crimean war. New York: Bonnell, Silver & Co. 75c.
Cooper, C. A. An Editor's Retrospect: Fifty Years of Newspaper Work. Macmillan. $4.
Crosby, W. E. Our Little Book for Little Folks. American Book Co. 30c.
Daudet, Alphonse. Le Trésor d' Arlatan. Paris: Charpentier; New York: F. W. Christern.
Dejob, Charles. Études sur la Tragédie. Paris: Colin & Cie.
D'Ooge, B. L. Easy Latin for Sight Reading. Boston: Ginn & Co. 45c.
Emerson, P. H. Caóba, the Guerilla Chief: A Real Romance of the Cuban Rebellion. London: David Nutt.
Fawcett, Edgar. Life's Fitful Fever. P. F. Collier. 25c.
Gaines, A. G. Sound Money. Canton, N. Y.: *Plaindealer* Press.
Garden and Forest. 1896. Vol. IX. *Garden and Forest* Publishing Co.
Goss, C. F. The Optimist. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.25.
Graham, P. A. The Red Scaur: A Novel of Manners. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Guerber, H. A. The Story of the Chosen People. American Book Co. 60c.
Hamlin, A. C. The History of Mount Mica of Maine, U. S. A. Bangor, Me.: The Author.
Heaton, J. L. The Book of Lies. New York: The Morse Co.
In Excelsis: Hymns with Tunes for Christian Worship. Century Co. $1.75.
Kellogg Prof. D. O New American Supplement to the Latest Edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. I. A-Byz. Chicago: The Werner Co.
Lynch, Michael. In the Promised Land, and Other Poems Boston: Charles O'Farrell.
MacMechan, Prof. Archibald. Carlyle's Sartor Resartus. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1 40.
Nicoll, W. R., and Wise, T. J. Literary Anecdotes of the Nineteenth Century. Vol. II. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Palmer, C. F. Inebriety: Its Source, Prevention and Cure. F. H Revell Co. 50c
Rutherford, Mildred. Mannie Brown and Edward Kennedy. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.
Sanford, Rev A. B. Methodist Year-Book. 1897. Eaton & Mains.
Scott, Prof. F. N., and Denney, Prof. J. V. Composition Rhetoric. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.
Steel, Mrs. Flora A. On the Face of the Waters: A Tale of the Mutiny. Macmillan. $1.50.
Stisted, Georgiana M. The True Life of Capt. Sir Richard F. Burton. London: H. S. Nichol; New York: D Appleton & Co.
Thwaites, R. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents Vol. III. Acadia: 1611-1616. Cleveland: The Burrows Bros. Co. $3 50.
Wileman, J P. Brazilian Exchange: The Study of an Inconvertible Currency. Buenos Ayres: Galli Bros; London: Effingham Wilson.

HENRY HOLT & CO., *29 W. 23d St., New York,*

HAVE JUST PUBLISHED

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 18, 1897.

The Week.

SENATOR MORGAN withdrew his Nicaragua Canal bill on Wednesday of last week in a spirit of frenzy the like of which has seldom been witnessed outside of Bedlam. He stormed against Great Britain, against Nicaragua, and against Senator Sherman by turns, and declared that although the bill was defeated for the present, he should introduce it again at the beginning of the extra session and do all in his power to pass it. While flouting the incoming Administration in the person of its Secretary of State, he invoked the aid of the President-elect to help him along with his plan to force a canal upon Nicaragua without her consent. This is the first time in the history of the world, we believe, in which the proposal has been seriously made by one country to build a canal in another country without a charter and against the written protest of the latter country. It is the first time, also, that it has been proposed to extort permission for the expenditure of money in a foreign country by abusive and threatening language. Of course this is not the last of the Nicaragua Canal, but it must be the last of this bill unless the whole Senate and Government of the United States have gone crazy.

The debate in the Senate on this bill has been exceedingly wholesome. The speeches of Senators Turpie, Vilas, Daniel, and Caffery were extremely able and thorough. It is to be regretted that all the labor of defeating the bill was thrown upon Democrats, and all the consequent credit reaped by them. The reason why no Republican Senator took part in this work is not easy to understand. Although Senator Sherman did favor the abandonment of the bill because it could not pass, he said that he should vote for it "in any shape in which it was likely to be presented." Senator Hale expressed himself decidedly against it, and rebuked Morgan for his unmannerly and intemperate language towards Nicaragua and towards Great Britain, but he made no set speech against the bill. The division in the Senate seemed to be principally between those who wanted to consider the Clayton-Bulwer treaty obsolete and those who did not—between those who desired a canal for purposes of peaceful commerce, and those who desired it for purposes of irritation and discord, or were willing at all events to go with those who wanted to stir up discord by means of it.

The vote in the Senate, on Monday, on Mr. Morgan's motion to take up his resolution abrogating the Clayton-Bulwer treaty throws light on the policy and plans of the opposition to the McKinley Administration. This opposition consists of all the factions that united in support of Bryan in the last election. Their policy is to be that of obstruction. Only fifteen working days of the session are left. The large appropriations have not passed. The Bankruptcy bill, the Pacific Railroad bill, the Loud bill, and other measures deemed important by large interests throughout the country are awaiting action. The calendar is overcrowded and the Senate is rushing toward the 4th of March with every prospect of a hopeless gorge. At this juncture Mr. Morgan solemnly offers a resolution on an abstract question; for, however pertinent it might be at other times, it is irrelevant after the withdrawal of the Nicaragua Canal bill. Of course such a motion is intended to consume time, and on a test vote the Senate sides with Morgan, and takes up this irrelevant resolution to the prejudice of all other business, including the Arbitration treaty. Some Senators who are known to favor the ratification of the Arbitration treaty voted with Morgan, and, therefore, the vote cannot be considered a test as regards that measure; but it points to the carrying of the treaty over the present session, which will perhaps not be the worst thing that could happen. It also points most clearly to the policy of obstruction and deadlock, and it goes far beyond the matter of the Arbitration treaty. The theory of the silverites of all grades and belongings is that, if hard times continue, they will be able to carry the elections of 1898 and 1900. McKinley is pledged to restore prosperity. If for any reason he does not do this, he and his party will be bowled out—so the Bryanites think. Even though their own obstruction to public business is the cause of the trouble, the penalty will be visited upon the party in power, since the people look only to results and do not concern themselves much with details and processes.

There are encouraging signs of a determination among the Republicans in the House to suppress the international monetary-conference scheme which Bill Chandler, with the help of Chairman Jones of the Democratic national committee, recently carried through the Senate. Two New England Representatives took occasion last week to announce themselves for the maintenance of the gold standard and against any more compromises with the silverites. Mr. Knox of Massachusetts declared that the country is upon a gold basis, that it will doubtless continue on that basis, and that it will not initiate an international bimetallic conference. Mr. Hill of Connecticut was even more emphatic in the recent meeting of the House coinage committee. He declared plainly that the Senate proposition is an attempt to bring about the things which the Republican party voted down at the last election—the free coinage of silver and a double standard of value; that the proposition is thrust upon the incoming President by a Senator who bitterly and virulently opposed his nomination; that Mr. Chandler had been sustained and seconded by the chairman of the national Democratic committee; and that no obligation to take such action rested upon the Republican party by reason of any deliverance at St. Louis, because "the stilted phrases of a platform dictated by half-mature thought in June should be read in the blazing light of the November victory." Another Republican member of the committee, Mr. Brewster of this State, characterized the pending bill as "a trap by the enemy to put the next President in a hole." These Republican protestants against the bimetallic folly in Congress find warm support in the press of their party.

There was a suggestive debate in the House last Saturday on the sundry civil appropriation bill. It was begun by Mr. Cannon, who called attention to the fact that, although the bill appropriated $8,000,000 less than the estimates, it carried $17,500,000 more than the same bill of last year. The reason for this is that the monstrous river-and-harbor bill of last year, which the President vetoed and which Congress passed over his veto, provided for contracts for work running over a period of four years, and made certain yearly appropriations necessary. It was not discretionary to withhold the money. It was a very temperate observation on Mr. Cannon's part that, if he could have had his way, he would have waited for an increase of revenue before committing the Government to so large an increase of expenditures; "but," he added, "Congress thought differently." After some discussion on the items of the bill, the debate drifted to the question whether the deficiency of revenue was due to the McKinley tariff or to the Wilson tariff, and Mr. McMillin of Tennessee improved the occasion to give figures showing the progressive decline in revenue under the former measure. These figures, taken from the annual reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, were summarized as follows: "That the McKinley act, during the first four years of its operation, so far failed to produce the revenues necessary for running the Government that the net deficiency for four years was $30,704,000." In addition to this, the sum of $54,207,975, a balance of money deposited in the Treasury by national banks to redeem

their circulation, which had been previously kept as a trust fund, was turned into the Treasury as spending-money and used up. Mr. McMillin's presentation of facts was "taken hard" by Mr. Grosvenor of Ohio. "The McKinley law," he replied, "was producing a surplus year by year until Almighty God, for some purpose that he has never yet made known to the American people, menaced the future of this Government by the election of Grover Cleveland and a Democratic Congress." This explosion, says the *Record*, was greeted by laughter.

The Chicago *Times-Herald* says that the Board of Trade of that city is now convinced that the Interstate Commerce law is worse than useless, that the evils it was designed to remedy have increased under its operation, that discriminations in rates are as great as ever, but more difficult to be traced, and that public opinion no longer sustains it, but demands its repeal. The effect of the act, it says, has been to concentrate the grain-shipping business in the hands of a few large firms, discriminating against the small shippers in whose behalf and for whose protection the law was originally passed. One method of discrimination, for which there is no possible remedy, is that the railroad managers give notice privately to a few large shippers of any intended reduction in rates, and thus enable them to buy up all the grain in advance and hold it till the change of rates is officially announced. Thus the small shippers are as effectually excluded as though discriminations in rates were allowed between different shippers. It does not exactly follow that because the law does not prevent discriminations between different shippers, therefore it is of no value at all. It is true that these discriminations were the cause of the enactment of the law in the first instance, but many other things, good, bad, and indifferent, were embraced in it. The anti-pooling clause is perhaps the worst feature of all. This is considered one of the most potent causes of secret discriminations. If no railroad could gain an advantage by discriminating, it would cease to discriminate. A bill to repeal the anti-pooling clause was before Congress two or three years ago, was favorably reported by a committee, and actually passed by the House, but failed in the Senate for want of time. It is to be hoped that the Chicago Board of Trade may lead the way to the early revival of that measure.

The sudden collapse of the steel-rail pool, with the fall in price of rails from $28 to $18 a ton, should make two classes of our statesmen think even harder than their wont. Trust-investigators must sigh as they see their best efforts eclipsed in a day by simple business conditions. No legislative committee was striking terror to the heart of the steel-rail pool. No laws were threatening them from Washington—in fact, Mr. Dingley and his fellows were hard at work to give the pool a law which would enable them to keep up their prices and withstand the wicked foreigner who might try to ruin an American industry by offering rails at $25 a ton. But in one day the railroad situation and competition send the price crashing down 35 per cent. Suppose a Trust-destroying committee had produced such a result, what pæans would have been sung, how the press would have clamored! But the inevitable march of improvement and reduction of the cost of production do the work, and we shrug our shoulders and pass it all off as a fresh instance of the machinations of capital. But the tariff-makers—how particularly silly they look in the light of steel rails selling at a profit at $18 a ton! Why, McKinley had to give a protection of $12 a ton in 1890, else we should all have been ruined and he never would have been President.

There is much speculation, not as to what the Trust investigation will result in, but as to its object. Why did Mr. Lexow begin it? One theory, and the prevailing one, is that it is meant to cover up, or direct attention from, the Payn blunder; but the Payn blunder was one of those things which cannot be covered up or forgotten any more than the Hill-Maynard blunder. The evidence thus far throws no light on Lexow's deep-seated designs. What it has brought out is that certain persons sell lower than other persons in the same business, and thus ruin their competitors. The way of meeting this by law Lexow has not as yet revealed. Trusts that are corporations can be got at by dissolving the corporations, but Trusts which consist simply of single persons or of partnerships are exactly like Macy & Co., or the Siegel-Cooper Company; that is to say, they are simply persons with large capital, who are driving smaller dealers out of the trade by their lower prices and greater command of money. This process has been going on steadily in all the countries of the world for fifty years. It involves hardships for the small men, but benefits for the consumer. It is one result, and one not altogether pleasant to contemplate, of the working of the principle of competition. It is true that we as a nation have by our tariff declared solemnly against competition. We legislate to keep the market for certain persons. We are enabled to do this easily through our customs duties. But how are we going to keep the small dealers on their legs? There is no way except to give them bounties, or compel the large dealers by law to charge higher prices. But the Constitution stands in the way of such drastic measures. These are the only effective defences against private Trusts that occur to us. Of course direct oppression of small dealers can be punished, but this must be rare. The worst thing that can be done to a small dealer—undersell him—is not punishable. Possibly in the recesses of Lexow's mighty mind some more effective preventive is being devised, but we cannot guess it, and the investigation does not reveal it. There is no reader of mediæval history who is not familiar with the road on which the little man is travelling.

The Bureau of Statistics published on Tuesday its report of the export and import trade of the United States during January. Exports of the great cereal staples frequently decrease during the first month, and merchandise imports usually show a proportionate increase. The result is ordinarily to reduce the excess of exported merchandise to a comparatively low figure, which in the course of two or three months more gives way to a large excess of importations. Exports of breadstuffs did, in fact, decrease last month some $4,673,648 from December's record, contrary to our experience in January a year ago. The cotton exports of last month similarly decreased $11,899,494 as compared with the month preceding. Chiefly as a result of these reduced shipments, the total merchandise export for last month falls $22,243,035 below the phenomenal December record. But the change is so far normal to the month that the January exports of 1897 are $8,000,000 in excess of 1896, and make up the largest total export for the month ever recorded except in 1892, after the huge American crop and European harvest failure of 1891. Meantime the country's import trade has continued almost as light, comparatively, as it was in the closing months of 1896. The January importations prove, in fact, to have been $6,628,918 less than the imports of December; they fall below the January import trade of 1896 by more than $17,000,000. As a necessary consequence, the foreign commerce of January has added materially to the already enormous merchandise trade balance in our favor.

To the general public the most important feature of the five-years' agreement between Yale and Harvard, just signed by plenipotentiaries of the two institutions, is the provision that "all contests, with the exception of rowing races, shall take place on college grounds." A similar rule can hardly fail to be adopted by Yale and Princeton for their future meetings. With the enforcement of this radical change, the most serious objection to college athletics as practised of late years will disappear, since we shall be spared the spectacle of young men, nominally engaged in obtaining an education, drawing crowds of city idlers to bet upon their chances of winning a match. The permanent subsidence of the "athletic craze" is plainly marked by this evidence that college men have at last recovered their

senses, and now appreciate the discredit they have brought upon the cause of education by their excesses.

A Spanish statesman, Señor Moret, in a lecture before the Madrid Ateneo, asserted that the ignorance of American politicians in matters relating to Spain is incredible. Unfortunately for us, he proved his assertion by citations from the escapades of Senators Sherman, Morgan, Cullom, and Cameron; and, as *Dogberry* says, having been clearly proved, it will shortly be believed. Sherman's blunders are historic, but then (we think Señor Moret ought to have explained) he is ready on demand to alter sentiments that do not suit, and to correct his history and international law according to the exigencies of the hour. As for Morgan, his name and fame have reached Spain in a way to delight his soul. We understand that in Barcelona to call a man "a Morgan" is a form of the deadliest insult. Sailors on shore will put up with many kinds of abuse, but they will not stand that. No, we cannot blame Señor Moret if he charges American politicians with ignorance on the Cuban question. But let him observe their refreshing silence of late. Many a man has gained a great reputation for wisdom by looking preternatural things and saying nothing; and how gladly would we all attribute wisdom to the Senate on those terms!

Dr. Theodor Barth delivered a lecture last month before the Liberal Electoral Union of Berlin on the practical working of American politics, which is published in the Berlin *Nation* of January 23. Dr. Barth will be remembered as the intelligent visitor who was in this country during the closing weeks of the Presidential campaign, and whose forecasts of the result shone so brilliantly by the side of those of the cock-sure English bimetallists who favored us with their presence and their prophecies. Largely confining himself to dry exposition, the lecturer showed a familiarity with the ins and outs of primaries and conventions, the machine and the boss system, which would be surprising in any foreigner, and seems especially astonishing in a German. Our very political catchwords and humbug phrases Dr. Barth has at his fingers' ends, and expounds, for example, the great principle of "harmony in the party" for the benefit of rogues, as one to the manner born. The boss of New York he describes as an "uncommonly crafty" person, "one Platt" (*ein gewisser Platt*), and the New York Legislature he truthfully declares to be made up of "Platt-creatures" (*Platt'schen Kreaturen*). Almost pathetic is the way he pictures the great body of peaceful citizens (*die grosse Masse der ruhigen Bürger*) as entirely without part or lot in the political control of their parties, and bewildered, while growingly angry, at the boss system. Dr. Barth's assertion that Americans are every day more anxious to have done with bosses, and only waiting to be shown some way to smash them, is one of the best proofs he gives of his close observation of our political life. Bad as are the conditions he is forced to depict—our specific kind of political corruption and our boss system—he yet denies that Germans have any reason, on the whole, to vaunt themselves over us. The quiet submission of an intelligent people to a reactionary set of young Prussians, such incidents as the Tausch press scandals and the Brüsewitz military murder, make American public life seem, by contrast, says this frank German, "a higher form of civilization."

The sugar bounties which M. Méline is getting the French Chamber to vote by such narrow and precarious majorities, are defended by two arguments. The first is the famous per-capita argument. The price of sugar will go up, of course, but the increase will not amount to more than ten cents a head. Think of people objecting to a burden of 10-365 of a cent a day! How petty such a fraction makes them look. Some other tax also will be required to pay the bounties, but trust us to find that. Anyhow—and this is argument number two—we have got to do it in order to get the better of Germany. She pays a bounty of 50 cents the hundred kilos. We will pay one of 80 cents, and where will she be then? Some scoffers in the Chamber, like M. Méry, pointed out the declining consumption of sugar in France, and asked if the main object was to produce sugar or to have and enjoy it. He affirmed that the English were the only ones to see the point of the joke, as they were laughingly saying that they got all the sugar—consuming four times as much per capita as the French—and let the other fellows have the industry. But this poor-spirited point of view was treated with the contempt that it deserved. It is well for us to accustom ourselves to these powerful arguments for bounties, as we shall hear much of them when Congress gets to work on the tariff again.

Since the massacre of Scio in 1822, none of the Greek islands has given the Turks so much trouble as Crete. After many insurrections, it got a sort of constitution in 1866, but this did not stop the insurrections, because the Turks were constantly violating it or failing to carry it out. In the meantime, Crete lying so near Greece, the Christians, who are in a great majority, have been continually longing for annexation to Greece, and they made a frantic application for this to the Powers at the Berlin conference in 1877. But Disraeli was afraid to weaken Turkey, and the others did not care. So the mutual bickering between the Turkish authorities and the Christians has continued, varied by occasional little wars and massacres. It was supposed some months ago that the Turks would fulfil their engagements, but they have not, and now there is more war, in which the Greeks are crazy to take part. The end might have come fifty years ago but for the policy of minimizing by England every concession made to the Christian population of Turkey. The horrors of the Greek war of independence were ended by a battle which the British Minister spoke of afterwards as an "untoward event," and the sternest reprimands and discouragements were sent to the Bosnians and Herzegovinians and Montenegrins when they rose in 1876. It has long been the policy of the Philo-Turks to treat the discontent of the Christian population with Turkish rule as in some sense criminal, if it results in agitation or revolutionary attempts, because it "endangers the concert of the Powers," as it does now.

The independent line taken by Greece in behalf of the Cretan uprising, apparently in half-defiance of the Powers, might easily lead to more serious consequences than it probably will. While the European concert has been called a "syndicate for peace," it might also become any day a syndicate for war. That possibility is what has been creating uneasiness in business circles on the Continent, leading to the difficulty, which has been reported from different money centres, of putting through contracts of any magnitude. It is all very well to tell bankers and investors that the Powers are bent on a peaceful solution of the Turkish question. That they may well believe, and yet have a reasonable fear that the chapter of accidents may unexpectedly produce war. What they have pointed to as most likely is some fresh massacre or some uprising in Macedonia. The sudden determination of Greece to annex Crete does not seem to have figured in any of the forecasts, yet it is precisely one of those unforeseen events which have been feared as likely to result in a great war. But, as we say, that result does not now seem probable. The Powers, if earnestly resolved to keep the peace, will easily be able to keep it despite this flurry. But what they must be sharply reminded of by this somewhat spectacular outbreak is the fact that the evil of Turkish rule is one that cries to Heaven for remedy, and that it is their business to apply it speedily and effectively. That, and the fact that, as Mr. Gladstone telegraphs, they "have characters to redeem," cannot now be lost sight of in all their delicate and difficult negotiations. One thing they have done very thoroughly, if nothing else—filled the whole Levant with the belief that the fall of Turkey is near at hand, that she is tottering, and that a little push would send her over.

COL. BLISS AND THE PRIMARIES.

Col. Bliss's letter to Gen. Tracy which appeared in the *Evening Post* of Thursday last, met the prophecies of Messrs. Tracy and Low, that in some mysterious way better men will get into the Municipal Assembly in Greater New York than have got into such bodies in our cities during the past forty or fifty years, by affirming that neither party will present as its candidates men who ought to be intrusted with the powers given. Col. Bliss agreed also with the view we have taken, that the surest way to provide good government for the enlarged city is to proceed along the line of experience, and vest the powers of government in our Board of Estimate and Apportionment and heads of departments, which are as truly representative of the people as the proposed Municipal Assembly. Important, however, as was the letter touching the character of the Municipal Assembly, it was still more important as regards our nominating system. Col. Bliss is an expert in the management of this system. He has worked in it and over it for more than twenty years. He knows all about it as it exists and has existed in this city. Twenty-five years ago, if we had complained of its results, he would have asked us scornfully whether we went to primaries, and what we knew about primaries, and he would then have loaded us with abuse for complaining of primaries without going to them. There was a theory afloat about that time, nor is it yet by any means extinct, that all abuses in the American government were due to the absence from primaries of the well-to-do classes, and that as soon as they put in a regular appearance at them, the nominations would become satisfactory. We are afraid to say offhand that Col. Bliss himself held this theory at that time, though we timidly believe that he did, and that we could prove it, but we decline to do so.

His confession, therefore, that respectable people will not go to primaries, and that, if they did, they would find there a cut-and-dried nomination prepared beforehand, of which they in all probability could not possibly approve, and that any municipal legislature produced there would be unsatisfactory, is a very important contribution to current political discussion. It is not important only for city affairs, but for State and national affairs. Platt, Gov. Black, Payn, the State Legislature, and the New York delegation to Congress are all the work of primaries. Nay, they are, as far as this city is concerned, the work of notoriously fraudulent primaries. We know of no proposition in politics so plain as that no improvement in the quality of our legislative bodies can be expected as long as the present mode of nomination for office is persisted in. The device of throwing the protection of the law round them, from which some people expect a great deal, will evidently prove futile, because, as Col. Bliss shows, people will not attend them, whether legal or not. Lauterbach will be there, the Progressive Gruber will be there, and the Trojan Van Allen will be there, and the Wicked Gibbs will be there, but the average busy citizen will not be there, because he will feel certain that he will be unable to influence the result, and because he has other things to do. To get him to vote at elections, unless in times of great excitement, is hard work; to get him to vote for the nomination of somebody for office, when he knows his vote will count for nothing, will be simply impossible.

In short, Col. Bliss's letter is an admission, coming from a responsible quarter, that our nominating system, after seven ty years' trial, has broken down. But it has not simply broken down. In its present dilapidated condition it is carrying our Government to destruction. It is creating bosses all over the country, and putting the State Governors and Legislatures, and therefore the United States Senate, within their control. And these Governors and Legislatures have consequently become indifferent to public opinion—ostentatiously indifferent—to a degree, we venture to assert, never before known in a parliamentary country. In New York to-day we have a boss, a Governor, and a Legislature to whom the remonstrances of the church, the press, the colleges, the boards of commerce and trade, the instructed classes—in other words, the chief organs of civilization in every country—simply afford food for merriment. That Gov. Black meant to designate the utterances of these classes and corporations by his terms "intolerant criticism" and "irresponsible clamor," there can hardly be a doubt. Little by little, year by year, we have seen our government drifting away from the leading agencies of healthy progress, or even peaceful progress. We know that, emanating from primaries, it can hardly do otherwise.

Nevertheless, in the teeth of the plainest facts of the day, we have the Charter Commissioners proposing to extend and perpetuate the power of the primary over our affairs, and they are even bold enough to predict that the officers the primary turns out will improve, the larger the area over which they rule and the more money we give them to handle. The solemn truth is, that the chief work before reformers to day is the contrivance of some mode of nomination which will give the voters of each party a free choice of candidates and will open wider the gates of public life. From public life nearly all our talent and character is now excluded. You find it everywhere else, in our colleges, in our railroads, in business, but you do not find it in politics. And if you ask nine-tenths of the men of character and talent, whom you think peculiarly fitted for office, why they do not take office, they will tell you that the vexations, uncertainties, and base compliances of the primaries and conventions are too great, that to get in and stay in, they would have to keep on good terms with the degraded and corrupt animal known as the boss. The other tenth could not get in if they wished to do so. In other words, the nominating system is too odious to them.

THE TARIFF MUDDLE.

Two events of prime importance to the coming tariff bill have taken place during the past week. One of these is the breaking of the steel-rail pool, the other is the final disagreement of the wool-growers and the woollen-manufacturers on the subject of the rates on raw wool. Both these events must, we think, have a considerable influence on public opinion; that is, on that portion of the community which is in a wavering state of mind regarding protective tariffs in general, and opposed to the very high duties of the McKinley tariff of 1890. Among these Mr. McKinley himself may perhaps be counted at the present time. Certainly a very large division of his supporters in the recent election may be placed in this category.

The breaking of the steel-rail pool and the reduction of the price of rails from $29 to $17 per ton is an event of almost startling significance. It discloses two facts that the tariff-reformers have long insisted upon, namely, that rails can be made in this country as cheaply as anywhere in the world, and that the effect, if not the purpose, of the protective duty is to enable the rail-makers to charge more to the domestic than they do to the foreign buyer. The sudden fall of $12 per ton, and the rushing business that the mills are doing at the reduced rate, are ample confirmation of another doctrine held by the tariff-reformers, that the prohibitory duty which has generally prevailed enables the "combine" to make enormous and unjust profits in times of business activity, when the demand for rails exceeds the domestic supply, whereas, if foreign rails could be bought at such times, the price would never much exceed the cost of production with a fair profit added. Some of the trade journals which are not under the influence of the combine have, during recent years, repeatedly warned the rail-makers that they were standing in their own light, and that a day of reckoning could not be much longer averted, meaning that the public would some day be angry enough to tear down the whole tariff, so far as they were concerned, and leave them to fight the competition of the world without any protection whatever.

The outcome, however, has been quite different. The long period of dulness in the mills has broken the combine, and they are now selling at prices below the reach of European competition. Under the present conditions a protective duty is worthless. It is a mockery, an insult

to common sense, a stigma on the intelligence of the people who tolerate it. If the demand for rails should exceed the producing capacity of the United States, then the tariff would enable the combine to recombine and charge higher prices than they ought to have; but this is not likely to happen. The room for new railway construction is a restricted area, while the power to produce rails is limited only by the capital and inventive skill of those engaged in the business. This is the cause of the breaking of the pool, and it is pretty safe to say that the break will not be repaired, at all events that the old prices will not be restored, very soon. The object-lesson is a very useful one.

The disagreement between the Ohio combine that calls itself the National Wool-Growers' Association and the National Association of Woollen Manufacturers promises to cause more trouble to the tariff-makers at Washington than the broken steel-rail pool. Indeed, there is no reason why the latter should cause any trouble, since they can simply ignore it altogether. They cannot ignore the fact that Judge Lawrence and his coterie demand rates of duty on raw wool which the manufacturers absolutely refuse to agree to. The history of this disagreement goes back to the year 1883, when the wool-growers, under the lead of this same coterie, demanded certain rates which they did not get. It was their persistent clamor for higher rates that led to the McKinley tariff of 1890. Without them there would have been no such bill, no political upheaval in the autumn of that year, and no defeat of Harrison in 1892. The whole tariff enormity that broke the back of the hitherto patient public was piled on top of the wool schedule of that year. Even then the Ohio coterie were not satisfied. No sooner was the bill passed than they began to find fault with it and to threaten this and that unless the rates were raised. The only result of their mendicancy was the repeal of all duties on wool in the Wilson bill. That this repeal has been a blessing to the country there is no doubt, but, of course, it did not allay the cravings of Lawrence & Co. They have been as persistent and grasping as ever, and have presented the following schedule of rates as the minimum of their demands:

"Twelve cents a pound on class 1 and class 2 wools; double duty on washed, and triple duty on scoured; 8 cents a pound on all carpet wools, and double and triple duty on washed and scoured, and 3 cents a pound additional duty on all skirted wools."

Upon this exorbitant and insufferable schedule a two days' conference has been held at Washington with the woollen manufacturers, who offered to concede 8 cents on class 1, 9 and 11 cents on class 2, and 32 per cent. ad valorem on class 3, or carpet wools; the last-mentioned rate being that of the McKinley tariff, which nearly ruined the carpet-manufacturers. The Philadelphia *Press* issued a very moving appeal to the wool-growers not to ask too much from the manufacturers, but to keep within bounds, alleging that the manufacturers wanted nothing but what was fair, that they were guided by wise counsels and moderate desires, and that they only asked living rates. The effect of this pathos was *nil*, for the wool-growers abated not one jot of their demands, and the conference ended in a total disagreement. We fear that the arguments addressed by our esteemed contemporary had a tendency to steel the hearts of the wool-growers, for the *Press* began by telling them that they were "struck down" by the Wilson tariff and that they are "utterly prostrate"; also, that their prostration has been "one of the most potent factors in the disastrous depression of the past four years." If the wool-growers believe this, they will naturally fight all the harder for the tariff they want. But if they were really prostrated by the Wilson tariff, why did they bring to market 270,000,000 pounds of wool in the year following the passage of it? That does not look much like prostration, and they might not know the dreadful condition they are in unless the newspapers reminded them of it from time to time.

Lawrence & Co. may think the world will come to an end if a Republican tariff is enacted which is not agreeable to them. Yet such a thing has happened before. It happened in 1883, and the party prospered fairly well until 1890, when the wool-growers had their innings, or thought they had. Probably Chairman Dingley would like to present a schedule of wool and woollen duties to the House and say, "This is what both the parties in interest have agreed to." It would be very much in the line of precedents to assume that any agreement for distributing the plunder of the consumers of woollen goods must be satisfactory. Alas, this is not possible now. One or the other must be disappointed, and we think that Lawrence will be that one. At any rate it is a very pretty quarrel as it stands, and the public are likely to get some advantage out of it in the end, even though there may be a temporary increase in the price of woollen goods.

THE GOVERNMENT AS A PUBLISHER.

THE Senate has become such an ingenious machine for blocking good and expediting vicious legislation that one specification more or less seems hardly worth making. But a bill now sleeping the sleep of death in a Senate committee is so suggestive both of the stupid confusion and waste attending Government business and of the dead mass of prejudice and inertia that has to be dynamited out of the way of the most simple and rational reform, that comment upon it is a public service. We refer to House bill No. 8237, "To improve the printing and binding methods of public documents." This bill was the conception of Mr. F. A. Crandall, Superintendent of Documents, and was by him submitted, in the first place, for examination and criticism, to all the members of Congress, all the publishing bureaus of the Government, all the depository libraries, and to one thousand private citizens who had shown an interest in public documents. Approved almost unanimously by them, it passed the House on May 7, 1896, with several minor changes. But it could not get out of the committee in the Senate last session; it is now asserted that it cannot this session. Senators declare that Superintendent Crandall and Public Printer Benedict have not displayed the requisite "tact" in urging the bill. So they are bound to strangle it.

But if not "tact," Mr. Crandall has at least displayed force and lucidity of exposition in his account of the belated and benighted methods at present in vogue in the Government Printing-Office. This he has done in his second annual report. The methods in question are forced upon the Office by antiquated laws. It was to cure their absurdities, and the chaotic practice that has grown up under them, that his bill was introduced. It did not call for the appropriation of a single cent, nor cut off a single book now printed. It simply proposed to introduce order and simplicity into a department where chaos and old night now hold sway, to make Government publications more speedily available and convenient to all concerned, and to do it at a great saving of time, temper, and money. To urge such a bill upon the Senate, as at present constituted, is of itself a "tactless" thing to do, we confess, and we must no doubt submit for the present to a continuance of the inveterate evil.

What a huge and needless evil it is, Superintendent Crandall shows to demonstration. Take the matter of delay in publication. The extreme to which this has gone in the census reports is generally known. But there are other series of Government books in which the hair has almost equally grown in the shaving. In fact, says Mr. Crandall, "as a rule the libraries get their books anywhere from one to seven years after Congress has had them, and usually long after their current interest has quite evaporated and they have passed into the dry-as-dust stage of their existence." For example, a sheep-bound volume containing the receipts and expenditures of the Government in 1889 reached the libraries last summer. This was at the very time when all Government documents bearing on public finance were in eager request, and when the sending out of such moss-grown volumes seemed a peculiar impertinence. "At this date," writes the Superintendent, the depository libraries have not received "a single document of any kind appertaining to the Fifty-fourth Congress. They have not had a Congressional Directory since the first

session of the Fifty-third Congress, nor a Consular Report since that for August, 1892, which they received in February, 1895. . . . They have not received the annual report on the Mineral Resources of the country for the years 1891 and 1892, though they have received it for 1893."

The deadly pains taken to bury official information under misleading tombstones (they cannot be called titles), and to shoot out masses of unindexed rubbish for the vexation of the baffled inquirer, Mr. Crandall illustrates by many examples. In Washington there are "living indexes" who know how to thread their way through the mighty mazes without a plan that are called 'Messages and Documents,' or some other jumbling name, but, failing such aid, the investigator is soon lost in the labyrinth. The Superintendent tells of a caller from Omaha in quest of a certain document, to whom he remarked that what he wanted was in the depository library at Omaha. The Nebraskan replied that he knew it, and that the local librarian had offered to help him find it, but that a short hunt in the amorphous mass had convinced him that "the quickest and cheapest way to get that book was to come to Washington for it, a journey of a thousand miles each way."

The duplication and hopeless confusion of Government reports, under the present headless system, are enough to make a private publisher's hair stand on end. Librarians and indexers they seem designed to kill outright. Mr. Crandall's exhibit here, which he assures us is only one of many equally flagrant, is worth reproducing. It is the report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs for 1894. Following are the various disguises and aliases of this volume:

[First—Bureau edition.]

Title-page: "Annual report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1894. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1895."
Back title: "Report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. 1894."

[Second—Department edition.]

Title-page: "Annual report of the Secretary of the Interior for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1894. In five volumes. Volume II. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1894."
Back title: "Report of the Secretary of the Interior. Vol. 2. 1894."

[Third—Message and Documents edition.]

Title-page: "Report of the Secretary of the Interior; being part of the message and documents communicated to the two Houses of Congress at the beginning of the third session of the Fifty-third Congress. In five volumes. Volume II. Washington: Goverment Printing-Office. 1894."
Back title—"Message and Documents Interior Dep't. Vol. 2. 1894-5."

[Fourth—Sheep bound Congressional reserve edition.]

First title-page: "The Executive Documents of the House of Representatives for the third session of the Fifty-third Congress. 1894-'95. In thirty-five volumes. Washington: Government Printing Office. 1895."

This is followed by a general index to the thirty-five volumes of executive documents, filling eighteen pages, and then by the—

Second title-page: "53d Congress, 3d session, House of Representatives, Ex. Doc. 1, Part 5. Report of the Secretary of the Interior; being part of the message and documents communicated to the two Houses of Congress at the beginning of the third session of the Fifty-third Congress. In five volumes. Volume II. Washington: Government Printing-Office. 1894."
Back title: "House Executive Documents, 3d sess., 53d Cong., 1894-'95. Vol. 15. Report of the Secretary of the Interior. Vol. 2—1894. Indian Affairs."

Remember that the contents of these volumes are, in all four editions, precisely the same, and that three out of the four titles give not the faintest idea of what is in the book, and then remember that the Senate falls back upon its dignity and demands the most delicate "tact" in asking it to put an end to this monstrous absurdity!

We regret being unable to give more of Mr. Crandall's piquant report. But we advise everybody to read it who wants to see the supernatural wisdom of "the State" in actual operation. The United States is the largest publisher of books and maps in the world; yet it goes on in blind adherence to wasteful and brainless methods that would wreck a private publisher in one week. To introduce the slightest and most obviously rational improvement is a labor of Hercules and a work of years. The liberality of Congress in voting money to put valuable information in the hands of the people is frustrated by statutes and regulations that compel inefficiency and extravagance and confusion worse confounded. We shall get the needed changes in time, if Mr. Crandall despairs not and keeps battering away at senatorial *Dummheit*. But with "the State" making such a sorry mess of the publishing business, we hope it will be some time before it goes into railroading or telegraphing or canalling.

COMMERCIAL ACTIVITY IN EUROPE.

THE remarkable results of the foreign commerce of the United States in the past year have been noticed in these columns, and the favorable features dwelt upon. How far these results reflect general or special conditions can be determined only by comparing them with the trade of other countries during the same or nearly similar period.

In the twelve months of 1896 the United Kingdom imported from her own possessions and foreign countries merchandise to the value of £441,807,335, a gain of £25,117,677 over the imports of 1895, and three times the increase of 1895 over 1894. The increase was about 6 per cent., apparently a small one, but of high importance in so large a trade movement, representing nearly one-half the value of the raw cotton annually exported from the United States. True, the United Kingdom was obliged to make large purchases of food in the past year, and to that one item more than £7,500,000 of the increase was due. The increase that remains points to greatly improved conditions in industry and commerce, for in no class of imports, whether raw materials or manufactured products, whether articles of necessity or of comfort or luxury, is a decreased movement recorded; and in every class but one the increase is notable. When the trade books were closed for 1895, it was found that the increase of movement over 1894 had been irregular, and in most classes the increase was by the hundreds of thousands; in 1896 the increase is regular and general, and is measured by the millions of pounds. The imports of metals showed a decrease of £405,682 in 1895 and an increase of £1,808,744 in 1896. The imports of raw materials for the textile industries increased by £146,803 in 1895 and by £3,996,355 in 1896; for other industries, by £1,023,568 in 1895 and £3,216,343 in 1896. So far from pointing to crushing and continuing depression in manufactures, the trade returns indicate an increased demand for raw materials in the great manufacturing industries. This would not have occurred had all confidence of holding their own at home and abroad been lost among the manufacturers. Fair-traders, if any of that description remain, get up periodical scares over the competition endured by English industries with those of continental Europe, and they may point to the fact that the imports of manufactured products increased in 1895 by £6,700,606 and in 1896 by £5,649,260. But against these figures must be placed the greater imports of raw materials, the necessary basis of British industries and export trade.

The figures of the exports only confirm the better aspects at home and abroad. The markets of the United Kingdom, being free to the products of the world, are distributing centres for these products. If industrial conditions at home are in a bad way, the outward movement of the raw materials imported would show an increase. A greater quantity or value would be sent where a better demand existed, and sold even at a sacrifice to relieve the home market. This was the condition in 1895. The exports of foreign and colonial merchandise rose from £57,961,534 to £59,970,763, an increase of £2,009,229. In 1896 not only was this increase wiped out, but £1,464,000 more was retained at home, presumably for home use. The exports were only £56,466,465.

With this sign of improvement may be considered the exports of British and Irish produce and manufactures. In two years the value has risen from £215,824,333 to £239,922,209, and of this increase the larger part, £14,032,193, occurred in the last twelve months. Since 1894 the exports of yarns and textile fabrics increased by £9,374,807, and of metals and machinery by £8,510,464—figures that do not point to very sorry conditions of these great interests. It would be interesting to show how this larger export movement has been distributed throughout the world, but it must suffice to say that it is

not from the United States that the greatest demand has originated.

Turning to France, the comparison must be based upon the returns for eleven months of each calendar year, which are, however, sufficient to convey a general view of the tendencies. The values of the imports increased 5.2 per cent., or not far from the percentage given by the British movement. The improvement is more marked in French imports than in British, for the imports into France in 1895 were more than 5.3 per cent. less than in 1894, a difference for which prices could not account. That French manufacturers look for better conditions is seen in the larger imports and the decreased exports of raw materials of manufactures. Yet the flow of finished products to foreign markets was only 2.5 per cent. greater than in 1895, showing an increased consumption at home, or an anticipation of a demand to be made in the near future. The total exports of French products of every description mark an increase of 2.6 per cent., against an increase of 11.8 per cent. in 1894. The point to be dwelt upon is the greater imports, which may be taken as evidence of a more hopeful feeling, if not a present realization of greater industrial activity.

Germany presents a striking contrast to France in foreign commerce. The French protectionists have for years been increasing the rates of import duties with the avowed object of becoming independent, as far as was possible, of other countries. To make such a policy effective, foreign trade must be discouraged, and the opinion of those best fitted to judge is that the policy has been carried so far as to narrow and cripple the commercial movement of France, depriving her of her proper share in the world's trade. Certain it is that Germany has in foreign commerce far outstripped France, and is to-day the type of the aggressive merchant, taking every advantage offered in foreign markets, and making a market in the face of keenest competition. True, Germany has made concessions to her agrarian party, and has adopted both corn and bourse laws, and granted bounties direct and indirect on production and navigation, as well as on some exports. All this is costly, and in the end will prove a grievous charge upon the taxpayers who foot the bill. At present, the stimulus is felt in industries and in shipping, and methods of selling have resulted in enlarged trade. The German trade returns, as printed monthly, do not state values, but weights, which makes it impossible to compare them with the French or English. Both exports and imports for the eleven months of 1896 showed a large increase over 1894 and 1895.

England, France, and Germany thus manifest a decided improvement in both imports and exports in the last year. The United States gives a remarkably large export movement, and quite as remarkably small an import. Merely from the commercial aspect this is not so wholesome an indication as is found among our European competitors; yet so long as the currency question remains unsettled, it is well to have the appearance of being able to draw gold from Europe in payment of a trade balance in our favor.

THE MADOX-BROWN EXHIBITION.

LONDON, January 26, 1897.

BY name, at least, Ford Madox Brown is probably better known to-day than he was during his lifetime. In the various books about the Pre-Raphaelites and Pre Raphaelitism, issued within the last few years, he has figured so prominently that it is impossible any longer to ignore the part he took in one of the most memorable art movements of the century. But the many who now recognize his power and influence are scarcely more familiar with his work than were his sceptical contemporaries. It is true that his "Christ Washing Peter's Feet," his noblest and perhaps most beautiful painting, is now in the National Gallery. But this is the one important example in any public collection in London, though, of course, there are a few drawings and water colors at South Kensington. It is in Manchester, rather, where a series of designs by him decorate the Town Hall, and some of his cartoons and one at least of his most famous canvases hang in the Corporation Gallery, that a just idea is to be formed of his actual accomplishment, and, unfortunately, few people think of travelling to that big commercial town to study art. Before his death, even, little had been seen of his work for many years in London. He had long ceased to send to the Royal Academy, which had invariably treated him with something like contempt, the very masterpiece now in the national collection having been skied when submitted to Academicians, and he had not organized an exhibition of his own since 1865. Only very occasionally, as in the Arts and Crafts show of last autumn, has any pretence been made to represent him, however inadequately. For this reason the exhibition of his work just opened at the Grafton Gallery, the first attempt to collect his drawings and cartoons and paintings into one comprehensive and representative whole, is of unusual interest. Moreover, one feels that the collection has been ordered—according to his preferences—entirely independent of the aid or patronage of the Royal Academy, upon which is usually supposed to devolve the duty of honoring England's great artists after their death. He himself resented bitterly the action of Academicians in preparing the Rossetti show of 1882; despite years of indifference, to see them "swooping down on poor Gabriel's works," lent, he wrote to one of his daughters, "new terrors to death." But in his case the Academy has proved more consistent, refusing to hang even one of his pictures in their exhibitions of "Deceased British Masters." The present show has been organized by Mr. Ford Madox Hueffer, who but recently published a very entertaining and sympathetic biography of his grandfather, and who, perhaps, of all men, is the most competent for the task.

Certainly his selection has been so wise and intelligent that the collection enables one to study Ford Madox Brown's career, stage by stage, beginning with the copies of old masters belonging to his student years, and finishing only with the last illustration designed immediately before his death. You can see the work with which, practically, he made his first appearance in England, the big cartoon, "Spirit of Justice," for the Westminster Hall competition of 1845, when he had for rivals, among others, Dyce, and Maclise, and Etty; the cartoon which Haydon thought the only thing in the competitive show worth looking at, "a figure of Justice, and is exquisite as far as that figure goes." Here, too, are the "Parasina," "The Study in the Manner of the Early Masters," and the "Wicliffe on his Trial," painted when he first found a manner and method of his own—pictures that roused the young Rossetti's enthusiasm and led him to write that letter to Ford Madox Brown which was the commencement of their life-long intimacy and, incidentally, really of Pre-Raphaelitism. It was the letter of the story every one by this time has heard; its enthusiasm so surprising the elder artist, used as yet only to ridicule and scorn, that his answer was an immediate visit, himself well armed with a big stick, to the supposed scoffer and player of practical jokes. Then, again, there are the landscapes, "English Autumn Afternoon," "Carrying Corn," in which he seems to have prepared the way for Monet. He was inclined, his grandson states, "to claim that he had started the '*Plein-Air*' school in France." But in his inordinate love of detail, he could not understand that the painter who would give a right impression of light and atmosphere, cannot have eyes as well for every single leaf and blade of grass. It is strange that while one thus discovers in him the germ, as it were, of *plein-airisme*, so, too, one can look to his paintings for that kind of realism usually associated with Bastien-Lepage, to whom, indeed, Englishmen of the so-called Newlyn school turned for models, all unconscious of what had been done virtually in their midst. The Manchester Corporation Gallery has lent the large picture "Work," which was undertaken, Ford Madox Brown himself explained, to prove that the British workman "was at least as worthy of the powers of an English painter as the fisherman of the Adriatic, the peasant of the Campagna, or the Neapolitan lazzarone"—that is, he saw beauty in the British "navvy," just as Bastien thought to see it in the French peasant. The Manchester Town-Hall frescoes could not well be included; but some of the cartoons and two or three of the original small panels from which they were afterwards painted, are here; these giving an idea of the brilliancy of the color and the well-balanced composition which distinguished all the large decorations, with the exception, perhaps, of the last two or three, done when Madox Brown was quite an old man and his powers were somewhat failing.

Besides these more ambitious productions, there are numerous water-colors—some, like the little "King René's Honeymoon" and "The Younger Foscari," gems of color that Rossetti never surpassed; there are portraits in pastel, designs for stained glass, a long series of cartoons of famous men, illustrations (for, like Rossetti and Millais and Holman Hunt, he drew for the wood-engraver in the sixties and thereabout, the greatest period of English illustration); and there are many studies and sketches in pencil and pen-and-ink and crayon. In fact, no phase of his art is altogether neglected. There is even a cabinet decorated by himself, Rossetti, and Burne-Jones, to remind one of his connection with the house of Morris, Marshall, Falkner & Co.,

for which, in his time, he designed not only stained glass, but tables and chairs and other pieces of domestic furniture.

Really, Madox Brown may be said to have heralded the decorative revival for which, as a rule, Morris receives chief credit, and to have originated the idea of the Arts and Crafts Society. He was designing furniture before Morris had come up from Oxford, and attempting to exhibit it in a gallery before the Pre-Raphaelites had sufficiently emancipated themselves from academical tradition to encourage the attempt. It is no wonder that Mr. Hueffer thinks his misfortune was to have anticipated "the 'psychical moment' with everything that he did." The catalogue itself is further proof of this curious feature of his career. Where possible, it is copied from one he issued for his own show in 1865, in which the title of every picture is followed by a long account of the subject and an explanation of its meaning and moral—an example but too closely followed at Toynbee Hall and in other quarters where every picture is supposed necessarily to contain a moral and a text for a sermon.

To pass thus rapidly in review the life-work of Ford Madox Brown is to begin to understand the reason of his large influence upon a few artists, his utter inability to interest others or to please the public. However his art may have been modified or developed by time, in one main essential it continued unalterable to the end. You may divide his work into the three stages generally adopted, since it seems inevitable that every artist should be given his "periods"; you may point to the early paintings in which the influence of the Antwerp and Paris studios where he studied still lingers; to those that succeeded, marked by the fanatical respect for detail that compelled him to work out each separate leaf on the lilac bush he painted until his diary fairly groans under the task; to the latest, characterized by a sensuousness that prized color above accuracy, though, let me add in all haste, accuracy was never on that account discarded. To accept these divisions, however, is not to blind one's self to the fact that the painter throughout his life—when student, when inexorable realist, when colorist—was always, from first to last, an independent, an innovator. By temperament, clearly, he could never have been anything else; but the chances are that his escape from academical or classical leading-strings was all the easier because in Antwerp he studied under Baron Wappers, a leader of Romanticism in Belgium, and because in the artistic Paris of his student days—1840 was the date of his first going to Paris—individuality was the battle-cry of the Romanticists. From Delacroix to Devéria, from Corot to Célestin Nanteuil, from Millet to Gavarni, there was scarce one of them who was not seeking to express his individuality—even if he had no individuality to express, as sometimes happened—whether in painting or etching, in lithography or drawing for the wood-engraver. For what other reason had the red symbol of revolution been flaunted some years earlier at the Comédie-Française, for what other reason had young rebels pledged each other over the Byronic skull drinking-cup of that little café in the Champs Élysées? Madox Brown, young and impressionable, a rebel too by nature, could not have remained quite impervious to the prevailing tendencies of the schools and studios. There was a certain something in the atmosphere to stimulate and quicken his growth—so effectually that when he returned to England, still a mere youth, he was fully equipped to startle a decorous Academy by his independence.

When it is remembered to what depths, of bitumen and commonplace, painting in England had then sunk, the daring of his revolt will be all the more appreciated. How could men like Mulready and Egg and Eastlake and Grant be expected to sympathize with a young unknown painter bold enough to be entirely original in composition and color and treatment, as Madox Brown was from the time he first tried to exhibit in London? No amount of abuse and contumely could weaken him; because he was misunderstood, his individuality was no less dear to him. Whatever he might not be, he could always remain himself, and this was his uncompromising attitude throughout life. The result is a strength, a vitality, a vigor in his work which enforces respect even when one is disposed otherwise to be critical. For the truth is, as is often the case, the determination to maintain his individuality in face of opposition sometimes forced him to extremes. You feel this when he overloads his landscape with tedious superfluous facts, when he insists too peremptorily on the story he is telling or the lesson he is preaching; when, in his portraits, his desire to be scrupulously faithful in giving a likeness, in painting every hair in a beard, every fold in an ugly gown, leads him to forget that his sitter is a living human being made of flesh and blood, and not cast-iron; when his preoccupation with detail leaves him no eyes for the aspect of the scene before him. You begin to question if it is worth while for the artist to be individual, to be independent, if it is mainly to achieve ugliness or eccentricity. You read of the endless labors of Madox Brown over this picture or that, of the sacrifices he made and the discomforts to which he was put, that he might paint out-of-doors, that he might obtain the right models; and then you consider how much better many another painter, with infinitely less trouble, would have suggested actual character.

Take, for instance, "Work," a masterpiece in its way. It shows British "navvies" busy in a Hampstead street; men and background alike studied on the spot. But the men are not really good types, not one of them; Charles Keene, with a few lines, could have given a far more truthful portrait of the British workman. And so conscientiously did Madox Brown copy their rough working-clothes and tools, so much meaning did he pack into the little group, that he forgot to include them in the picture; they have absolutely no relation to the rest of the composition, to the figures of Carlyle and Kingsley, on one side, so well enveloped in atmosphere; or to the two women in big bonnets and crinolines, on the other, who keep their place so admirably within the frame; or to the man and woman on horseback in the middle distance, who serve to divide the light from the shadows; or to the street, with its line of sandwich men, just below in such true if difficult perspective. Here, indeed, is a very serious fault in a painting. And yet the sincerity—if one can venture on a sadly abused word—the dignity of the composition, you feel, would make up for even more glaring defects. And this dignity of composition is seldom missing from any of his designs. He could *fill* a canvas as Barry, I think it was, once said to Haydon, with far less reason for the compliment. He knew how to give a fine decorative arrangement without the prop of classical convention, and he could afford, as most artists cannot, to treat it humorously when he chose. For humor was one of his predominant qualities. One is not surprised to learn that a favorite book with him once was 'The Adventures of Tyll Eulenspiegel.' There is hardly a picture, however serious in motive without its element of fun as naïve as that of the mediæval artist who decorated the cathedrals and churches of Europe, and not to be overlooked in any, even the slightest, estimate of his art.

Another thing which the collection at the Grafton Gallery proves conclusively is that the influence of Ford Madox Brown was as keenly felt in his immediate family circle as among the Pre-Raphaelites. Work is shown by his children, Mrs. Hueffer, Mrs. William Michael Rossetti, and Oliver Madox Brown, and it is amusing to see how devotedly all three deferred to him as to a master. More than this, one or two of the sketches by the son convince one that, had he lived, he would have been a still greater man than the father. But it is useless to speculate on the might-have-been, especially since Ford Madox Brown himself, as the exhibition establishes triumphantly, is sure always to be ranked among the few great English artists of the nineteenth century. N. N.

Correspondence.

CHILD MEMORIAL LIBRARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I announce, through your columns, that a memorial library is soon to be established at Harvard University in honor of the late Prof. Child? Prof. Child felt in his teaching the need of a special library which should give students of English literature free and convenient access to a much larger collection of books than can be kept on the shelves of the general reading-room in the Library of the University; and he had in mind the founding of a special library through subscription. The endowment of such a library in his name seems, therefore, the most fitting way to perpetuate his memory as a teacher and a scholar.

The committee in charge of the plan began its work some weeks ago by private letters to persons who would naturally feel a peculiar interest in such a memorial. The response to these letters has been both generous and cordial, and the subscriptions amount to $9,500, besides a considerable number of valuable books. The capital will be placed in the hands of the Corporation, and the income only will be expended. Each book will be marked with a book-plate specially designed for the Memorial Library.

The sum already subscribed insures the success of the plan. I write to inform Prof. Child's friends and pupils about the Memorial, and to give all persons who wish to join in it an opportunity of doing so. Gifts of money or of books may be sent to Mr. J. H. Gardiner, No. 18 Grays Hall, Cambridge, Mass.

L. B. R. Briggs, for the Committee.

Harvard College, Cambridge, Mass.,
February 13, 1897.

ONE OF CHAUCER'S SOURCES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some time ago I pointed out the fact that Chaucer used a French version of the *Consolation of Philosophy*, ascribed in the MSS. to Jehan de Meung, to help him in his *Boece* (vide the *Academy* for Sept. 21, 1895, p. 227). Although the evidence on this point is

conclusive, as will appear from the parallel-text edition of the two which I am now preparing for the Chaucer Society, there are many passages in Chaucer's translation where he does not slavishly follow Jehan de Meung, but displays a scholarship surprisingly independent for one who knew so little of the rudimentary principles of Latin grammar. For, despite many assertions to the contrary, the *Boece* shows mistakes numerous enough and great enough to condemn as unfounded any aspirations its author may have had to be considered a good Latin scholar, even when judged by the standards of his time. How, then, did he manage to translate the difficult metres whose subject-matter is often tortuous with scholastic logic, and whose language is recondite with frequent reminiscences of Virgil's Georgics?

The solution of this problem, which I find in the Paraphrase and Commentary wrongly ascribed, at least in its present state, to Thomas Aquinas (vide Obbarius, *de Consol. Phil.*, Jena, 1843, Prolegomena, p. xlix), throws an unexpected light on Chaucer's literary history.

It must be borne in mind that a large part of the instruction given in the Middle Ages was imparted through compendious glosses and scholia on well-known classics. Of these Boethius was one of the most popular. It will be remembered how King Alfred cut his teeth, so to speak, on the *Consolation*, and afterwards paraphrased it in Old English (vide William of Malmesbury Bk. II., § 122, in Rolls ed. I, 131).* Notker translated it into the Old High German with copious glosses; it was done into French five or six times during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries—in several instances, glosses, commentary and all; and it has been translated into English almost every century from Chaucer's time to ours. The commentaries which grew up about such texts were made to embrace pretty much all the learning of the time that had the slightest connection with the subject in hand.

Such a one was that which appeared in various forms during the fifteenth century, and was connected with the name of Thomas Aquinas. As it contains quotations from writers who flourished after the time of Aquinas, Obbarius suggested that the ascription of it to him might have been due to a confusion of his name with that of Thomas of Maldon, who died in 1404 (vide Tanner, *Bibl. Brit. Hib.*, p. 503, and Pitseus, p. 538). But, whoever wrote it, there is abundant evidence that both Chaucer and the French translator from whom he borrows, in making their Boethius translations, worked with it in a form not very unlike that which has come down to us through some of the early printed editions. It is also a striking fact that the Latin text used by Chaucer, in its departures from that of the other MSS. of Boethius, must have been similar to that of Codex Gothanus III. (Obb.), which was one of the earliest texts to be associated with the Aquinas Commentary.

Though this refers especially to the *Boece*, the matter has an interest more far-reaching, for many of Chaucer's Boethius quotations, which are very numerous (by no means all of them have as yet been pointed out) and are scattered all through his poems, are taken from the Aquinas Commentary, and not from his own *Boece*, nor yet from the Latin text; there are also traces in his work of his having made use of the Commentary independently of the *Consolation*.

Anything like a complete list of these indebtednesses to the book cannot, of course, be given here; but even the few instances cited below will show, I think, that indebtedness exists, and will not be without interest to those of the *Nation's* readers who read and love Chaucer.

(1.) In *Troilus* I. 685, ff., Pandarus insinuates his friendship for the love-stricken youth, saying:

> "For no wight may bireve
> A man to love, til that him list to leve.
> And witeth wel, that bothe two ben vyces,
> Mistrusten alle, or elles alle leve."

In Aq. sig. l, ij (near top),* we have "Vtrumque enim vicium est, et omnibus credere, et nulli," as part of a quotation on Friendship from Seneca, Epist. iii., glossing "Amor dictat sua jura fidis sodalibus," the paraphrase of Boethius Bk. III., m. viii. (Obb. 40, 27). The conjunction of the two ideas in the *Troilus* is significant.

(2.) Again, in the *Tales* A, 1261-1267, we have:

> "We faren as he that dronke is as a mous;
> A dronke man wot wel he hath an hous,
> But he noot which the righte way is thider,
> And to a dronke man the wey is slider.
> And certes, in this world so faren we:
> We seken fast after felicitee,
> But we goon wrong ful often trewely."

In Boethius III., pr. 2 (Obb. 43, 18), we have the same idea: "Animus . . . bonum summum repetit, set velut ebrius domum quo tramite revertatur ignorat." But the note to this passage in Aq. (sig. m, i) is: "Nota quod sicut ebrius scit se habere domum sed . . . nescit quomodo ad eam redeat, sic homines aliquo modo in generali sciunt et cognoscunt summum bonum, . . . sed illi homines . . . nesciunt quo modo ad illud summum bonum peruenire possint." Here we see that Chaucer's only addition is "And to a dronke man the wey is slider." But what an addition! (For *summum bonum* "felicitee," see below, No. 4.)

(3.) In the *House of Fame*, 1920, Chaucer speaks of

> "An hous that domus Dedali,
> That Laborintus cleped is."

In Boethius the reference to the Labyrinth is "inextricabilem labyrinthum rationibus texens," Bk. III., m. 12 (Obb. 69, 1), Chaucer's own translation of which runs:

> "Thou hast so woven me with thy resouns the hous of Dedalus."

But the note to the passage in Aq. (sig. S, iij) is "Nota Laborintus dicebatur domus Dedali," which shows plainly that Chaucer, if he had Boethius in mind, copied the *Nota* and not the *Textus*.

(4.) In the description of the Frankelyn (*Tales* A, 334 ff.), he says:

> "Wel loved he by the morwe a sop in wyn.
> To liven in delyt was ever his wone
> For he was Epicurus owne sone,
> That heeld opinioun that pleyn delyt
> Was verraily felicitee parfait."

Cf. also the passage about Epicurus in E 2021.

> "Some clerkes holden that felicitee
> Stant in delyt."

In Bk. III., pr. 2 (Obb. 43, 13) Boethius writes: "Epicurus summum bonum voluptatem esse constituit." But the note thereto is (sig. m, i): "Epicuruei posuerunt felicitatem consistere in voluptatibus scilicet in crapula luxuria." Here Chaucer imitates the wording of the note and couples it with the Frankelyn's wine-drinking—"scilicet in crapula luxuria."

(5.) Again, in *Troilus* I., 637 ff., Pandarus displays his learning:

> "By his contrarie is every thing declared.
> For how might ever sweetnesse have be knowe
> To him that never tasted bitternesse?"

We have this in Aq. (sig. l., iv.) as note to Bk. III., m. 1 (Obb. 41, 5): "Dulcior est apium mage labor si malus ora prius sapor edat." "Unde poeta—Dulcia non meminit qui non gustauit amare. Namque per oppositum noscitur omne bonum." This passage, both in Boethius and the *Troilus*, is very near to No. 1, and seems more closely related to the Commentary than to the *Romaunt of the Rose* 21819 ff. (Ed. Meon) (cf. *Anglia* xiv., p. 241).

(6.) Again, in *Troilus* I., 1065 ff., Chaucer uses the figure—

> "For every wight that hath an hous to founde
> Ne renneth nought the work for to beginne
> With rakel hond, but he wol byde a stounde,
> And send his hertes lyne out fro withinne
> Alderfirst his purpos for to winne."

In Aq. (sig. y., v., back) (words not found in Boethius I have placed in parentheses): "Sicut enim artifex (puta edificator) formam faciende rei (sicut domus) mente percipiens (*i. e.* prospiciens) movet (*i. e.* producit) effectum operis."

MARK LIDDELL.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., January 29, 1897.

*For that seems to be the natural inference from Malmesbury's words and the connection in which they occur.

*My citations are taken from the edition of Boethius's *Consolation* printed at Cologne by Henry Quentell in 1493, which I happen to have. Prof. Norton, who possesses also an excellent codex of the *Consolation* written late in the thirteenth or early in the fourteenth century, has a copy of the printed edition of 1491 (Argentina), which Quentell followed very closely, the signatures of the two differing by one page.

THE VENUS OF MELOS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I see in the *Débats* of December 13 last a note on the Venus of Melos which, basing its conclusions on entirely incorrect data, comes naturally to an unjustifiable reconstruction of the statue. It adduces a diary of one M. de Trogoff, an *aspirant* on the ship *Espérance*, who, it is pretended, saw the Venus in its perfect state, etc., a month before the arrival of Dumont d'Urville, who rescued it from the Turkish authorities.

This new evidence is, if not a pure mystification, a pure fabrication, as is clearly shown by the official correspondence on the subject. I saw in 1861 the then French consul at Melos, M. Brest, the son of the consul who saved the statue from the Turks; and his account, he having been present when the statue was discovered in its niche, is absolutely contradictory of this new evidence (?). M. Brest, the father, bought the statue when found of the peasant who found it, and the fact that no French ship was in port at the time is clearly proved by the other fact, which results from the official documents, viz., that the Turkish authorities had seized it and put it on board a Turkish ship which was about to carry it to Constantinople, when it was rescued by Dumont d'Urville just then arriving. The fact that the arms were not found with the torso is proved by the subsequent researches of the elder Brest to find them, as shown in the official correspondence of the day, and the statements of the younger Brest (in every respect in accordance with the published documents of the time) are confirmation of them too strong to be questioned by any such doubtful evidence as that given by the hypothetical M. de Trogoff. If M. Salomon Reinach would take the trouble to look into the records of the navy, which must still be accessible, I think he would be able to show that the supposed M. de Trogoff is a fiction. At any rate,

the unquestionable passage of the history of the discovery, that the statue was taken possession of by the Turks and that its rescue by D'Urville made a diplomatic difficulty at the time, shows that no French ship-of-war was in port when the discovery took place.

The elder Brest, in his last days, under the suggestion of people who had theories to establish, made some curious variations from his original official report, one of which made the niche in which the statue was found a Byzantine chapel; but at that age the memory is subject to all kinds of vagaries, and the documentary evidence of the time cannot be impeached by the late and unsupported statements of the "aspirant" or of M. Matterer. The younger M. Brest, who has lately died, was a man in the prime of life when I saw him at Melos, and his recollection of the matter not only was in agreement with the statements of the original official documents, but was confirmed by another man of Melos, who for many years was the official pilot of the American men-of-war which went to Melos as a station for supplies. If there is anything absolutely determined by the contemporary and official evidence with regard to the finding of the statue, it is that it was found without the arms, and the bringing forward testimony of a purely apocryphal character like that of M. de Trogoff, unconfirmed in the least detail by the unquestioned official documents of the time, is trifling with archæology.

The niche shown to me in 1861 was a rude recess in a garden terrace-wall, intended to serve at the same time as a support to the higher ground above it and to form the boundary of the field in which it was; no structure or signs of building were to be seen near, and it was a long distance from the unfinished theatre, of a Roman date, with which it has been sometimes sought to establish a connection for the statue. There were no ruins of any kind there, and the statue had evidently been simply hidden there. The whole wall was so unsubstantial that when I went, a few years later, to photograph it and the niche, it had entirely disappeared - as M. Brest assured me, owing to excavations in search of antiquities. My second visit was in 1879 or 1880, and the reminiscences of M. Brest perfectly agreed with what he told me in 1861. All the details are to be found in my 'On the Track of Ulysses,' of which I have not a copy accessible at this moment; and they were written down while I was yet fresh from my conversation with Brest.

Now, what is more to the point is the fact that Brest had not got the official documents at my first visit, and therefore could not have based his version on them, but gave me his personal recollections, which were clear and precise, as they generally are with people who read little and write less. He knew nothing of the discussions which have since heated the world of archæology on the subject, and had no temptation to confirm anybody's views. His absolute agreement in all essential particulars with the official correspondence, which I did not at that time myself know, is confirmatory evidence of the strongest character that the arms were never found. When they cleared out the niche, they hoped to find the arms at the bottom of it, which they would not have done had they been in their place.

Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, February 2, 1897.

THE BURNING OF NORFOLK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In connection with Mr. William Henry Sargeant's communication, in No. 1649 of the *Nation*, regarding the joint responsibility of British and Americans for the burning of Norfolk in 1776, the following passage from Hildreth's 'History of the United States,' vol. iii., pp. 117-118, may be of interest:

"After a descent on the eastern shore of Virginia, to whose aid marched two companies of Maryland minute men, being reinforced by the arrival of a British frigate, Dunmore bombarded Norfolk. A party landed and set it on fire. The town was mostly built of wood, and that part of it nearest the water was rapidly consumed. The part which escaped was presently burned by the provincials, to prevent it from becoming a shelter to the enemy."

A footnote to the brief account in Holmes's 'American Annals' (ed. 1805), vol. ii., p. 368, concludes:

"The provincials themselves destroyed the houses and plantations near the water, to deprive the ships of every source of supply."

Mrs. Mercy Warren's 'History of the American Revolution' (ed. 1805) has a similar note (vol. i., p. 203), but less positive:

"It has been asserted by some that the inhabitants themselves assisted in the conflagration of Norfolk, to prevent Lord Dunmore's retaining it as a place of arms."

William MacDonald.

Bowdoin College, February 13, 1897.

EXAMINATIONS FOR ENTRANCE TO GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me to correct a misleading statement on the part of "A Californian Teacher" in your columns with regard to the entrance examinations for German universities. It leaves the impression that the result of such examinations is dependent upon "a board of Government examiners," and not on the teachers of the particular high school from which the candidate is about to be graduated.

The examinations for admission to the universities are held at the high schools (*Gymnasia*, *Realgymnasia*, *Oberrealschulen*). The examining board consists of the teachers of the senior class (*Prima*) of the school, a Commissioner of Education (*Schulrat*) of the Province, and, in case the school is not exclusively supported by the Government, a representative of the patron of the school. In the absence of the Commissioner of Education, the principal (*Director*) of the school takes his place in the examining board. A number of topics for the written examinations preceding the oral examination are proposed by the several teachers of the high schools. From these topics the Commissioner makes his selection. Both written and oral examinations are conducted by the teachers of the high school, the latter in the presence of the Commissioner. The successful passing of the candidate, however, is exclusively dependent upon the votes of his own teachers, and not subject to the approval of "a board of Government examiners." * * *

Notes.

The Berlin Photographic Company, No. 14 East Twenty-third Street, New York, has in preparation 'The Masterworks of the Prado Museum at Madrid,' consisting of 110 photogravures from the original paintings.

Shortly to appear is a 'Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada [in 1896, together with some of the more important publications for 1895]', edited by Prof. George M. Wrong of the University of Toronto, with able collaboration. The term "historical" will embrace books of travel and exploration. The work will form Number 1 of a series of "University of Toronto Studies in History." The publisher is William Briggs, Toronto.

A correspondent at Florence of the *Frankfurter-Zeitung* says that it has now been decided to publish the letters of Michael Angelo, more than 600 in number, in the Archivio Buonarotti, and that the first issue is to appear soon. Although Symonds, when he wrote his biography of this artist, had access to the carefully guarded treasure, very much of great interest remains which he could not use. These letters are pronounced extremely vivid and entertaining. In one of them is enclosed a note from Clement VII. urging Michael Angelo to make haste with what he had in hand, "for you know that Popes do not live long." The unpublished letters will also throw new light on the bitter controversy between Raphael and Michael Angelo.

The corporate name of the Joseph Knight Co., Boston, has been changed to L. C. Page & Co., the business remaining as heretofore.

The judicious buyer has choice of two new reprints of 'Sartor Resartus'—one in the liberal and elegant "Centenary Edition" of Chapman & Hall (New York: Scribners), with steel-engraved portrait of Carlyle after Lawrence; the other in the Athenæum Press Series, under the particular editorship of Prof. Archibald MacMechan of Dalhousie College. The latter is intended not for mere pleasure but for study, to clear up the dark places, and to compare "this spiritual biography and the actual life of Carlyle." Accordingly the fairly open text of 271 pages is supplemented by an introduction of 59, and 130 of notes, while Carlyle's index is attended by an index to the notes and introduction. This is very thorough and painstaking work and will be sure of general appreciation. Even what Prof. MacMechan calls the "few holes in *Sartor's* coat which remain to be neatly darned," are pointed out for more fortunate investigators by the sign "not identified."

Mr. Charles Dexter Allen, author of 'American Bookplates,' publishes a new book on his hobby, called 'Ex-Libris: Essays of a Collector' (Lamson, Wolffe & Co.). It contains much miscellaneous information on the subject, and a number of handsomely engraved copper-plates, of which one, designed by Bewick for Joseph Pollard of Newcastle, and a modern American plate, by Howard Sill, for Mrs. E. M. Gallaudet, are the most pleasing. The edition is limited to 750 copies, and is sumptuously printed. The "essays" are hardly of the readable kind.

The Werner Co.'s 'New American Supplement to the Latest Edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica,' of which we have the first of five volumes (A, B), does not pretend to follow the scheme of the parent work. While it indulges in a certain number of general articles, it is mainly compiled on the dictionary plan, and it admits biographies of living persons, with no great strictness as to eminence. Some of the articles are signed, and with good names, but men of real learning and grasp do not always shine in encyclopædic condensa-

tion. Prof. Pattee's article on *American Literature*, for example, does not reflect the excellent qualities of his 'History of American Literature.' The article on *Architecture* is not written by an ignoramus, but it is quite inadequate. Of the hack-work the article on Thomas Benton may serve as a specimen, for style, lucidity, and trustworthiness. Slovenly English abounds, as, under *Bunker Hill*, "The name of the battle is a misnomer. It was fought on Breed's Hill." The pen-and-ink portraits are very ordinary work. We remark in this volume a list of Agricultural Experiment Stations, an account of Building and Loan Associations, and a Bible text in 242 languages.

Dr. W. T. Harris's 'The Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia' first appeared in 1889, and has now been reissued, without substantial alteration, by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. There have not been many moderns, in these days of critical editions of Dante, who have troubled themselves at all about such matters. We have all been inclined to make philology, or art, or literature out of a work which the author very clearly intended to be a much more serious matter, and Dr. Harris has been almost alone among recent writers in setting his face like a flint against all that would draw him away from the study of Dante's fashion of conceiving man, his acts, his destiny, and his permanent relation to the universe. Most of us doubt the essential truth of Dante's opinion as to man's relation to society and to God, and we may differ equally at times with Dr. Harris's idea of Dante's conception; but to look at Dante's solution of the problem of free-will and sin through Dr. Harris's eyes is a great help to the clarifying of one's own thought and to the understanding of Dante's most vital doctrines. The book is naturally hard reading.

Dr. Scartazzini again enters the field of Dante literature with a book that at last shows him at his best. His somewhat whimsical judgment often led him astray in his elaborate commentary; his versatility has always counted heavily against him; and his multitudinous handbooks for the study of Dante, though convenient and valuable, have proved in the long run less valuable than they seemed at first sight likely to be. But the present thick volume, the first part (A-L) of the 'Enciclopedia Dantesca' (Milan: Hoepli), a "critical dictionary of all that relates to Dante's life and works," has decided merits. The alphabetical arrangement insures order and facilitates reference (none of the handbooks had an index), and the plan enforces brevity and tends to encourage impartiality. The volume is well printed and strongly bound. It serves in part the purpose of a concordance as well as of a dictionary and an encyclopædia, contains a great deal of bibliographical information, and should recommend itself generally to students of Dante.

A recent careful examination of the Provençal and early Italian theories of love, on which Dante's own theory largely depended, is embodied in Mr. L. F. Mott's 'The System of Courtly Love, Studied as an Introduction to the Vita Nuova of Dante,' an essay presented in candidacy for the doctor's degree at Columbia University (Ginn & Co.). The author not only has mastered more completely than his predecessors a very tangled subject, but has expounded it in a thoroughly clear and orderly fashion, with sympathy of thought and grace of expression. It is strongly to be hoped that he will continue his studies far enough to include Petrarch and the extension over Europe of Provençal and Petrarchan influence.

'Forschungen zur ältesten Geschichte von Florenz,' by Robert Davidsohn, is a sort of appendix of 186 pages to vol. i. of his 'Geschichte von Florenz,' already noticed in these columns. It consists of original documents, and enters into a minuter explanation of some obscure events.

'Die Marcus-Säule auf der Piazza Colonna in Rom,' by Eugen Petersen, Alfred von Domaszewski, and Guglielmo Calderini (Munich: Bruckmann) is a magnificent folio, containing text and 128 plates of photographic reproductions of the figures on the column erected to celebrate the victories of Marcus Aurelius over the Marcomanni and other German tribes. The difficult task of photographing the different groups on a large scale has been successfully accomplished, and the explanations in the text are admirably thorough and scholarly.

A well-deserved tribute to a versatile and exceedingly modest Orientalist is Prof. O. Weise's pamphlet entitled 'Der Orientalist Dr. Reinhold Rost, sein Leben und sein Streben' (Leipzig: Teubner). For more than twenty years Dr. Rost was Director of the Library of the East India Office in London, and no one who ever had occasion to use the rare treasures of that unique collection of books and manuscripts will forget his extreme kindness and courtesy. His knowledge of Oriental languages was extensive and peculiar, and he was very conscientious and thorough as examiner in Sanskrit for the Indian civil service.

'Le Parthénon et le Génie Grec,' published by Armand Colin & Cie. (Paris), is the reissue, under a new title, of a work entitled 'Philosophie de l'Architecture en Grèce,' published in 1870. The author, M. Émile Boutmy, is a member of the Institute and present Director of the École Libre des Sciences Politiques. The book is one of those able, readable, and misleading studies which a very intelligent man makes upon a subject with which he is not very familiar. Greek architecture is a subject which has to be understood by a projection of the mind into a vanished past. The monuments have perished, except for formless ruins, their color has left the walls, the sculpture with which they were adorned has been thrown down or wrenched away. The mental image we form of the Greek temple is a highly elaborate structure, built up of many inferences resting upon the dicta of many expert writers. It will not do, then, for the literary man, the sociologist, the publicist, to assert or act upon the belief that, however little trained he may be in art criticism, he is yet free to write down and publish his impressions as a man of cultivation, with an inherent right to judge of those works which appeal to men of cultivation. The Parthenon is not to be judged of by men of cultivation, but only by those who have studied profoundly the important question what the Parthenon was. This, as the book shows, M. Boutmy has never done. It is greatly to be regretted that, before republishing his book, he did not subject it to the needed comparison with the results of modern archæological research—at the probable risk of non-publication in its present state.

Four essays presented in competition for prizes under the Hodgkins Fund of the Smithsonian Institution are now published and distributed: Argon, a new constituent of the atmosphere, by Lord Rayleigh and Prof. Ramsay; Atmospheric Actinometry, by Prof. Duclaux; The Atmosphere in relation to Human Life and Health, by F. A. R. Russell; and Air and Life, by H. de Varigny. The first essay justly received the great Hodgkins prize of $10,000. All the authors are Europeans.

A portrait of the late lamented G. Brown Goode is frontispiece to the handsomely printed 'Register of the District of Columbia Society, Sons of the American Revolution' (Washington, 1896), and testifies to his warm interest in an organization quite outside of his absorbing scientific pursuits. He died in his forty fifth year.

The *Beilage* to the Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* for January 19 and 20 contains an article of nearly twenty columns by E. P. Evans, entitled "Zu den communistischen Bestrebungen in den Vereinigten-Staaten," giving a condensed history of the attempts to establish communistic associations in the United States, and the causes of their failure. The chief cause, according to Prof. Evans, is the strong spirit of individualism as opposed to collectivism in the American people, together with a clear appreciation of the fact that capital and labor are forces not antagonistic, but cooperative in promoting the general welfare. There is no country in which the demagogic attempt to draw a line of demarcation between the "masses" and the "classes" is so difficult, and the attempt to array the former against the latter so absurd, as in the United States. The most prominent representatives of the so-called "classes" spring from the "masses," and their descendants, after a few generations, are often merged in the "masses" again. Nowhere else in the world is the process so rapid and continuous by which labor crystallizes into capital, and capital becomes fluid and fruitful, and flows back into the hands of labor through the channels of industrial enterprise.

American students will find it worth while hereafter to spend a few weeks or months at Frankfort, for the city has been so lucky as to secure for its public library the complete collection of books owned by the late historian and novelist Gustav Freytag. It includes no fewer than 7,365 volumes on the history of civilization in Germany from the fifteenth century to the present day, the result of decades of expert collecting. It is considered the most valuable addition ever made to the Frankfort library in the hundred years of its existence, and a special catalogue is to be printed. Freytag divided his collection into twenty-four departments, under the heads of superstitions, miracles, robbers, popular medicine and diseases, money and prices, customs and fashions, festivities, schools, military matters, the Church, songs, Thirty Years' War, etc.

A wide distribution is to be desired for the Report of the Mayor's Committee on Public Baths and Public Comfort Stations for New York City, of which committee the secretary is Mr. Wm. Howe Tolman, No. 105 East Twenty-second Street. A large amount of historical and statistical information is here brought together concerning both American and foreign experience in the lines indicated. The clearness of the matter is somewhat diminished by an eccentric typography, but on the other hand there are numerous photographic illustrations and a bibliography. The relation between intemperance and the absence of public-comfort stations is here suggested, and is likely to astonish those who have given no thought to the subject.

Public spirit in Providence, R. I., has always been deficient in comparison with the

accumulated wealth of the upper classes, and in a city famous for its private libraries a free public library was long in being established. This institution was fortunate in securing from the start for librarian Mr. William E. Foster, whose intelligent and indefatigable administration has brought it to the pass where a new and adequate building is necessary. Efforts to raise a subscription to enable such a structure to be completed at once, came to nothing, but the alternative of building a part has now been removed by the outright gift of $200,000 from Mr. John Nicholas Brown of Newport. The design having been already prepared, erection can proceed without delay. It derogates nothing from the generosity of this gift to say that the Brown family is as appropriately the patron of public libraries in Providence as the Astors in New York.

During 1896, 188 women students matriculated at the University of Edinburgh; of these, 176 were enrolled in the faculty of arts, 3 in the faculty of science, 6 in the faculty of medicine, and 3 in that of music. Moreover, there were 54 non-matriculates, who paid the five shilling entrance fee—the majority for attendance on the music classes—while 68 women medical students were attending the extra-mural lectures with a view to graduation in medicine. In this connection, it is interesting to note that the first woman, Miss Martha Thomas, who competed for a scholarship in the department of arts at the University of Durham, was successful.

Somerville College, Oxford, has recently made a suggestive experiment in self-government, on the same line of educational development pursued by the men's colleges. It has admitted to "membership" those of its old students who have kept a residence of three years and taken an honor examination; thus giving them the right to share in the election of one-half of the Council. This is in line with the present regulations of the Oxford women's colleges as to diplomas and certificates, the agitation for opening the B.A. degrees of the University to women having shown the importance of giving women the opportunity of proving to the public, whose judgment will ultimately decide the matter, that they are qualified for the coveted degree, by examinations passed under regulations, both as to standing and as to residence, which are equally as rigorous as in the case of men students.

—The Harvard University reports for the past year offer nothing sensational. President Eliot himself discusses no special topic. Yet, as heretofore, the volume will amply repay reading by all educators and by all parents interested directly or indirectly in the higher education. Some general statistics pertain more or less closely to similar institutions; as that "nearly half of those candidates who do not offer Greek at admission fail to enter, and that 81 per cent. of all the candidates for admission offer the history of Greece and Rome rather than the history of England and the United States." (The substitutes for Greek are probably harder than Greek, comments President Eliot.) Again, the annual cost of continuations and periodicals is more than half the income from the invested funds of the Library, and is constantly increasing in proportion. Finally, "the evils of cheating at examination and of handing in copied work as original" have reached a pass where suspension and posting are proposed as the only effective remedy. The Dean's remarks on the subject deserve to be made a tract of. Nothing can be truer than his saying that "the curse of College morals is a double standard—a shifting, for the convenience of the moment, from the character of a responsible man to the character of an irresponsible boy." He instances the case of "ragging" street signs as simple thievery, though not acknowledged as such by students who would be quick to denounce and ostracize men caught stealing books from the Library (a standing evil at Harvard).

—For the second time, Radcliffe College figures on an equal footing with other departments of the University in these reports, and is referred to by President Eliot in his summary. Only eight of its thirty-one students who received the A.B. degree at the last Commencement, took it plain, without distinction. "The proportion of distinguished students," adds President Eliot, "was therefore much higher than in Harvard College, the examinations being precisely alike for the students of the two institutions." This would imply, perhaps, not greater ability, but greater seriousness and application, in the young women. We suppose there can be no doubt that they are really more mature, sex apart, and less childish than their male competitors; football and other manly sports to the contrary notwithstanding. The independent annual reports of Radcliffe College (issued since the University's) shows that the men must look to their laurels in scientific and historical investigation. Mrs. Agassiz enumerates several papers by advanced students printed by courtesy in the Bulletin of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy; Mrs. McDougall's monograph on 'Fugitive Slaves,' and Miss Follett's on 'The Speaker of the House of Representatives'; Miss Davenport's 'Classified List of Printed Material for English Manorial and Agrarian History in the Middle Ages,' already cited for reference to his classes by Prof. Maitland at Cambridge, Eng.; and Miss Thompson's 'The Unity of Fichte's System,' read by request of Prof. Royce at his symposium of Harvard students. For such good work the means of publication by the College itself are as yet wanting. The Dean, Miss Irwin, dwells particularly on the need of a more adequate physical laboratory and a gymnasium; but departmental libraries and lecture halls and dormitories are also held up to the benevolent. Mrs. Agassiz pays a deserved tribute to Mr. Arthur Gilman as the mainspring, in its day of small things, of the College, with which he last September severed his connection.

—The volume of 'Collectanea: Third Series,' just issued by the Oxford Historical Society (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), is peculiarly rich in its contents, both mediæval and modern. It opens with some rolls of Durham College, the Benedictine foundation afterwards replaced by Trinity, including what is probably the earliest (1315) catalogue of books provided for the use of a society of students at Oxford, and one of the earliest (1428) inventories of college furniture; and among the seals figured in the frontispiece occurs one that is almost unique, that of a body of "parishioners" (1326). Then follows a very interesting set of more than a hundred hitherto unprinted petitions to King and Parliament, relating to Oxford in the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth centuries. The nice things the editor of the volume, Prof. Montagu Burrows, a pillar of the Church and of the Conservative party, says of the editor of this particular portion, Miss Toulmin Smith, who has recently become the librarian of Manchester College, the new Unitarian Theological hall at Oxford, are pleasantly symptomatic of the changes taking place in the University. Part III. consists of some contemporary Latin poems, concerning the Town and Gown riots of St. Scholastica's day, edited by Mr. Furneaux with the care he gave aforetime to Tacitus; and Part IV. of a list of the 240 volumes given by William of Wykeham to his foundation of New College. Apropos of this latter, the just remark is made that the friars in their convents with corporate libraries had such advantages over the "unattached" secular students who formed the bulk of the university, that the collegiate movement was an absolute necessity if the friars were not to obtain complete control of the place.

—After this we leap over three hundred years, and come to a series of letters, of which the originals are in the Bodleian, from the second Earl of Clarendon to the Earl of Abingdon, Lord-Lieutenant of Oxfordshire, informing him of the course of Monmouth's rebellion. These are edited with all the thoroughness, exactitude, and complete knowledge of the time which are associated with the name of Mr. Charles Doble. They are followed by a history of the long and futile struggle of Dr. Newton in the eighteenth century to convert Hart Hall into Hertford College, which casts a welcome side-light on academic life. The attention of the English department of Harvard University may be drawn to the rule that "if any Undergraduate, having a *Genius to Poetry*, shall choose to make *Verses* instead of the *Theme* or *Translation* required of him, he may be indulged this Liberty, if the Principal shall think fit, and it shall not be found to draw off his Mind from serious Studies." We cannot refrain from quoting another charming passage, which breathes the patronizing humanitarianism of the century. Dr. Newton believed in early college closing, and the shutting out of latecomers. Otherwise, he moralizes:

"What becomes of the College Porter? Or rather as it should seem, Who cares a Farthing what becomes of him? But still, in a Christian Country, and especially in Colleges erected for Promoting *Religion* and *Moral* Virtue, a regard is to be had to the Happiness of the poorest Creature upon Earth; and tho' All cannot be made equally Happy in their Situations, yet every Condition of Life that can be made Easier, ought to be so. But, if this poor coughing Wretch must be raised out of his Bed, at every Hour of the Night, to answer to the unseasonable Knockings at the Gate of dissolute Men, who consider only what is agreeable to Themselves, and not what Others suffer, there is not a greater Slave in Turkey than a College Porter; and I pronounce that *He* or his *Deputy* shall die a Death immature."

The volume closes with an account of the printing inventions due to the ingenuity or patronage of Charles, Earl of Stanhope (1753-1816), and of his services to the Clarendon Press, from the appropriate pen of Mr. Horace Hart, the present Controller of the Press, forming an interesting chapter in the history of the typographical art. It will be seen that the collection touches an unusually wide range of interests, and it will doubtless be among the most frequently consulted of the publications of the Society.

—'Tales of Naples and the Camorra,' by the late Charles Grant (Macmillan), contains the records of a shrewd and original observer who loved the Neapolitans and the Naples of which he writes, and who has lavished upon these

simple stories all his varied lore as to Neapolitan character, religion, and superstition. Merely superficial local color is, in these days, very easily acquired, but here we have something unique, an intimate and sympathetic knowledge of the *lazzarone*, the *galantuomo*, and the *camorrista* which it seems almost miraculous for an Anglo-Saxon to have acquired. Indeed, the preface confirms what these stories suggest, that the author's long residence at Naples made him the close and confidential friend of a numerous circle in just those humble Neapolitan homes from which a foreigner, and especially an Englishman, is, as such, naturally excluded. Mr. Grant's artistic method is distinctive. The four stories, or sketches, as he calls them, hang together, each one going deeper than its predecessor into the heart of the matter, until in the final story, "Domenico," there is a culminating plot which has a certain connection with the three preceding tales—the whole group forming a sort of novel-writer's tetralogy, and culminating in the tragic retribution which visits Domenico. This *camorrista's* career is pictured with startling sureness of touch, and we are, accidentally, as it were, placed in possession of all the secret ways and works of the Camorra. In such a setting Domenico, who without it would still be a masterpiece of character painting, shows forth as a consummate villain whom it is by no means possible always to abhor, and with whom we sometimes feel an involuntary and most compromising sympathy.

—Dante's pretty little treatise 'On the Vulgar Tongue' (*De vulgari eloquentia*) has had a singular history. It did not see the light until 1529, and then only in an Italian translation. The original Latin was published half a century later, but it is really only within a few years that any attempt has been made to prepare a thorough critical edition of the text. A facsimile of the Grenoble MS. was published in 1892, and Dr. Moore, the first expert to treat the text at all, made use of it in revising the treatise for his edition of the complete works of Dante. What is doubtless the definitive edition, however, now lies before us in the four hundred and odd crown-octavo pages of the first volume of the Italian Dante Society's projected critical edition of Dante's complete works (Le Monnier), on which the learned editor, Prof. Raina, has been employed for many years; the quaint fragment of Dante's philological observation and imagination quite lost in the engulfing mass of modern erudition. This, too, is but a preliminary, for Prof. Raina hopes in a succeeding volume to publish a translation and comment on the content of the treatise, for all here concerns simply the readings of the text. The edition is a monument of acumen and toil, and, in all probability, brings us close to Dante's actual wording; but there are few, in America at least, who are likely to profit greatly by the enormous apparatus. The Italian Dante Society would incur the gratitude of a much larger body of students and scholars, and probably add to its own exchequer, if it would put in the market in due time a simple reprint of the text, with an Italian translation and a few useful notes. Then we must have a new and more accurate English version, and, after six centuries, Dante's suggestive little essay (it is not so different from a doctor's thesis of to-day) will be an open book to us all.

—Paris is stirred to some faint movements of interest or curiosity by the prospect of a new *revanche*. M. Pierre Denis, who was a close friend of Boulanger's, received from him the mission, perhaps the mandate, of taking satisfaction of some of the brave General's unfaithful followers when the proper moment should come. M. Pierre Denis believes that that moment has now arrived, and he is about to take his revenge in a somewhat novel but perfectly characteristic and befitting fashion. He has written a play, and the cowardly deserters are to be court-martialled and executed on the stage of the Nouveau-Théâtre. The piece is in rehearsal, and will be performed on the 16th and 18th of March. The representations will be "private," to avoid the Government censure, but a large number of tickets will be distributed in the political world and in the army. The whole life of Boulanger, from the beginning of his ministry to the final scene in the cemetery of Ixelles, is shown. Around the General appear many of the persons of mark who took part in the Boulangist movement. Some, like Rochefort, keep their true names: these are true friends. The names of others are slightly travestied to indicate their evil nature and bad qualities. The Baron de Mackau becomes the Baron de Kauma; M. Meyer, editor of the *Gaulois*, is called Lévy, director of the *Druide;* M. Mermeix is "éreinté" under the name of Icarus; M. Naquet and Count Dillon also get their deserts, and M. Pierre Denis himself plays the part of Peter the Hermit. Nothing could well be more appropriate than that the Boulangist melodrama should end on the boards of a theatre. In retrospect, and from one point of view, it seems not even a melodrama, but a comedy, or even a farce. Yet for a moment it was serious enough, for the vain, showy, sentimentalist that was Boulanger was once upon the point of precipitating the Third Republic into an abyss as deep as that in which the Second Empire sank.

—A writer in the Berlin *Boersen Courier* has just paid a visit to Eduard von Hartmann. The author of the 'Philosophy of the Unconscious' is now fifty-five years old, and walking (from his old misfortune in the military service) is so difficult to him that he never leaves the house except in an invalid chair. Nor is he able to write more than two or three hours a day, and sometimes he stops work on his books and seeks recreation in writing a few essays or newspaper articles. He has four daughters, only one of whom, he says, has any literary inclinations. He is opposed to current methods of education, his condemnation including the universities, which he calls mere "drill institutes," training-schools for specialists, unable to impart a general culture, which, he thinks, can be attained only by reading books on a large scale. Hartmann spoke rather contemptuously of Nietzsche as a philosopher. He said that both he and Nietzsche owed very much to the influence of Max Stirner; but while he (Hartmann) cheerfully admitted his own indebtedness, Nietzsche was silent regarding it. The visitor having remarked that the vogue of Hartmann's philosophical writings was largely owing to their lucid and popular style, the philosopher surprised him by retorting that he had indeed in his earlier writings taken pains to be as entertaining as possible, but that latterly he had abandoned the attempt to fix the interest by means of antitheses and illustrations, and had adopted the "military style"; explaining that by this term he meant the style used, *e. g.*, by Moltke and Kaiser Wilhelm I., and characterized by the greatest possible clearness, conciseness, directness, and lucidity. This style, he added, was favored by the higher officers in general.

RATZEL'S RACES OF MANKIND.

The History of Mankind. By Professor Friedrich Ratzel. Translated by A. J. Butler. With Introduction by E. B. Tylor, F.R.S. Macmillan Co. 1896. Colored plates, maps, and illustrations. Vol. I., pp. 486.

In introducing this work to the English public, Prof. Tylor characterizes it as a series of "outline sketches," and though he is restrained by virtue of his position from "attacking or defending Ratzel's views on the diffusion of the human species over the globe, the classification of mankind by race and language, and the geography of civilization," he nevertheless does not hesitate to recommend the work as "providing a solid foundation in anthropological study" indispensable to a beginner. Partial as this endorsement seems to be, it is, as far as it goes, "approbation from Sir Hubert Stanley"; and as regards at least the portion of the present volume which treats of "the American-Pacific group of races," it is probably safe to say that, in the sketches here given of the arts and industries, manners and customs, forms of government and religious beliefs of the inhabitants of the Pacific islands, we have the latest word in the story of their development.

Just and fitting as is this tribute, we must not forget that the attempts hitherto made to classify mankind in groups have failed, and that, consequently, ethnology does not yet take rank with the exact sciences. Color of skin, it has been truly said, is often in conflict with shape of skull, and shape of skull does not always agree with texture of hair. Even language, which is probably the best test, is not infallible; and, so far as culture is concerned, the differences existing between tribes of the same generic stock are often so pronounced that what may be safely predicated of one does not necessarily hold good of its nearest neighbor. For this reason, then, as well as because of the resemblances that are found to exist everywhere between peoples in the same stage of development, conclusions based upon resemblances or differences in physical conformation and culture—or perhaps it would be correct to say ethnographical generalizations of any and all kinds—are to be accepted with many grains of allowance. Moreover, it must be confessed that there is no uniformity among ethnologists in the meaning attached to certain terms. Race, for example, may be used in the sense of species, man being the genus; or it may signify, as it does with our author, a mere variety of the human species. Religion, too, is sometimes made to include myths, rites, beliefs, etc., etc.; but to assert (pp. 21, 39, 66, etc.) that among less civilized peoples "it is at once art and science, theology and philosophy, so that civilized life . . . contains nothing which is not embraced by it," is to extend its meaning beyond all limits; and when the term state or kingdom is applied to an insignificant band of savages, or when we are asked to believe (p. 120) that "female sovereigns" are to be found among American Indians, it is certainly time to call a halt and readjust our bearings.

These are some of the pitfalls that beset our path. They are, unfortunately, present in every similar investigation; and though in calling attention to them at this particular time it looks as if we meant to imply that our

author was an especial offender and an unsafe guide, yet, in fact, nothing is farther from our intention. Undoubtedly some of his conclusions rest upon slight foundations, and there are statements which would gain in credibility if the sources of his information were given; but on the whole, even after allowing most liberally for the number of these objectionable features, it is probable that there are fewer errors than might have been expected in a work involving such an immense amount of patient research.

Being thus forewarned, we may now take up our author's story; and, following him back along the path over which man has progressed, we come, finally, in the Old World to two great divisions, the whites and Mongoloids in the northern hemisphere, the negroes in the southern. As there is only one species of man (pp. 9, 10), "the reunion into one real whole of the parts which have diverged after the fashion of sports" is said to be "the unconscious ultimate aim of all the movements" that have taken place since man began his wanderings. This may or may not be true—we do not pretend to decide—but, whether true or not, it is believed to have led to an admixture of the dark and light races along the line of contact, from the northwest point of Africa to the Fiji Islands. As a result of these various mixtures—the negro on one side and the white or Mongol on the other—we have a number of hybrid races scattered about over the earth, some of which have played a not inconsiderable part in their respective spheres. Among these the Malayo-Polynesians (or, as they are here styled, the American-Pacific group of races) are in some respects one of the most interesting. Originating in the southeastern corner of Asia, in a cross (or rather crosses) between the negro and the Malay branch of the great Mongol race, these peoples, under different names and of various degrees of intermixture, have spread over an area covering 210 degrees of longitude and 80 of latitude, thus virtually taking possession of the island world of the Indian and Pacific Oceans. In Madagascar as in Hawaii, and from Formosa to Easter Island, they are everywhere to be found. Even in Australia, where the negro element largely preponderates, traces of the Malay are said (pp. 216, 337) to be visible in the straight hair, prominent cheek-bones, and light-brown tint of the native population.

Whether, in the course of their wanderings, voluntary or enforced, these people reached America is an open question. Our author, however, has no doubt about the matter, for time and again he assures us that America must have been discovered from the west long before the Northmen came from the east; and, basing his conclusion upon the "extension of Asiatic characteristics" over both North and South America, he tells us (p. 154) that the route across Bering Straits was used in preference to that by way of the southeast Pacific. To this conclusion we do not especially object. In open boats, without a compass and guided by the stars and currents, the Malayo-Polynesian sailors had managed to circumnavigate rather more than half the world; and with Easter Island or Japan as a base, there is no reason why they, or some other people of Mongol stock, might not have closed the gap that separates those points from the mainland of America. But, while conceding this, it is well to remember that although, for years, individual Eskimos have passed to and fro across Bering Straits, yet there is no positive proof of intercourse between Polynesia and South America. Such evidence as there is of the fact is to be found in the facility of intercommunication, the resemblances in the arts, industries, manners and customs of the two peoples, and in the agreement which is said to subsist in their religion, their legends, and their bodily conformation. Numerous and striking as these similarities are admitted to be, they are not conclusive, for, granting the existence in eocene times of a land-bridge between Europe and America, it will be found that the reasons for believing in the "affinity" of our Indians with the Mongols are equally efficacious in establishing their connection with the Eurafricans, as Brinton ('Amer. Race,' pp. 30, 32) styles the primitive inhabitants of Western Europe. Indeed, it is possible to go even farther, and, bearing in mind the antiquity of man in this portion of the world, and "the similar manner in which similar needs are met, similar artistic ideas developed, and similar results attained" ('Prehistoric America,' pp. 524–5), we may claim with Dall that the prehistoric civilization of this continent, from "the shell-heap . . . to the structures of Mexico, Central America, and Peru," is distinctively American.

Be this as it may, it is not a point upon which it is safe to dogmatize, for with only one element of the comparison as yet in evidence, the data are not sufficient to justify a conclusion, whatever our author may say to the contrary. When, in a coming volume, we are treated to the promised account of our Indians, we shall be able to institute a series of comparisons between them and their neighbors in Asia and the Pacific Islands which may, perhaps, help us to a knowledge of "the derivation of the old American civilizations." Meanwhile a glance at the condition of these several races with the view of determining their respective positions in the scale of progress may not be without interest. Simple as this process seems to be, it has its difficulties owing to the fact that, although three of these races—the Polynesians, the Micronesians, and the Melanesians—are said (pp. 157-174) to belong to one ethnographical domain, yet, in reality, they differ from each other and among themselves to such an extent that no one picture can be made to serve for all. Unquestionably there is a close connection between them in language, and a certain similarity to be found in their manners, customs, arts, industries, religious beliefs, etc., just as there is among all peoples in the same stage of development. It is also probable that in many of the particulars in which they differ, the differences were of degree rather than of kind. On the other hand, however, the fact that pottery was manufactured in certain islands and not in others, and that only ten years ago (p. 183) "the people on the east shores of New Guinea were still completely in the stone age, while in the west the working of iron had long been known," is believed to indicate differences in culture of such a character that no believer in Morgan's scheme of classification would think of uniting in one and the same class peoples among whom such differences exist.

Other resemblances and differences there are, not, perhaps, of a radical character, but sufficiently pronounced to justify the separate sketch which our author devotes to each one of these races. Thus, for example, taking into consideration the entire group except the so-called American Indian, we find that in some regions agriculture was highly developed; in others it was less advanced; and then again there were localities (p. 337) in which it was unknown. The use of the bow, according to the map (p. 142), seems to have been confined within tortuous limits, as it was common in Melanesia, though practically unknown even in the neighboring islands and Australia. So, too, in their methods of building their houses and boats these peoples differed widely, as they did in their treatment of the women, including under this head marriage, mother-right, etc., as well as in their customs relating to taboo, tattooing, distribution of property, cannibalism, disposal of the dead, and in fact in many other respects. In religion, except in western Malaysia, where Mohammedan missionaries have been at work since the fifteenth century, animism may be said to have prevailed; and in San Christoval the couvade existed in connection with father-right. The quipu (pp. 192 401) was in use in Formosa and elsewhere, and the lasso (p. 418) in Luzon. As early as 1570, Manila possessed guns of native make, though in some quarters stone weapons and utensils are to-day still in use. Mounds were constructed as foundations for houses as well as burial-places, and in one case (p. 307) there is mention of an earthwork in the shape of a lizard.

But it is unnecessary to pursue this subject further. Enough has been said to show that these peoples differed from each other and among themselves; and it will also help us roughly to approximate the places they had respectively reached along the several lines over which it is necessary to pass in the progress from the age of stone to that of iron, or, in other words, from savagery to civilization. Indeed, in this latter respect, the western Malays may be said to have reached the goal, for although they have deteriorated in some of the arts since the time when Brahmin influence was paramount, yet, on the other hand, they now smoke opium (p. 433), counterfeit coin (p. 400), indulge occasionally in the practice of lynch law (p. 450), and insist upon reading the 'Age of Reason' and other free-thinking works (p. 400), much to the disgust of the English missionaries. With such a capacity for "annexing" what is euphemistically termed "foreign culture," what may we not expect of these peoples in the near future?

In conclusion, we may be permitted to call attention to the illustrations, plain and colored, with which the volume abounds. They are taken from specimens in the various European collections, and they convey, in a way no verbal description can attain to, clear and correct ideas of the arts and industries of the peoples with whom we are dealing.

THE COMSTOCK MINES.

The Story of the Mine, as illustrated by the great Comstock Lode of Nevada. By Charles Howard Shinn. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

THE second contribution to the "Story of the West Series" is a history of mining on the Comstock Lode, and a description of the shifting social and economical conditions of the towns which sprang up upon and around that centre of intense mining activity. Mr. Shinn has done wisely in selecting a typical sample of Western mines and tracing its vicissitudes, rather than attempting to tell the whole story of Rocky Mountain mining within the compass of a single volume; and he has performed his work well. He has refrained from bewildering his lay readers, for whom the book is intended, with scientific terms and technical details. On the other

hand, he has described succinctly and with considerable literary skill the Nevada Desert, while it was still, as Western Utah, under Mormon rule; the discovery of placer gold in the gulches and on the hillsides which derived their gravels from the decomposed vein matter of the great lode; and the struggles of the few early prospectors who were so near to fortune, and yet so far.

Neither Henry Thomas Paige Comstock, who earned immortality on about the same terms as Amerigo Vespucci, nor any of the little group of the first diggers and delvers on the slopes of Mount Davidson, drew a large prize in the great mining lottery they were establishing. In fact, so little did they deserve it that they were not aware that the heavy blue sand which inconveniently clogged their sluices, and which they washed away by the ton, was a pure silver ore. Men of greater foresight, and yet even more unfortunate, were the two Grosh brothers, who in 1857 traced the placer gold to its source, and made locations on the great lode; for one brother died of blood-poisoning from a wound at the mines, while the other perished in the snow while trying to cross the Sierra into California in search of financial assistance. One companion remains of these educated pioneers, Dr. Bucke, superintendent of the insane asylum of London, Ontario, but better known as a disciple and worshipper of Walt Whitman.

These men were the real discoverers of the Comstock. But mining commenced only after Harrison, a Truckee farmer, had had some of the troublesome sand assayed in Grass Valley, Cal., and learned that it carried more than $6,000 in gold and silver to the ton. Then commenced the rush from California into Nevada—at first over trails by pack animals, then by road, and lastly by rail. Two groups of mines, one at the northern extremity of the great lode and the other at the southern, were first opened, and some twelve or thirteen bodies of extraordinarily rich surface ore extracted. From these, between 1859 and 1870, about $145,000,000 of gold and silver was taken. But before the latter date the annual yield had fallen off from a maximum of $18,000,000 to $2,000,000; for the first period of exhaustion had already set in. During the first period of prosperity the most prominent figure on the Comstock was W. M. Stewart, afterwards United States Senator, who is said, out of the $10,000,000 wasted on litigation, to have received in fees alone $200,000 annually. But a still more fortunate lawyer was Gen. T. H. Walker, who is credited with receiving for legal services $4,000,000.

The decline, which was the inevitable result of such extravagance, combined with the metallurgical incapacity and want of foresight of the earlier miners and mill men, brought to the front a group of shrewd California financiers, led by William Sharon, the local manager of the Bank of California, and including W. A. Ralston, D. O. Mills, and others. By foreclosure and judicious purchase they, as the Ralston Mill and Mining Co., were for a time the despotic owners of the mills and most of the productive mines. Their supremacy was shaken through the discovery by the superintendent of the Crown Point Mine, the present picturesque Senator Jones, of a body of ore which was saved from the grasp of the Bank of California syndicate. But a still more formidable opposition was being created by another little knot of men of a type very different from the California bankers, viz., John R. Mackay, James C. Fair, two practical miners on the lode, and J. C. Flood and W. S. O'Brien, two saloon-keepers in San Francisco. Mr. Shinn tells how the former, by their intimate knowledge of every mine on Mount Davidson, and the possession of that wonderful instinct which leads some miners to diagnose the presence of ore as unerringly as an old physician puts his finger on the seat of disease, managed to obtain possession of some 1,300 feet of what was supposed to be comparatively worthless ground between the north and south chains of mines, and to sink a shaft on to the marvellous bonanza which soon made the "Consolidated Virginia and California" mines a by-word for inexhaustible wealth. But he is silent as to the important part the two others played in obtaining information from Comstock miners when their tongues wagged too freely over their cups. Mackay and Fair were, however, the guiding spirits of the quartet, and used the large fortunes amassed out of the Comstock in public enterprises which made them both conspicuous figures in the financial world till Fair's death.

The startling vicissitudes of the mines and of the men who at one moment literally rolled in wealth and were as suddenly plunged in poverty, can best be appreciated by the extraordinary vacillations in the value of the stocks of the prominent mines. Under Senator Jones's superintendence, Crown Point stock rose within a year from $2 to $1,828, and Belcher from $1.50 to $1,525. California, which started at $37 in September, 1874, sold for $780 in the January following, but fell by 1880 to $1.25. The 1,310 feet of the lode which the prescience of Mackay and Fair had induced them to stake their all upon, was worth in '69 less than $50,000, but was raised by their discovery of the great bonanza to $160,000,000 within five years.

The conception of the Sutro Tunnel brought into prominence another man of enormous energy and ability, who is still a power on the Pacific Coast. The tunnel was expected to be an inestimable boon to the mines, but did not reach them until 1878, when the great bonanza was exhausted and the mine workings had reached a depth far below that of the tunnel level, and had been abandoned on account of the poverty of the ore and the excessive cost of working when the temperature of the rock was 130° F. and of the water 170° F.

The history of the subsidiary interests and activities is hardly less interesting than the main theme, the more especially as they were generally instituted and conducted by men untrammelled by experience and precedent, and yet of such acute ingenuity and originality that they devised new methods as a matter of course to meet new requirements. The eighteen- to twenty-mule teams which were strung in one continuous column from Sacramento in California to the mines in Nevada were an invention of the Comstock. Fifteen thousand beasts of burden were at one time employed in freighting between these points; and no service to which the horse and mule have ever been attached displays so wonderfully, not only their endurance, but their intelligence and skill. An exhibition of eighteen thoroughly trained mules harnessed to a train of three wagons, in the hands of an expert Western teamster, would elicit more praise at a Madison Square Garden horse-show than the best four-in-hand driving by a gentleman coachman. Water had to be brought from a distance, and for the first time in the history of hydraulic engineering it was conveyed in iron pipes under a pressure of 800 pounds to the square inch. Lumber, to the amount of over fifty million feet a year, was buried annually in the mines as props and framework to support the walls and roofs of the large excavations; and here again, to reduce cost of transportation from the top of the mountain ranges, where alone pine grew, Comstock ingenuity invented the V-shaped flume in which it was shot down into the valley by the irresistible flow of water. To treat the ores, new machinery was devised and old methods modified, so that a new system of extracting silver still goes by the name of the "Washoe"; and since electricity has come into play for generating motive power, a plant which might have been a model for that at Niagara has been running for years deep underground on the Comstock. The dynamos, set in a great excavated chamber at the intersection of a shaft by the Sutro Tunnel, are driven by turbines moved by the volume of water which descends from the upper levels of the mine.

Thus this extraordinary mine not only produced more gold and silver, but has called forth more inventive genius and has given birth to more men who have become notable in the domains of politics and finance, than any other, not only in this country, but perhaps in the world. And the rank and file of toilers in these mines have exhibited in the performance of their daily task more than even the miner's habitual enthusiasm and endurance. But, better still, when occasions of extraordinary danger arose, the Comstock miner never flinched from facing death with more than the courage of the soldier on the battle-field. His heroism was rather that of the volunteer of "the forlorn hope." In the Western miner we find exaggerated the faults and virtues of his class the world over, but one notable trait he certainly possesses to an eminent degree—generosity. We have known the men of a single mine, and that not a big one, to subscribe $700 to send to a country sanitarium in the East a lad who had been injured in the mine, and who was pining away in the confinement of the county hospital.

The story of the Comstock cannot be exactly duplicated in all its romantic details and its vicissitudes by that of any other mining district; but almost as interesting a book could be written of the underground and surface life of such towns as Leadville, Butte, and Tombstone. At any rate, it would be well if we in the East appreciated better than we do the bright side of Western life. The shady side has been too often described in darker colors than should be employed to depict the average condition of Western society, which is, after all, made up from the most energetic and adventurous elements of the East. As long as the West offers excitement, so long will the class that frets under the restraints of highly organized society seek the West. Only when the West becomes more thickly populated, and when every man there must cease to be a law unto himself, will the restless elements of our Eastern population turn as of yore to the sea. One cause of the decadence of our mercantile marine will then be removed. As it is, sailors compose a very large proportion of our Western mining population.

A STUDY OF CROWDS.

The Crowd: A Study of the Popular Mind. By Gustave Le Bon. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THE French work of which 'The Crowd' is a translation is entitled 'Psychologie des Foules,' and belongs, as the author affirms in his preface, to no school. It is put forward

however, as a scientific book, and consequently, as it stands by itself, it must be examined as a scientific inquiry in which the author not only discusses a subject, but invents and explains the method of investigation as well. M. Le Bon has, in fact, a method of his own for studying the popular mind, which is so peculiar as to defy not only classification, but even definition. At bottom it rests upon a single postulate—that a crowd is not a mere collection of individuals, but an organism which is governed by laws of its own; it follows that these laws, under which the organism acts, must be studied and analyzed. The author, therefore, proceeds to describe crowds; the present age being, in his opinion, the era of crowds, as opposed to the era of the individual. He is careful to insist, however, that when he talks of crowds he does not mean any casual collection of human beings brought together by chance, but what he calls a "psychological" crowd—*i. e.*, a crowd in which "the sentiments and ideas of all the persons in the gathering take one and the same direction, and their conscious personality vanishes"; in which "a collective mind" is formed; a crowd which "forms a single being, and is subjected to the law of the mental unity of crowds."

To produce such a crowd, "the simultaneous presence of a number of individuals on one spot" is not necessary. An entire nation may become a psychological crowd under certain circumstances, while hundreds of men gathered together by accident may not constitute a psychological crowd at all. Besides this, a crowd may be composed of dissimilar elements —men, women, children, lawyers, Unitarians, and chiropodists—in which case it is a "heterogeneous" crowd. An instance of a homogeneous crowd would be a sect, a caste, or a class. This book deals with heterogeneous crowds. However composed, there is no crowd in the author's signification of the term until there is a "provisional being," possessed of a sort of "collective mind" which "makes those who compose it feel, think, and act in a manner quite different from that in which each individual of them would feel, think, and act were he in a state of isolation"—just as in chemistry certain elements, when brought into contact with one another, "combine to form a new body possessing properties quite different from those of the bodies that have served to form it."

Into the causes which, according to the author, produce these curious results we have no space to go in detail, but M. Le Bon mentions hypnotism and suggestion as among them, his idea being that, by some process, the individual in a crowd is impelled in a given direction to do certain acts which as an individual he would never do. Mobs composed of respectable men lynch and hang without impartial trial and without sifting evidence; juries bring in verdicts which each individual juryman disapproves; a legislative body will pass a measure to which each member of it is, as a whole, opposed.

Such is the theory; it is followed by a description of the characteristics of crowds, with historical illustrations of the behavior of crowds, much of which is good. When, however, we come to ask (and this is, after all, the test question in matters of this kind), How will a crowd act under given circumstances? we find that the author can tell us nothing more than that it will act in an irrational, irresponsible, and emotional manner. It may act under the influence of a lofty emotion, as did the crowds which followed Peter the Hermit; it may act under the influence of very different passions, as did the Septembriseurs; but what any given crowd will do, no man can tell.

Now, all this we knew before we ever heard of hypnotism, or suggestion, or the law of mental unity, and we are obliged to declare our opinion that M. Le Bon's book is partly a description, in terms of his own, of traits of crowds known to every reader of history, and partly pure fancy. It will be noticed that we give him the full benefit of any doubt that may be suggested by his own system. We admit—though we do not pretend to know how it can be—that a crowd may be an aggregation of individuals not gathered together in any one spot, and that a "psychological" crowd is such an aggregation manifesting the traits which are required to bring it within the limits of the term employed. But, with this concession made, we must insist that his fundamental postulate that a crowd is an organism, governed by laws of its own, independent of the individuals who compose it, is a pure figure of speech. It often *seems* as if a mob were a sentient being following a law of mental unity, but the real reason why a crowd acts so differently from the way in which the individuals composing it would act is capable of explanation without any symbolism of this kind whatever. That reason is that each individual in it who is pursuing some common object, feels as if freed for the time being from responsibility for his acts, and is conscious of power greatly increased.

Very few people who have not devoted a good deal of attention to the subject have any idea how the whole tenor of their life and conduct depends on the constant sense of responsibility, either to opinion or to law, or to both, or what savages and animals they may become if this is withdrawn. Occasionally it is withdrawn from a number of people gathered together for some common purpose, and then in a moment the common purpose is carried out as if by wild beasts, or lunatics, or enthusiasts, without regard to consequences. If the purpose is interrupted by the police or by troops, it is abandoned with the same sense of irresponsibility that it is undertaken, and the individuals who compose the crowd run off as fast as their legs will carry them. Why? Because numbers produce a sense of irresponsible power which lasts only as long as the sense of power lasts.

Almost every trait or characteristic of crowds and mobs can be matched by instances of the same traits displayed by individual tyrants, freed from responsibility and animated by strong emotions. Why is it that dictators and despots have been notorious throughout history for murder, rape, robbery, fire, and slaughter? Simply because they have not been accountable for their acts. Why is it that the constitutional executives of our day are generally just in their dealings with the rights of subjects and citizens? Simply because they are answerable for their acts. In other words, a single person, suddenly feeling the sense of irresponsible power, shows just the same traits that we see in mobs.

We prefer our explanation of the matter to M. Le Bon's because it is simple and adequate, and saves all hypothesis, and accords with what we know of the nature of man. The other is mysterious, and, consequently, although expressed in terms of science, only pseudo-scientific. One additional proof of this is, that the author's speculations lead to nothing. We have searched his book in vain for any conclusion outside of mere description of phenomena. If it were really true that the law of mental unity actually compelled a jury to render a wrong verdict, surely jury trial ought at once to be abandoned. But it does not, because juries are not wholly free from responsibility. The author seems to be in favor of all existing institutions because, though all collective action is the action of a psychological crowd of some kind, the action of some other psychological crowd (like a caste, or a sect, or a bench of magistrates) might be worse. But this is all speculation, unless we have some principle to guide us, and the only principle laid down—that of the entity of the crowd separate and apart from that of the individuals who compose it—can lead to nothing, for it is a metaphor.

We have examined the author's theory at some length because it belongs to a large and constantly increasing class of speculations on human society which mislead the public into believing that they represent "science." What is called "sociology" is made up almost altogether of such speculations, often the work, as in this case, of men of unusual but misdirected ability.

Aspects of Fiction, and Other Ventures in Criticism. By Brander Matthews. Harper & Bros. 1896.

Mr. Matthews's volume justifies the risk that attends collective publication of short papers written, some for a special audience, and all with that keen relish for professional topics which is common to men who love the work they live by. The range is wide, from the Greek drama to the fiction of Mr. Kipling, and the whole is better than any of the parts. It is unfortunate that the very first essay, "American Literature," urges two points with a fervor which it is hard to share. For the sake of truth it is certainly well that American literature shall not be spoken of as an indigenous plant without ancestry or living relations. The phrase "American branch of English literature" has no defect except clumsiness; but the proposal to call everything written in Great Britain during the last century *British literature* implies a too finical devotion to accuracy and a profane disregard for tradition. The inhabitants of the British Islands, however, "have the pull," and, since for several centuries they have agreed to call their literature English, they will doubtless continue to do so as long as there is a man left to read or write.

Going behind literature to language, we are led to infer that the British have set up a claim to exclusive ownership of English, have intimated, with their usual arrogance, that the language has only been lent to America, and may even have threatened to take it back at their pleasure and leave Americans to struggle with Choctaw or any other gibberish they can lay their tongues to. Mr. Matthews disputes this preposterous claim, displaying an agitation which it is extremely difficult to understand. If the British made us a loan of the language so much prized by them, why, observing our disrespectful treatment of it, have they not taken it back long ago? If they mean to take it away, is their dilatoriness explained by a wish to appropriate thoroughly our extensions and improvements before shutting down on us? If there is no danger at all, why does Mr. Matthews alarm us by proclaiming joint ownership as vehemently as if demanding international recognition? Is there any security in the reflection that if the British let us have it

a little longer, when they come to demand it they will never be able to prove the loan? Here they may fall on a root, there on an analogy, but they can never get their pound of flesh in a lump, so they will go away defeated and angry, with no recourse but declamation setting forth the infernal ingenuity of Americans in the matter of repudiating debt.

In this discussion of the ownership of language is not the author a little lacking in that sense of humor which he defines so clearly in his pleasant paper on "The Penalty of Humor"? And had the sense quite abandoned him when he endorsed Mark Twain's silly diatribe against Sir Walter Scott? The wickedness of Sir Walter as discovered and exposed by Mr. Howells and Mark Twain makes one of the most horrifying revelations of our time. Mr. Howells spoke of him as a corrupter of youth (Republican, American youth), and Mark Twain said he had done "measureless harm," and that he was responsible for the duels, the rhetoric, and the comprehensive humbug of the South before the war. It is astonishing that Mr. Matthews should wish to belittle his theory about the reasons for the worthlessness of ante bellum literature by quoting such nonsense at length. If he shares the convictions and feelings of his distinguished compatriots, how can he with conscience cherish a tenderness for Mr. Stevenson and tolerate Mr. Lang? Granting to Mr. Stevenson the advantage insisted on that "he was also a master of the craft [story-telling], a loving, devoted, untiring student of the art, which Scott was not," Mr. Matthews cannot consistently urge such acquired grace as more than compensation for a natural predisposition and an unquenchable desire to imitate Scott's corrupt practices—not unless he should declare boldly that the harm as well as the charm of a story lies in the way it is told, and that Sir Walter's wickedness is all in his imperfect, discursive, haphazard method.

This question of method runs through all the essays, which are therefore full of instruction for the craft. Though Mr. Matthews is an ardent advocate of latter-day fiction, what he calls the "Inevitable," he refrains from scolding writers and readers of the other sorts. His belief in the superior educational value of "inevitable" fiction is common among authors of that school, and must surely add immensely to their esteem and admiration for each other. To the masses, all their talk about education through fiction is as bewildering as if their clergymen were to insist on the amusing and mirth-inspiring quality of sermons, and to commend their perusal for purposes of distraction. Indeed, the only public that takes the Inevitables quite at their own estimate, is made up of groups of ladies whom nature has not attuned to lightness and whom circumstances have rendered inimical to frivolity.

Mountaineering and Exploration in the Japanese Alps. By the Rev. Walter Weston, Member of the Asiatic Society of Japan; Member of the Geographical Society of Tokyo, Japan; Late British Chaplain, Kobe, Japan. With maps and 35 illustrations. London: John Murray; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

SINCE the recent and rapid rise of Japan to prominence it has been possible to sell a book about that country on the strength of its author having once lunched at Yokohama. Yet few of the volumes with which the publishing markets of London and New York have been congested touch more than the fringe of the principal island. Hardly one western reader in a hundred is familiar with the fact that Japan has its mountaineering associations, numbering in the case of the Tomoe kō several thousand members. The important political centres lie on the seaboard, and the casual bookmaker considers that his duty is done when he disposes of them. The hill country of the interior will hardly become a hackneyed subject these ten years.

Mr. Weston is the first member of the Alpine Club to write an extensive book of adventure in the higher mountains of Japan. An occasional tourist finds his way to the top of Asama-yama, and Mr. William Gowland has traversed the Hida-Shinshū range; but Mr. Weston has the field to himself when he essays to write from the standpoint of Ball, Whymper, and Conway. Not a single predecessor has dated his preface at the Eggishorn. Like all explorers who nowadays go far afield, he makes notes on botany, geology, and archæology. Like his congeners, also, he uses the Swiss Alps as a touchstone:

"And so we bade our farewell to the Alps of Japan. They do not, it is true, display the glories of glacier-shrouded peaks, and the scale on which they are built is only two-thirds that of the famous Alps of Switzerland. But the picturesqueness of their valleys, and the magnificence of the dark and silent forests that clothe their massive flanks, surpass anything I have met with in European Alpine wanderings."

A great deal is implied by the statement that one can dispense altogether with ice axe and rope in the ascent of Japanese mountains. Even the sharpest of them, Yarigatake, "the spear-peak," is an alpenstock summit. Facility of conquest is sure to breed contempt among the climbing fraternity, and we doubt whether many of the élite will be tempted by Mr. Weston's descriptions to visit Japan for the express purpose of breaking new ground. It is not altitude alone that counts. Fuji-San stands up well with Sifton and Cook in the southern island of New Zealand, and is actually higher than Mount Assiniboine in the Canadian Rockies. It is comparatively unattractive to the climber from being a mere volcanic cone without foothills. Mr. Whymper found mountains of a similar type in the Andes unprofitable, although they overtop the Caucasus. At any rate Fuji stands alone in point of altitude. A difference of 2,000 feet separates it from its nearest rivals. Mr. Weston climbed the "matchless mountain," but the most entertaining part of his narrative is that which deals with the central range from Ō Renge-San to Ontake. In the summer of 1894 he traversed it from north to south.

In this central range, which seldom soars above 10,000 feet, Yarigatake is to be singled out for its physical features and Ontake for its religious associations. The former peak is somewhat more than the Dent de Jaman and considerably less than the Matterhorn. It rises almost straight from the plain of Matsumoto, and every foot of its stature counts. Mr. Weston tried it without success in 1892, foiled partly by his ambition to ascend from a difficult side and partly by the weather. The next year he tried again and triumphed. The top of Yarigatake, formidable at a distance, seems to have afforded no special difficulty. "The smooth steep slabs, dangerous enough in wet weather, were now perfectly dry, and convenient cracks and ledges gave good hand and foothold everywhere. . . . The actual summit is a narrow platform a few yards long, dropping on the east and west in perpendicular cliffs, and affording a prospect grand and impressive in the extreme." While Yarigatake is climbed only at rare intervals and by persons of adventurous spirit, a shrine on the summit of Ontake is annually frequented by hundreds of white-robed pilgrims who seek by the ascent to obtain purification of the spirit. They are often grouped into societies of a quasi-religious and and a quasi-social character. The members pay an initiation fee and regular dues. When the season for pilgrimage arrives, lots are drawn, and those whom chance designates go at the cost of the society. Volunteer members may go too, but at their own expense. Ontake is a volcano, long dormant, though now and then able to show signs of potential activity. Mr. Weston ascended it from the Fukushima side in August, the month of most general pilgrimage, and furnishes a graphic account of what the pilgrims wore, said, and did. Valuable photographs of a whole company and of the shrine at the summit are reproduced in full-page illustrations. We very much wish that Mr. Weston could have secured a photograph of the *nakaza* whose hypnotic trance he describes.

Although a good many professional hunters are to be found in the Japanese Alps, the local guide is seldom efficient. Mr. Weston tried Kasadake three times before he could overcome the peasants' objection to aid him. In the end he found a hunter of big game, Nakashima, who not only consented to go along, but helped him to elude the villagers of Onsen when they threatened to interfere with the plan. Nakashima explained the reluctance of his countrymen by unfolding their belief in a mountain genius who sends down storms upon the valley if a stranger penetrates his sanctuary. He himself, though not sharing the superstition, revered the mountain deity, lighted candles to him during the ascent, and offered supplication with folded hands.

We should give a false impression of Mr. Weston's 'Mountaineering and Exploration' if we dwelt upon the first branch of the title, to the complete exclusion of the second. The author, besides climbing, went through many remote districts on his way to the peaks, and discourses about the country folk at great length. We are unable to present any portion of the information which he has collected, but we can sincerely say that it is fresh in quality and well arranged. The book as a whole is less exciting than many recent contributions to the library of sport and geographical research, but it will bring fresh credit to the zeal and energy of the Alpine Club.

The Literature of Music. By James E. Matthew. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

IF Mr. Matthew (who is also the author of a 'Manual of Musical History') had called his new work 'My Musical Library,' his title would have been more modest and less misleading than the one he chose. He says in his preface that as long ago as 1839 C. F. Becker wrote a musical bibliography comprising upwards of 6,500 titles, and that probably the most important and best known musical library is that formed by Fétis, containing about 4,200 titles, and now the property of the Belgian nation. Mr. Matthew's collection, he tells us, slightly exceeds that. It is no doubt a most interesting collection, judging from his description of it, but in some of its departments it is ludicrously incomplete. Thus, in the chapter on 'Dictionaries of Music,' no

mention is made of Riemann's 'Musik-Lexicon,' by far the best and most reliable work of its kind in existence; indeed, this prolific and admirable German writer is represented only by his 'Opern-Lexicon.' Quite as strange is the fact that much the most widely read of contemporary German writers on music, who has written historical, æsthetic, and critical works, some of which have passed through a dozen editions—Dr. Hanslick—is not even mentioned in the index. Absolutely inexcusable is the omission of all reference to Liszt's important writings, only one of the six volumes (the 'Chopin') being referred to. Nay, *horribile dictu*, the literary works of Schumann, Weber, Wagner, and Berlioz—the most valuable books on music in existence—are not mentioned! Under such circumstances it is not to be wondered at that although the author seems to have been informed by a kind friend (perhaps the proof-reader) that "the Wagner literature alone forms a large library," his own list includes only nine articles in it. Mr. Matthew's library apparently ceased growing fifteen years ago; but, such being the case, he should not, as already suggested, have called his book 'The Literature of Music.'

A student who wants to know the titles of the most important books on musical subjects will find the 104-page 'Musical Literature List,' published by the Scribners, much more up to date and useful. It is to the antiquarian and curiosity-hunter that Mr. Matthew's book appeals chiefly; and such will find it an interesting guide. The scope of the book is indicated by the heads of the twelve chapters, which are as follows: The Literature of Ancient Music; The Mediæval Writers on Music; Early Works on Music after the Invention of Printing; Musical Literature in the Seventeenth Century; Musical Literature of the Eighteenth Century; Histories of Music; Biography; Dictionaries of Music; Literature of Sacred Music; Literature of the Opera; Literature of Musical Instruments; Literature of Music as a Science; Bibliography of Music.

A Dictionary of Chemical Solubilities. By Arthur Messinger Comey. Macmillan. 1896.

THIS is one of those useful compilations of data whose making represents an enormous amount of painstaking labor. It is the lineal successor of Prof. Storer's 'First Outlines of a Dictionary of Solubilities of Chemical Substances,' which appeared in 1864, in a limited edition, and has never been revised or reprinted. Since then, the growth of chemical science has been so great that when Dr. Comey undertook the present work, a mere revision of Prof. Storer's book was out of the question, and it was necessary to start afresh. This Dr. Comey has done, and in 515 pages presents the collected data in regard to "all analyzed inorganic substances," including the oxides and sulphide of carbon, the carbonates and the simple and complex cyanides. We trust that we are right in the inference that a second volume dealing with the solubilities of organic substances may be looked for from the same source.

In its application in this work, "solubility" is given its largest and loosest meaning, and chemical reactions which yield solutions of one or more of the resulting products are included along with cases of simple "physical" solubility. Thus, the solubility of iron and other metals in acids is given in detail. This broad use of the term, however, does not justify the 'Chemical Solubilities' of the title, which is certainly misleading, and we see no reason for its substitution for the 'Solubilities of Chemical Substances,' which Prof. Storer employed.

The material is arranged alphabetically, and the difficulties which might arise from such arrangement in the present somewhat confused state of chemical nomenclature have been lightened, as far as possible, by abundant cross-references. The solubility of each substance in water is first given, then the specific gravity of aqueous solutions, when such data exist, and their boiling-points; following this is the solubility in inorganic acids, in alkali and salt solutions, and finally in organic substances. It is manifestly impracticable for the compiler of such a work to attempt to verify experimentally the statements of different observers, or to decide between contradictory data in most instances; so all data with any claim to reliability have been given, with references to the original sources so far as possible. The work has been carried out with the care and minute attention essential to success in dealing with such an enormous mass of detail, and appears to be commendably free from errors and omissions.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ames, Prof. J. S. Theory of Physics. Harpers. $1.60.
Baskervill, W. M. Southern Writers. Sidney Lanier. Nashville, Tenn.: Barbee & Smith. 30c.
Beauty and Hygiene. Harpers. 75c.
Benton, Emily E. The Happy Method in Numbers for Little People. Syracuse: C. W. Bardeen.
Boisgobey, Fortuné. Fontenay the Swordsman. Rand, McNally & Co.
Brodhead, Eva W. Bound in Shallows. Harpers. $1.25.
Conner, P. S. P. The Home Squadron under Commodore Conner in the War with Mexico. Philadelphia: The Author.
Cust, Lionel. Albert Dürer's Paintings and Drawings. [Portfolio Monographs.] London: Seeley & Co.; New York: Macmillan.
Daniell, M. G. New Latin Composition. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Educational Review. Vol. XII. June-December, 1896. Henry Holt & Co.
Gordon, Rev. G. A. Immortality and the New Theodicy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Harrington, Prof. K. P., and Tolman, Prof. H. C. Greek and Roman Mythology. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.
Hazard, Dr. M. C. Marriage Chimes for True Lovers. Boston: Pilgrim Press. 75c.
James, Henry. The Spoils of Poynton. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Keightley, S. R. The Last Recruit of Clare's. Harpers. $1.50.
Knoke, Prof. F. Das Varuslager im Habichtswalde. Berlin: R. Gaertner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Lang, Andrew. Pickle the Spy; or, The Incognito of Prince Charles. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.
Mason, Dr. R. O. Telepathy and the Subliminal Self. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Pollok, Col. Fifty Years' Reminiscences of India. Edward Arnold.
Rabb, Kate M. National Epics. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Rhoscomyl, Owen. For the White Rose of Arno. Longmans, Green & Co $1.25.
Romanes, G. J. Essays. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Louis-Napoléon et Mademoiselle de Montijo. Paris: Dentu; New York: Meyer Bros. & Co.
See, T. J. J. Researches on the Evolution of the Stellar Systems. Vol. I. Lynn, Mass.: The Nichols Press.
Stuart, Esmé. Arrested: A Novel. Appletons. $1.
The Evergreen: A Northern Seasonal. The Book of Winter. Edinburgh: Patrick Geddes; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Thompson, N. G., and Cannan, F. L. Hand in Hand Figure Skating. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Thoroddsen, Th. Geschichte der Isländischen Geographie. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 25, 1897.

The Week.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND keeps up what pettish Senator Hoar calls "the modern method of finding fault" with private pension bills. They used to slip through without question, but when you have an Executive who actually examines them, reports them to be often scandalous, and usually based on no rule or reason, and shows that they set a bad precedent, certain to lead to more and more overriding of the general pension laws and emptying of the Treasury, it makes no end of trouble for Senators. Surely, as Senator Gallinger observed, it is "trivial and foolish" to compel the Senate to pass over a Presidential veto bills which should never have been passed at all. For our part, we hope Mr. Cleveland will keep on vetoing every profligate bill that Congress sends him up to the last hour of his term. He at least lays down a principle, and shows up the emptiness of the congressional pretence of desiring to be economical. We suspect one ground of senatorial rage at his vetoes is that they are a practical attempt to enforce economy. Senators say of this, as the French Minister for Foreign Affairs jestingly wrote to the French Minister to England, when the latter reported a saving in the expenses of the London legation, "It is a bad precedent—it is an economy."

The news seems to be pretty well authenticated that Gen. John J. McCook, of the law firm of Alexander & Green, has been designated by Mr. McKinley for the position of Attorney-General. If this be true, the President-elect could hardly have made a better selection. It is an added commendation that he has made this choice, not as a political makeweight, not to please Platt or to displease him, but solely because he has personal knowledge of Mr. McCook's high qualifications for the position. Such an appointment, like that of Mr. Gage to the Treasury, will bring strength to the cabinet, not only in its personnel, but still more in the confidence of the public.

The great opportunity of President McKinley in the cause of an improved public service is to redeem a number of offices, of the highest importance, which probably never could be brought under the classified system, and yet have no more connection with politics than the superintendency of the Coast Survey. Why not once and for all stop the nonsense of turning out the heads of great departments? Why should the Commissioner of Patents and his assistants be changed when the White House changes its politics? Why should the determination of the comparative claims of Bell, Drawbaugh, Gray, Edison, and Berliner to the creation of the telephone be any different next year from what it was last year? Why should the Assistant Treasurer and collectors of internal revenue be changed? What is there about the routine of their office which requires the incumbents to be "in sympathy with the Administration"? The enormous responsibility of an Assistant Treasurer requires him to be a man of the utmost coolness and evenness of temper. More than one admirable Treasurer has resigned from sheer anxiety. Is it likely to conduce to this tranquillity of mind that, as soon as the 4th of March comes, begins the uncertainty of how long he shall be kept in, depending wholly on the pull which the rival candidates have against each other? If Mr. McKinley, who has given such an unexpected mark of superiority to ordinary partisan theories by selecting Mr. Gage for the Treasury, will allow him to keep such of his force as he knows, and every one knows, are doing their work perfectly well, without caring how many hungry Republicans are after their places, he will add a leaf to his civil crown which very few of his predecessors can rival in brilliancy.

The action of the Senate on Thursday in confirming two nominations of Democrats for United States district judgeships, in Nebraska and North Dakota, is to be heartily commended. It was but a fortnight to the 4th of March, and as there was opposition to the confirmation of gold-standard men by silver Democrats, the Republicans could easily have carried both cases over, and so left the vacancies to be filled by McKinley with Republicans. It is an unexpected exhibition of good sense that the nominations of worthy men should have been confirmed under these circumstances, despite the fact that they are Democrats and will assume life offices which might have been captured for Republicans. If the question was regarded purely from the partisan standpoint, however, it was no less shrewd a course that the Republicans took. They needed the votes of gold-standard Democrats last fall, and may want them no less badly again in the future. Slaps in the face would not be the best way of securing a continuance of harmonious relations.

The announcement made by Gov. Bushnell that he intends to appoint Mr. Mark Hanna as Senator from Ohio when Senator Sherman resigns, is not unexpected. The backing and filling which has been noticed in that quarter for some weeks finds a rational explanation if we suppose that the Foraker machine which controls Ohio wanted to know exactly what it would get for letting Mr. Hanna have the office. It may be that Foraker himself would have refused on any terms to take Hanna for a colleague, but it is hard to dispute with the master of twenty legions. Undoubtedly the President-elect could take Foraker's henchmen away from him if necessary. Any augur inspecting the entrails at Cincinnati during the last two or three weeks could have told that there was a struggle going on between federal patronage and the State machine, and could have predicted that Cox, the local boss, would "line up" with the former eventually. The appointment of Hanna is certainly better for Ohio and for the country than that of a henchman of Foraker would be. As Mr. Hanna has never held any public position before, it is too early to make any forecast of his qualities as a Senator. Usually the man who is pitchforked into so high a place without preparation, or demonstrated capacity to fill it, disappoints his friends more than his enemies; but on the other hand we have so many examples of men who climbed up slowly and then turned out badly, that it is impossible to lay down any general rules. In the company of such old stagers as Chandler, Lodge, Quay, Platt, Gorman, and Morgan we think it most likely that Hanna will shine by comparison.

A senatorial deadlock which had lasted a full month was ended in South Dakota on Thursday by the reëlection of Senator Kyle. Mr. Kyle was sent to Washington at the same time with Peffer of Kansas, six years ago, as the result of a political revolution which lost the Republicans one of the new States which they had just admitted in order to strengthen their power in the Senate. Even if such a revolution continue, it is pretty certain to develop new leaders, as Peffer found when he sought another term. Kyle is exceptionally fortunate in getting his reelection, which, indeed, he owes rather to the Republicans than to the Populists, since most of his own party refused to support him. He has been as harmless as a Populist Senator can be expected to be. The other Senator from South Dakota, Pettigrew, who was reëlected by the Republicans two years ago, turned Populist last summer, and supported Bryan in the Presidential campaign. Both of the Senators from this new State are now, therefore, Populists, with terms running four and six years. Of the other new States, Idaho and Washington have this winter elected Populist Senators; and Utah has chosen a Democrat who accepts the Populist financial

platform. One of North Dakota's Senators for the past four years has been a Democrat, whose term has two years yet to run. Here are six opposition Senators out of fourteen from those seven States. In addition, there are some among the remaining eight, like Cannon of Utah and Carter of Montana, who are entirely out of sympathy with the Republican position regarding the silver question, and whose attitude towards the party policy in the next Congress is uncertain. Never was an attempt to strengthen a political organization by unjustifiable means so completely defeated by the course of events as the Republican policy of securing permanent control of the Senate by admitting a lot of new States a few years ago.

Senator Wolcott has returned to London from his swing around the circle, and says that he has good reason to believe that his mission will have some of the good results hoped for. One of the results hoped for is the reëlection of Senator Wolcott—when the time comes; and to this result we are easily resigned. Mr. Wolcott made his mark as the only Senator who dared to proclaim the truth when the Venezuelan excitement was blazing in Washington city one year ago. He set a noble example. He rendered a great service. He really recalled the best examples of the past when the Senate was the country's greatest power and pride. Not less, but perhaps even more notably, did Mr. Wolcott vindicate his manhood when he refused to follow his colleague Teller in the support of Bryan last year. He took his political life in his hands then, and it would be a pity if he were to lose it. But, although our sympathies go out to Mr. Wolcott as a Senator and a man, they do not follow him as a hunter after international conferences. We think that he will fail, or rather that he has already failed, in that aim. We feel very sure that the saying of the *North German Gazette* will prove true, that the interview accorded to him by Prince Hohenlohe was purely one of courtesy, and did not partake of an official character, and that the same is true of his visits to London and Paris. The governments of the Old World do not comprehend the kind of diplomacy that takes place outside of diplomatic circles. Moreover, they have had a good deal of experience of this back-door bimetallic solicitation on our part and of the consequences thereof. They have acquired the art of shifting upon each other the onus of declining. What France, for instance, means when she says that she cannot go into bimetallism unless Germany and England do likewise, is that she hopes that Germany and England will do nothing of the kind. She knows, too, that she does not run much risk.

After long and somewhat mysterious sticking in the committee on coinage, the bill for an international bimetallic conference was reported to the House on Monday. An amendment has been tacked on giving the President the option of proceeding by way of diplomatic negotiations, instead of a conference, if he thinks he can more easily debase our currency by that method. This doubles the humbug without decreasing the danger of the bill. We suppose it will pass the House, though evidently not without debate and the telling of unpalatable truth by some Republicans. But the long delay of the bill has given President Cleveland a chance, which we sincerely trust he will improve, to kill it by a pocket veto. It is even hinted that Speaker Reed has nursed the measure along for the express purpose of getting it finally crushed in that way. However that may be, we hope to see the President's refusal to sign the bill. He may, of course, argue that it is a matter solely affecting his successor, and that courtesy to him would suggest letting the bill become a law. But we think a higher view, both of propriety and duty, would lead him to have neither part nor lot in such a tricky and dangerous measure, and to make his record for opposing all forms of unsound currency complete and consistent down to the very end of his term. Let Mr. McKinley pull his own bimetallic chestnuts out of the fire.

The bill "to increase the efficiency of the foreign service of the United States and to provide for the reorganization of the consular service," which the Foreign Affairs Committee of the House agreed last week to report favorably, is not, of course, expected to become a law this session. It will be, however, a basis for legislation in the next Congress, and really marks of itself a great opening of the congressional mind to the facts which reformers and business men have long been proclaiming. It is a little late, but it is none the less welcome, to have a congressional committee declare:

> "Our consuls should be trained for their positions and pass an examination on such subjects as the laws regulating shipping, the commercial treaties existing between their own and other countries, the laws relating to intestates, on the consular regulations of the United States, and on such other subjects as relate to their duties. They should also be required to have a practical knowledge of French or of the language of the country to which they are to be sent."

The report also dwells, in what would once have been thought the most fawning way, upon the experience of Great Britain, and even ventures to ask and answer the deadly question, "Where will such a specially educated class come from?" From the young men of the country, it replies, now crowding the professions and ready and eager to enter upon a diplomatic career, if it were only to be made a career where intelligence and fidelity would be rewarded as in other callings. Into the details of the bill, with its provisions for boards of examiners and classification of consuls, it is not necessary now to enter. As it stands, it is a most reassuring sign of the times and of the steady progress in rescuing the public service from the spoilsmen which we are making.

The present House of Representatives, after voting $15,000,000 for rivers and harbors and public buildings, seems disposed to economize on battle-ships. We see no objection to this, although we see very much to the appropriation in question. It is certain that the line must be drawn somewhere if the McKinley Administration is to be saved from wreck on the financial side, and it had better be drawn at warlike rather than at peaceful expenditures. "In time of peace prepare for war," is an adage better suited to a past age than to the present, and to other parts of the world than to this. Most likely our half-civilized Senate, that refuses or neglects to ratify the treaty of arbitration that has been negotiated at its own instance after great trouble and difficulty, will pile on a battle-ship amendment when the bill reaches that body. If so, we hope that the House will stand firm or that the President will kill the bill. The present session has now reached the stage where he can put any bill to death by doing nothing to it. The sundry civil bill, with its monstrous appropriation of $50,000,000, is in that category.

Our old friends of the American Screw Company had their annual meeting at Providence a few days ago. The report of the President and Board of Directors contains some wholesome views on the subject of the tariff. It says:

> "We have gotten beyond the necessity for a high tariff; pools have proven to be of no permanent advantage to us; we have to adapt ourselves to new methods of manufacture and new conditions requiring adjustment which only time can accomplish, but are hopeful that with reviving confidence in general business and a larger demand for our product—the greater because of enforced economies of late—by this time next year we may inform you of a more prosperous business and a larger employment of our plant than for many years past, and at moderately remunerative rates."

In other words, the tariff has exhausted itself so far as this industry is concerned. It has exhausted itself as to steel rails, steel billets, pig iron, and many other things on which high duties are still retained which have no *raison d'être*. Some of the tariff organs, a little flustered, are telling us that this condition has been brought about by protection itself. We have no wish to discuss an abstraction, nor to deprive them of a belief which gives them comfort. If they will simply join in repealing duties which they concede to be no longer needed, we shall not seek to deprive them of a pious opinion.

The *American Manufacturer* of Pittsburgh has a very striking letter from England on the subject of the introduction into British markets of American steel billets and bars on a scale of com-

mercial magnitude. The amounts imported or contracted for are said to reach 22,000 tons. At first this news was received with incredulity, for although the importation of American pig iron has been going on for some time, it was not believed possible that American steel could be laid down in England in competition with their own producers. The fact which they have to face, however, is that steel bars from the Carnegie works are regularly imported into Staffordshire for sheet-iron mills, and into Lancashire for wire works, at 5s. to 7s. 6d. per ton *less* than the actual selling price of British billets. The opinion of British makers is that the present conditions are exceptional and due to the depressed condition of trade in the United States. The belief is expressed that when trade revives there will be a rise of prices in this country which will prevent the continuance of the export movement. The answer is that there is no obstacle to the increase of production in this country to meet any demand, domestic or foreign. That is, the raw materials exist here in the greatest abundance, and there is no limit to the multiplication of machinery. Hence if the home demand should overtake the supply it would be only for a short time. The United States has entered on a new career as a manufacturing country, and, so far as steel is concerned, the conviction is slowly forcing itself on both British and Continental opinion that we have not only the best supplies of raw material, but also better apparatus for working it than exists anywhere else in the world.

One of the most open efforts which have been made thus far to destroy the secrecy of the new ballot system appears in a proposition which is before the New Hampshire Legislature. This is, that, in towns and wards casting 250 votes or more, the election officers be permitted to begin sorting and counting the vote before the polls close, "so as to make an early declaration possible." This would enable the party managers to ascertain the state of the poll at any time, and thus lay plans to change the result if possible. It would enable them to drum up recruits, buy votes, or do anything else within their power to save the day if they saw that the election was going against them. Corrupt voters would hold back till the last hour in order to dispose of their goods under the most favorable conditions, and a state of affairs would be created which would make the ballot a farce. It is fitting that this proposition should be accompanied by another, doubling the number of names now required to make a nomination by petition. Both are assaults upon the Australian system as an aid to good government through honest elections, and if the people of New Hampshire allow them to become law they will find themselves put back where they were before the new system was established.

Gov. Black's hope of taking the starch out of our civil-service law received its quietus in the decision of the Second Appellate Division of the Supreme Court on Friday, sustaining unanimously the previous decision of Justice Keogh as to the self-executing character of the civil-service-reform amendment to the Constitution. Summed up in a sentence, the decision is that the Constitution is supreme, and that it gives the courts power to review the action of the Governor, Legislature, mayors, heads of departments, and civil-service commissioners, and to compel them to comply with the constitutional mandate to make all appointments and promotions according to merit and fitness, ascertained, so far as practicable, by competitive examinations. The only question to be considered is as to the "practicability" of such examinations, and this is not to be decided by the officials, but by the courts, and they have decided, in all cases which have come before them, in favor of practicability. The courts, in fact, from the lowest to the highest, are now arrayed in solid ranks against Gov. Black and the Gruber-Van Allen Progressives, and the outlook for breaking down the "civil service" or in any way weakening the rigor of its administration is hopelessly dark. By appealing to the courts, the reformers can compel any official, whether the Legislature has included his department under the civil-service regulations or not, to select his subordinates only after competitive examinations. District-Attorney Olcott should think seriously on this subject and bow to the inevitable before he is forced to do so.

The protest which Mayor Strong and President Low have filed against the bipartisan Police Board, Municipal Assembly, and power-of-removal provisions of the new charter is a most welcome document. It will furnish a strong working basis for a full and rational discussion of the charter, and this we have not yet had. Their objections are precisely those which have been made many times in these columns, and in making them now Mr. Low puts himself again upon the impregnable ground which he occupied in his chapter in Mr. Bryce's 'American Commonwealth' and in his *Century Magazine* article. This city has at last secured official utterance as to its rights in the matter, and its voice must be heeded at Albany. If we must have a new charter at once, let us at least have it in the best form possible, and not in its present undeniably bad form, because, as Messrs. Strong and Low say, it has in three most important particulars been "constructed upon a wrong theory." There is ample time in which to amemd it and make it conform to the right theory, or to the teaching of a half century of experience.

The Hawaiians are getting ready, with the other people who want something desperately, to move on McKinley in Washington early in March. They are evidently a little nervous about the Republican cooling towards annexation. That passage in the 'Recollections' of the new Secretary of State in which he pledged himself to do "nothing to extend its [the United States] limits or to add new dangers by acquisition of foreign territory," has been the subject of much sad pondering in Honolulu. The only hope there is, that Sherman didn't really mean it, or that McKinley had not heard of this when he chose his head of the State Department. Another cause of annexation dejection is the result of a private canvass of the United States Senate. Letters were received by a Honolulu business man from "about thirty" Senators whose present views on annexation he had sought. Eleven of these either declined to commit themselves or were positively opposed to annexation. It is obvious that if that proportion holds, no treaty of annexation could pass the Senate. The real difficulty is, as the Hawaiians are finding out, that the furious desire of the Republicans to annex Hawaii three years ago was strictly for that time and against that President only. Now, we fear, there will be a disgusting disposition to consider any treaty of annexation on its merits.

The Powers acting in concert about Crete still hold the Greek wolf by the ears, and are bringing what pressure they can to bear on King George's Government to make it easy for them to let go. The King has issued a proclamation beseeching popular calm and self-restraint, with what prospect one may judge from our Athens letter, on another page, in which the Greek temperament is shown in quite a different connection. The wolf, meanwhile, has got its lodgment in Crete in the shape of Colonel Vassos and his regulars, and, as in Munchausen's fable, seems likely to eat its way into the Moslem carcass in spite of, or even because of, the blockade, which, if it keeps out reinforcements and supplies from the mainland, equally repels Turkish interference. What may happen on the Thessalian border before Greece is coerced into leaving the fate of Crete in the hands of the Powers, no one can tell. The "concert" is by no means perfect, and is liable to vary through every degree to discord in the event of certain contingencies. If the Eastern Question could be settled by gunboats alone, it would present little difficulty. But a general uprising in the Balkan Peninsula is not to be met by shutting up the Peiræus or bombarding insurgents from the port of Canea.

HAPPY-GO-LUCKY FINANCE.

The haphazard management of our national revenue and expenditure glares at one whichever way he may look in Washington. The President advised Congress to be economical, to give the Wilson bill a chance, and to fall back on the Treasury surplus to meet a temporary deficit. Congress vowed it was horrible to think of using for current expenses money got by bond-sales, but has gone ahead and voted such swollen appropriations that this very money will have to be used to pay them. As for the Wilson bill, that must be replaced as speedily as possible, for two reasons: first, it was flooding and ruining the country with foreign imports; second, it was not bringing in enough imports to furnish a decent revenue. The fact that these two reasons kill each other is only a motive for urging them both with added vehemence. Equal consistency and beautiful logic are revealed in the scheme of the new tariff bill. Rates are to be marked up so as to keep out imports, and are to be so high that the duties on imports will fairly flood the Treasury with money.

These illustrations of our happy-go-lucky methods in public finance might be indefinitely multiplied. The truth is, we have trusted to luck and have blundered cheerfully ahead for the past ten years. Secretary Fairchild was the last head of the Treasury able to estimate the national revenue without being ludicrously wide of the mark. His successor, Mr. Windom, complimented him on his accurate forecast, but since then the guessing has been wild. Senator Aldrich, the great tariff expert, was many millions out of the way in stating what the revenue from the McKinley bill would be. Yet he and Mr. Dingley will soon be telling the country to a dollar what amount of revenue the new McKinley bill will yield. Mr. McKinley brought in his bill with the distinct assertion that it was meant to raise prices, yet within two years he was presiding over a Republican national convention which solemnly declared that the effect of his bill had been to lower prices.

Is it any wonder that, with such men and such methods in control of our national finance, we have ceased to produce financiers in public life? Gen. Garfield was the last chairman of the ways and means committee whose speeches showed economic insight and knowledge, who had a firm grasp of the principles of taxation, and whose annual summing up of the nation's income and outgo possessed something of the skill and interest of Mr. Gladstone's speeches on the English budget. Since then we have gone riotously forward, presuming on our rude health to enable us to pull through every imprudence. For long years we seemed able to do so with ease. The surplus kept heaping up in spite of extravagance, with the result of encouraging us to fresh extravagance. But we at last found that even the vigorous American system could not endure a prolonged financial debauch. For four years we have been suffering the well-known "next-morning" symptoms. The patient reluctantly admits that he is ill and sends for the doctor.

But what treatment does Dr. Dingley prescribe? Why, from all accounts, another course of high living. No economy—no leaving off the liqueurs and *pousse-cafés* to which the pampered patient has been accustomed; he would be angry and might change physicians if that were suggested. The thing to be recommended is a going back to the full feeding of the McKinley bill. High duties and thumping revenues will make all well again. That, as nearly as we are able to gather, is the new Dingley-McKinley programme.

Now it must be pointed out that this old happy-go-lucky method of doing it is no longer possible. Conditions have so changed since 1883 and 1890 that tariff legislation which was reasonable in those years, considered from the point of view of revenue, will now be only ludicrous. The case was clearly stated by Secretary Carlisle in his last annual report. Mr. Carlisle is, every protectionist knows, a very bad man; but he happens to have a terribly lucid intellect, and a habit of leaving irrefragable statements behind him for his opponents to break their teeth on. Such a statement he made bearing upon the point in hand, and it is this:

> "Nor do I believe that, under existing industrial and trade conditions here and abroad, an increase of duties upon articles now dutiable, with the exception of a few which are not produced at all in this country and others which are not produced in sufficient quantities to supply the demands of our own people, would yield the Government much, if any, additional revenue. What has already been said concerning the ability of our manufacturers and others to command the home market, to the exclusion of foreign products similar to their own, shows that in the selection of imported articles for taxation for the purpose of raising revenue the Government is necessarily confined to comparatively narrow limits. The cost of production in all the great manufacturing nations has been so nearly equalized by modern inventions and economies that movements of their several products from one to another cannot take place upon a large scale, or for any considerable length of time, if these products are burdened in the markets to which they are sent with charges to which they are not subjected in the countries of their origin; and this tendency toward equalization of cost is still going on and must continue. A very small tax or charge will now entirely prevent the importation of many articles which a few years ago constituted a large proportion of our total dutiable merchandise and contributed very materially to our public revenues. . . . Some increase of revenue might be secured by imposing higher rates, but even this will prove to be an annually diminishing amount except in the cases of such articles as cannot on account of natural conditions be hereafter produced here."

Since Mr. Carlisle wrote this, events in the commercial world have strikingly confirmed it. Imports under the Wilson bill have not increased, despite the apparent imminence of higher duties. Always before, in such circumstances, imports have run up enormously. A perfect flood came in the last few months before the McKinley bill took effect. To guard against a similar thing now has been one of the great worries of Mr. Dingley. But if the trade returns keep on as they have been going, he need not trouble himself. There will be no deluge of importations. The reason is that in all the old protected lines of manufacture the American producer is more and more completely supplying the home market. Cost of production has been so reduced in one way and another that it is now the European manufacturer who is afraid of the American. It follows that the good old days of putting on a high duty both to protect and to bring in revenue are past. Mr. Dingley will have to make his election. He can have protection or he can have revenue; he cannot have both by the same measure. What he will really be driven to, it is almost certain, is some new form of taxation. Profligate Congresses can no longer be supported on a customs revenue. There will have to be new objects of taxation and sources of revenue, with the appropriations running steadily above a billion dollars. Mr. Dingley may try to get on by the old happy-go-lucky method, but he will surely find that it will be neither happy nor lucky, and that it will not go.

MR. FOWLER'S SPEECH.

Congressman Fowler's speech at the Massachusetts Reform Club's dinner is a valuable contribution to the political as well as the financial thought of the day. It is important most of all for its boldness. Mr. Fowler "takes the bull by the horns." There is no other way to take the bull, because his horns will be thrust through us if they are not stopped in some way. The situation is changed by the election of last year only as regards time. The victors in that contest have time to put the finances of the nation on a new footing. Unless they do so they will find in the next campaign the same kind of battle that they had in 1896. The issue will be free coinage at 16 to 1, which means the single silver standard. The Bryanites may trim their platform somewhat differently as regards the Supreme Court. They may make themselves a trifle less obnoxious on the score of anarchism, but on the question of depreciation of the standard of value, which is the main question, they will be not one whit better, but will be more confident than ever. The only chance of beating them is by changing the issue and bringing back business prosperity. It is possible to do this, but it requires the boldest and most decisive measures.

It is an irrefragable proposition that the present depression in trade and industry is due to want of confidence in the standard of value, for, as Mr. Fowler puts it, "the question is still open for debate whether the American dollar is really fifty or one hundred cents." This is a fact known to all men. Every member of Congress, of every shade of belief,

understands and feels it. Mr. Fowler proceeded as follows, and we quote his words, not because they contain anything novel, but because they are put before the public without varnish by a member of the committee of the House of Representatives having these things in charge:

"Have you ever thought of it? We are subjecting our national honor to a daily debate at every directors' table where a discussion is had about securities. In every broker's office, in every lawyer's rooms where loans are negotiated, in every home where investments are talked over, the possibility of a change in our standard of value lurks like a 'skeleton in the closet.'

"Across our minds in hot pursuit, following this frightful possibility of dishonor, sweep our demand obligations, now amounting to more than $1,000,000,000, making us shudder to think that the terms of our nation's obligations are such that while the Secretary of the Treasury under Mr. McKinley will see a gold background to the word 'coin,' a Secretary of the Treasury under Mr. Bryan would have seen only a black background, symbolizing death to our credit and eternal dishonor to our nation's name."

The Bryanites understand this as well as anybody. They know that business revival and national prosperity are impossible while doubt hangs over the standard of value. For this reason they will oppose everything that looks to a change. They are satisfied, in a political sense, with things as they are, because they believe that time is working for them. They are right in thinking so. The only hope for the Republicans lies in progress. If the political complexion of the Senate prevents decisive legislation, they can at least make a start. They can get in line and show what they would do if they had the power. If the action so proposed is on the lines marked out by the Indianapolis conference, that fact will help to restore confidence and also to bring the Senate once more under Republican control.

Mr. Fowler agrees with the Indianapolis conference that the first step should be the funding of the entire Government debt, including all its circulating notes, into bonds bearing 2 per cent. interest. He believes that this can be done. If the bonds are made specifically payable in gold, he is probably right. British 2½ per cent. consols are now selling at 112¼. Our credit ought to be as good. Mr. Fowler has a banking scheme of his own which he thinks would furnish a market for those 2 per cents. We need not go into the details of that plan now, because we think that the sale of a Government bond at 2 per cent., if all doubt as to the standard of value is removed, is possible. Bankers can answer that question. The result would be a saving of nearly $15,500,000 of annual interest. This meets the objection that the Government now saves the interest on the amount represented by its circulating notes. It does nothing of the kind. The existence of these notes, as Comptroller Eckels showed in his last annual report, is a greater expense to the Government than the interest on a corresponding amount of bonds would be. The notes depress the Government credit and prevent it from borrowing at the lowest market rate. Being a menace to the Government credit, they operate still more disastrously on private credit. They are the rock ahead of every business enterprise whatsoever. We shall never have permanent prosperity again while they are outstanding.

These truths need to be reiterated. It is seldom that they are presented more forcibly than they were by Mr. Fowler at Boston. They point the only path of safety to the Republican party. Will the party have the courage to take the bull by the horns? There was one similar occasion when it did have such courage, and it profited greatly thereby. In 1875 the Republicans were in a worse position politically than they are in to-day. Public opinion, looked at superficially, was not more favorable to specie resumption then than it is to greenback retirement now. Yet the party was *in extremis*. Action of some kind was indispensably necessary. It was death to stand still. The party passed the resumption act and was saved.

SOUTHERN ELECTION METHODS.

THE treatment of election contests by Congress this winter merits more attention and commendation than it has received. Less partisanship has been exhibited in the action, both of the House committee and of the whole body, than ever before, and a number of Southern Democrats have been retained in their seats by the votes of Northern Republicans when the cases of the contestants were quite as strong as have served in the past to excuse contrary action. Even when the claim was made that Republican negroes had virtually been defrauded of their rights by the establishment of an educational qualification, through the Australian ballot system, which was not fairly enforced, New England Representatives have refused to turn out sitting Democrats. In the Virginia case of Yost against Tucker Mr. McCall of Massachusetts, in closing his speech in behalf of the sitting Democrat, said:

"We have for years here attempted to build up the Republican party in the South by seating this man and that man and by patronage; and the result is that they display their chief vitality and strength in our national Republican conventions, where they generally appear with as many different delegations as there are candidates for the Presidency. I say, what the Republicans of the South now need is to be treated upon robust principles. They have been coddled to the point of destruction. But, first and foremost, we should do justice to the people of Virginia. That record clearly shows to my mind that the people of the Tenth District are an honest people. And when to day it appears that they have chosen a Representative in conformity with their laws, we should not be guilty of the partisan action of turning him from our doors."

This attitude of the Northern Republicans in Congress shows that all danger of an attempt to revive force-bill legislation is past, and that the nation has finally concluded to leave all the questions involved in Southern election methods to be settled by the people of that section. Undoubtedly this determination will hasten a just solution of the problem. So long as the Southern whites were threatened with federal interference in their elections, local sentiment was devoted to averting this danger rather than reforming the evils which furnished the excuse for force bills. Since the federal election laws were repealed three years ago, public opinion throughout the South has been developing in the right direction more rapidly than during the whole quarter of a century before that time.

The first thing to be secured was a realization of the fact that cheating in elections was an evil not to be endured. This conviction was never before so general as now. The practice was started by whites who wanted to defraud blacks of their votes. As was inevitable, it has been extended in its range until one faction of whites cheats another. This has been done by the Tillman faction against the Conservatives in South Carolina, by the dominant element in Alabama Democracy against first the Kolbites and later the sound-money men, and in Tennessee by the silver wing of the Memphis Democracy against Congressman Patterson's supporters; while the Republicans of the latter State, largely whites, have been defrauded of the Governorship twice in succession by the white Democrats.

Never before has the Southern press reflected so strong a public sentiment against the continuance of such practices as during the present winter. Indeed, the necessity of putting an end to such frauds is now generally recognized as the most urgent issue. An interesting controversy now going on in the Mississippi press shows how the whites of that State are coming to realize that the practical elimination of the negro vote is no assurance of good government. The Vicksburg *Commercial Herald* recently declared that "the single-party condition," which now exists in Mississippi, "means political despotism," and that, by reason of such despotism, scandals on the part of public officials are possible which would be out of the question were party relations normal. Its statement having been challenged, the *Commercial Herald* repeats it with specifications, as follows:

"In the campaign of 1895 the drunken sprees of a certain candidate for high office were simply notorious and gross. But for the abnormal political condition of the State, he would have been forced from the race by the temperance and moral sentiment of the State. On the contrary, he was triumphantly nominated. During the sitting of the Legislature a judicial appointment was foreshadowed of one whose reputation for drunkenness was so flagrant that a revolt was stirred against it. It was heard of no more until the Legislature had adjourned and the check of a Senate confirmation was not immediately impending. Then the appointment was made. Would these things have been possible were there two parties, rivals in the public confidence, in Mississippi?"

No less encouraging from another point

of view is a recent deliverance by a representative black man of Mississippi. Bishop Derrick of the African Methodist Episcopal Church, whose charge covers the States of Mississippi and Arkansas, recently attended a meeting of the bishops in New Orleans, and had some very hopeful things to report. Going from the North, he confesses himself "surprised at the willingness on the part of the business element to accord recognition to colored men who are carrying on commercial as well as farming business"; and says that "the relations existing between the races are far better than I had any conception they were." The Bishop speaks enthusiastically of the provision made by the State for the education of children without regard to color, and the "disposition to enlighten the masses, that they may become intelligent and law-abiding citizens." He proceeds to make this striking statement regarding the suffrage question:

"I do not, like some of my people, condemn the Mississippi Constitution and the 'understanding' clause in it. It may not be just what it should, but yet I think it will tend to help my people. For instance, in all parts of this large State you find negro boys by the hundreds in school, becoming educated. Well, for a while that clause may disfranchise a large number of voters, but in ten years from now that class of men who are going through the schools will become intelligent voters, and will wield the balance of power in politics, thereby giving to the negro a prominent place in the political world."

The Northern Republicans in Congress who refuse any longer to try righting wrongs in Southern elections by passing force bills, or by voting Republican claimants into seats in the House, are fully justified by the course of events. That section only needs to be left to itself, and the decent elements of both races will work out a cure of the evil.

TROUBLE IN THE UNIVERSITY AT ATHENS.

ATHENS, February 1, 1897.

THREE days ago I fell upon a scene that reminded me more of a battle than anything I had seen since I was honorably discharged from the army thirty-three years ago. I was witness of a combat between the military and the strikers when a Greek friend pressed my arm, and, saying, "It is not safe for you here," tried to lead me away. Just then a pistol-shot gave emphasis to his words, but I stayed long enough to see a wounded striker, covered with blood, carried past me still shaking his arm in defiance. Of the soldiers, who were doing their best to restore order, one was severely wounded and others less severely. The strikers complained in the morning papers of that day that the military had not treated them gently enough, and asserted that whatever mischief might now result was to be laid to this unkindness.

But I have plunged *in medias res* without explaining the origin of the strike. Those who know Greece best will be surprised to hear of a strike in a country which they doubtless think of as the one blessed country in the civilized world where the laborer, although his regular pay is only thirty five cents a day, is so satisfied with his lot that there is no war between labor and capital; the one country where socialism and anarchy can get no foothold—a place of plain living and great contentment. This is all true. Here strikes are confined to the University. Their cause is usually a spirit of resistance to compulsory education. Two years ago the University Council decided that the law students should be required to learn Latin enough to read Roman Law in the original. The students decided that this was not necessary. By thumping with their canes on the floors of the lecture-rooms and yelling, they prevented the professors from giving instruction. As they could not endure the spectacle of other departments continuing to work, they demanded of them what would be called in America a "sympathetic strike." This was acceded to, and the result was so much disturbance in and around the University that the military police had to be called in to keep order. At an unfortunate time, when the sympathetic strikers were inclining to go back to work, the chief of police on a trying occasion called the student body by a hard name. This welded them together. They claimed that in their persons the University had been insulted. Some of the professors, also, taking this view, joined the strike, which had hitherto been directed against them. It was now decided that no more work was to be done until the offending chief of police was removed by the Government and the stigma removed.

This was ultimately done under the guise of transferring him to another post, but nearly half of the University year was lost to study by the Latin phase and the insult phase of the strike. The rest of the year was an "era of good feeling." In the reconciliation almost as little was said about Latin as was said in the treaty of Ghent about the impressing of American seamen. During the last days of this strike the students, having plenty of time on their hands, became leading agitators against the Tricoupi Ministry, and undoubtedly contributed essentially to its overthrow. This successful playing of a political rôle was very gratifying to the vanity of the students, who feel amply qualified to manage the politics of Greece.

This year, about two months ago, another great strike arose from the same feeling of resistance to compulsory education. Prof. Galvani, the most eminent surgeon in Greece, who a few years ago consented with great reluctance to take upon himself the duties of a professorship in the Medical School, required what the medical students thought excessive clinical work. When he insisted, they proceeded to break up his exercises by the usual tactics. At one of his clinical exercises they stirred up such a dust that the professor, recognizing the danger to the patient in the critical operation, and irritated at the unseasonableness of the demonstration, called the students "a disgrace to Greece, and the worst students in the world." The students, taking little note of the fact that the patient—a woman—died, perhaps in consequence of the disturbance, raised the old cry of ὕβρις, stopped work, and demanded of the University authorities, not an apology from the professor—that, they declared, would be inadequate—but his deposition. When this was refused, other departments joined the strike, even the theological students going into it with a will. But when, after a little time, the law students, perhaps realizing that a *little* study was not a weariness to the flesh, began to show towards the movement a coldness shared by some of the students' local associations (*e. g.*, one including all the students from the Ionian Islands), the medical students, swarming into the law-school lecture-rooms, made bedlam there also. Then the police came up, and, besides trying to suppress the disorder, searched the students for weapons. This touch of the police was like an electric current making a chemical fusion. The law department as well as all others was now one with the medical department against the common enemy. It was then that the shots of which I spoke at the outset were fired.

The students that day took possession of the University as a fort, provided themselves not only with pistols, but with a considerable number of muskets, provisioned themselves, and defied the police to dislodge them. About five hundred of the three thousand or more students in the University held the fort, while the others remained outside working up sympathy for their fellows and antipathy against the military. For three days and nights this state of things continued. The University declared the Medical School closed, and established a cordon of soldiers about the University, but made no attempt to recover the building, probably more from the desire to avoid bloodshed than from the fear that the besieged would carry out their threat of blowing up the University with dynamite.

The besieged hoisted the national flag over the University, talked of shedding their blood to the last drop rather than come out, and secured the insertion in the papers of the following proclamation to the Greek people:

"O people (Λαέ)! We are your children. Those who have been appointed by you, O people, to protect us, oppress us, persecute us. They insult us, they disgrace us, and, instead of making us reparation, they arrest us, they put us in prison, they slay us. We protest before you, O people, and invoke your aid and your protection. People of Greece! will you remain apathetic spectators of these acts of lawlessness?

"THE STUDENTS OF THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY."

There was, in fact, much sympathy aroused for these ardent youths, who now became a factor in politics. The Ministry was really in some danger from boys whose talk for a foreigner had something ludicrous in it. But, as the students had announced, as their only offer toward the solution of the question, (1) the reopening of the Medical School, (2) the deposition of Galvani, (3) the punishment of the police, (4) the release of the students already under arrest, the Ministry could hardly do anything but tighten the cordon around the University, and try to starve out the garrison.

On the third day (Friday, January 29), however, the students who remained outside organized a mass-meeting and a procession which was reinforced by many of the populace, making a demonstration that threatened to draw off the cordon of troops from the University. But the chief of police, with another body of troops, met the procession straight in front near the Ministry of Finance on Stadion Street, and dispersed it after some resistance and firing on both sides, in which a boy riding on a horse-car was instantly killed and several persons wounded. The chief of police, riding at the head of his men, was made a target, and had his life saved by his watch, which was battered into a shapeless mass by a bullet.

That night the city was in great commotion. There seemed no reason why, when the situation had become so bad, much worse

things might not happen. In the night, however, the Ministry decided to try mediation in order to get the students to leave the University peacefully. In the morning several professors, accompanied by the Metropolitan of Athens, the highest ecclesiastical authority in Greece, went, at the suggestion of the Prime Minister, who is also temporarily Minister of Education and Ecclesiastical Affairs, and treated with the besieged concerning the evacuation of the University. As the latter had already suffered from lack of food and water, they consented to come out. They assert that not only were their previous demands acceded to, but that also a promise was given that a new rector and council should be chosen, and that full credit should be given for this semester, so much of which had been lost for the medical department in the strike. If all this were promised, it is readily understood why they went out so jubilantly as the cordon of soldiers parted and let them pass. They could hardly have asked anything more unless it were that one of their number should be made Minister of Education. This at least is certain, that whereas the chief of police had proclaimed that they should never come out in a body and with their weapons, he now allowed them to march out with the honors of war, so to speak, not subjecting them to any search whatever, insisting only that the muskets should be left behind. The Ministry denied on the following day that any promises for the future were made on its part, and proceeded to arrest several of the ringleaders as individuals. Again the student body is in an uproar. Most of the professors are reported as saying that the few who went to mediate went as individuals, and were not empowered to represent the University, and that if Prof. Galvani should be forced to resign, they would hand in their resignations in a body. The mediating professors, who yesterday were vying with one another for the credit of effecting "the great solution," are beginning to show a readiness to leave this distinction to the other claimants, now that the students are raising the cry of bad faith against them.

The newspapers, which are, as usual, mostly Opposition journals, make some capital out of the delay of the Government in restoring order; but the *Asty* of January 31 couples this with some reflections of a more wide-reaching character, as follows:

"In the hour when there is opening up before Greece the darkened horizon of the future, and when we ought to see her united, with all her powers bent toward a great object, proceeding on the way of truth and safety in harmony and love—at this moment, alas! we see her rent with factions, without a helmsman, but, also, alas! in want of those who let themselves be guided, without faith and without courage; showing that personally perhaps we Greeks are not lacking in good gifts, but that we do lack the uniting bond, the sentiment of obedience to authority and of mutual responsibility which forms nations really worthy of a high calling."

These words come with a singular propriety, almost solemnity, now that Greece is looking forward to becoming a joint heir with other young and pushing nations in the legacy soon about to be left in the Balkan Peninsula by the Sick Man. No word was so frequent in the mouths of the students and their friends in these exciting days as "honor." How shall this question be settled so as to save the *honor* of the students and not break the *magic spell* of the University? was what seemed to weigh heavily on everybody's mind. Since honor is the subject of their story, would that a leader might arise to teach them the lesson that the "path of duty is the way to glory." X.

CRÖY'S MEMOIRS.—II.

PARIS, February 10, 1897.

THE Duke de Cröy bethought him towards 1764 to have his memoirs copied by a good calligrapher, and had the first volumes bound. "I saw with satisfaction," he says, "that this work, which had frightened me by its size, would be curious." It is curious, indeed, by reason of its great candor and simplicity, and the copies here mentioned are carefully preserved at the castle of Dülmen, the most habitual residence of the present Duke of Cröy.

The Dauphin died on the 20th of December, 1765, of consumption. He was very pious and well behaved. Since the death of Madame de Pompadour, Louis XV. had taken no mistress, and all was quiet at court. The Dauphin died at Fontainebleau, but was buried at Sens, according to his will; his heart only was carried to Saint-Denis. "The Dauphin's death occupied all minds, but at the end of February (1766) the Parlement of Paris woke up and asked the King to reëstablish the ancient Parlement of Brittany, which he had suppressed, and to submit to itself the affair of M. de la Chalotais." Louis XV. went in person to the Parlement, having announced to the First President that he would himself preside on the 3d of March. He arrived with an escort of two regiments of the guards. "Nobody in Paris was aware of it. Louis XV. met, on the Pont-Neuf, the Host which was being carried to one sick. He stopped and kneeled in the mud. When the Host passed, the people, charmed with this action, shouted, 'Vive le Roi!'—a thing which did not happen often." In the great chamber the King was received by the Parlement. "He impressed everybody by his majestic air, and said: 'I come myself to make you my answer and explain to you my will. Here it is, written with my own hand.' And he ordered that his answer should be read. After this was done he ordered that the Parlement's late *arrêté* should be expunged, and saw it done by the clerk. He then retired and returned to Versailles."

Cröy adds that the Parlement tried to resist, and made complaints (they were called officially remonstrances). A deputation took them to the King, who nevertheless maintained his orders. The Parlement came in its turn to make remonstrances in the matter of the Parlement of Brittany; the King answered that he had taken his oath to God, not to the nation, that he had no account to render to the Parlement, and that all authority resided solely in his own royal person. "Everybody," says the timid Cröy, "found this a little too strong." The long struggle between the kings and the power of the parlements was terminated by the French Revolution; but, at the coronation of Charles X., long after the Revolution, nothing was changed in the formula of the royal oath which Louis XV. had opposed to the Parlement.

Louis XV. at length replaced Mme. de Pompadour with the famous Du Barry. "What most occupied society in the month of December, 1768, was the apprehended presentation of a Dame Du Barry, which was making much noise. The *libertins* screamed the loudest, . . . the discreet who loved the King wept, prayed, and were silent. We must do the same." The presentation was postponed for some time, from day to day, chiefly by a fall of the King on the hunting-field, but finally took place on the 22d of April, 1769. Mme. Du Barry was presented alone, no lady being present. "It made an enormous sensation." In April, Cröy went to Versailles. He tells us that

"the King, notwithstanding his sixty years, was more in love than ever with the new lady. She amused him; he looked younger. There was a question whether or no she would attend the coming wedding [of the Dauphin with the Archduchess Marie Antoinette], for which she had ordered charming clothes. She was fond of dress, and would have been inconsolable without an occasion for putting them on. She was good, and with the exception of her hatred of the Duke de Choiseul, with whom she found herself every day at his Majesty's, she wished no ill to anybody. I was surprised to see that, amiable as was M. de Choiseul, he did not attempt to win her good graces, but seemed to brave her."

Cröy gives an accurate description of the magnificent festivals which took place on the occasion of the marriage of the Dauphin. "Notwithstanding the general distress, France wished to surpass Vienna. . . . For us three the clothes cost more than 22,000 livres. . . . It could be said with reason that this was not very philosophical for an age which prided itself on its philosophy." We note in Cröy's long account that at the King's supper at La Muette, on the day of the arrival of the Archduchess and on the eve of the marriage, there were forty people seated, among them the Countess Du Barry, "which made people judge that she would soon crush the party which was opposed to her." Her influence, in fact, by degrees came to surpass that of Mme. de Pompadour. As she was not "born," she found it difficult at first to surround herself with ladies of rank, but she soon found friends and admirers of both sexes; she disposed of all the favors. She had completely captivated the old King, who, "at sixty-one years, was as much in love as ever." Mme. Du Barry was allowed to send her orders directly to the Treasury. The Abbé Terray, comptroller of the finances, tried in vain to balance the receipts and expenditures. "He attempted retrenchment, as if retrenchment were possible at Versailles. There were three millions and a half to provide for the prodigious household of the Count de Provence [who had just been married]; the household of the Count d'Artois threatened to be as large. The passion for hunting of King and Dauphin necessitated thousands of horses."

Louis XV. fell ill on the 29th of April, 1774, at Versailles, and was twice bled the same day. He had felt unwell for a week. Cröy gives an account of the King's malady which is almost as detailed and accurate as a doctor's bulletin could be. In a medical point of view it is really interesting, as it shows the development and progress of the smallpox, of the kind called confluent. It is interesting also as showing minutely the change of sentiment of the court during the malady. Cröy shows us "Mesdames, that is to say, the three daughters of the King, standing at the foot of his bed, . . . the King, in a military bed, in the middle of the chamber, seemingly tranquil, but with a red and swollen head. . . . The ministers, the Prince de Soubise were there. The Duke d'Aumont dealt with the doctors and did it well. . . . Madame Du Barry was encouraged only by her partisans, for she said: 'I displease the entire family; let me go.' Yet the habit of the King to see her made her feel that she was useful to him. She seemed to sacrifice herself by staying."

When the King himself found out that he had the smallpox (he would not believe it at

first, having already had it once), he said to Madame Du Barry: "Now that I know my condition, I will not renew the scandal of Metz; if I had known what I now know, you would not have stayed here. I owe myself to God and to my people; you must retire." Madame Du Barry fainted; then withdrew. Up to that time the impulses of the court had been various. "According to the fears of the party, people rushed to pay their court to the lady, and everybody was in the air except myself, who had never visited her. In the evening they were quite triumphant, as the Archbishop could not enter and the fears of the King were dissipated." When the King dismissed his mistress, he sent for M. d'Aiguillon, and ordered him to see to all the details of her departure. The Duchess d'Aiguillon conducted her to her house at Rueil. Some time afterwards the King said to his valet, Laborde, "Go and fetch Madame Du Barry." Laborde answered: "Sire, she is gone." "Where is she gone?" "To Rueil, sire." "Ah, already!" The King prepared himself for the last sacrament. "It was a long time since he had made confession, the last time being for the affair of Madame de Mailly, in 1736."

It is curious to see how Cröy explains the calculations of the King with regard to his salvation:

"The King," he says, "wished not to render his own life too sober if he recovered, for it had become indispensable for him to have an apartment where he could go and talk freely, his family having become useless to him for that, on account of the life which he had led. In consequence, he thought that he could content himself with receiving the sacrament *in articulo*. He had his great bed arranged; he waited for the moment, and did not wish to embarrass himself for nothing. So it appeared that, whatever may have been said, he had all his senses, and it was conformably to this plan that he had had the lady removed, and said to himself, 'Let us act for the present.' He could not bring himself to make pledges."

These combinations and calculations, which Cröy sets forth with a certain candor, show us Louis XV. as a negotiator who is willing to treat and make promises only under the pressure of an immediate necessity. From his confessor, an humble priest who was patiently waiting, he could obtain absolution only by promising never to see Mme. Du Barry again; but he was willing to make this promise only if he felt certain that death would separate him from her. He was, with all that (or thought he was) a good Catholic; he said his prayers, he heard mass with much fervor. His end was not without dignity. After he had received the extreme unction, he spoke to the Cardinal, who said to those who were in the next room: "Gentlemen, the King charges me to tell you that he begs God's pardon for the offence he has given to him and for the scandal he has brought upon his people. If God gives him back health, he will occupy himself with doing penance, with upholding religion, and with doing good to his people." The King added: "I should like to have the strength to say this myself." This was on the ninth day of the malady. He died on the tenth day, with much courage and resignation (May 9, 1774). He was not regretted, except by his immediate entourage. Cröy, who had a real affection for him, says: "In general, I was not at all satisfied with the nation. As the weather was fine, there were many people out during these two days, in the park, and people walked as usual. All the inns were full, and nobody, outside of the apartment, seemed to be moved. It was no better in Paris. . . . A stranger would not have known that we had lost a King."

The new King was hardly twenty years old. He had three aunts, the unmarried daughters of Louis XV.; there were besides these princesses the Queen, Madame (the Countess de Provence), Madame d'Artois. This made, with two sisters, eight ladies with whom he had to live, all having their ladies in waiting —altogether, as Cröy remarks, about a hundred women, some of whom were very clever. "It was no small affair, at a time when nothing seemed great but the affairs of the Court." Cröy enters into many interesting details about Marie Antoinette's début as Queen. We cannot read all these details without emotion when we think of the tragical end of this unfortunate princess, "pretty as the day and full of graces." Cröy himself was fortunate enough not to see the troubled days of the French Revolution. He died on the 30th of March, 1784, in Paris, in his hôtel in the Rue du Regard. I have read few books or memoirs which have given me a more vivid account of that time of which Talleyrand used to say in his old age: "Those who did not live in France before the French Revolution do not know what pleasure it is to live."

Correspondence.

THE PRINTING BILL IN THE SENATE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have read your article of the 18th inst. concerning the bill to improve the printing and binding methods of the public documents, with mingled feelings of satisfaction at your approval of the bill and dismay at your method of advocating it. My judgment and my experience convince me that perhaps the worst way to secure the enactment of a project of legislation is to begin by sweepingly antagonizing and censuring the enacting power. In this case I have also the conviction that such censure is unjust.

While the stubborn fact remains that the bill has not been passed, and has not even been reported to the Senate for its consideration, yet it is equally true that all of the Senators with whom I have talked or corresponded on the subject have recognized the importance and merit of the measure, and all of them (except Senator Hale) have assured me of their intention to vote for it if it came before the Senate. Senator Hale is chairman of the committee on printing, to which the bill was referred, and of course to him is due the fact that it has not been reported; yet even he assured me that he was not to be considered as opposed to the bill, but as deeming it of such importance that it ought to have more consideration than he had yet been able to give it.

Of course, from my point of view, and from that of librarians and scholars generally, the bill is of such importance that time ought to have been taken to consider it and report it and put it to vote, but I cannot assume that it has thus impressed Senator Hale. It seems to me more just to assume that he has passed it over because his time was occupied with measures which to him seemed of greater public importance, and I do not feel that I have a right to say that a difference of opinion on this subject implies any wrong-doing.

I am confident that when the document-reform bill comes before the Senate, it will pass by a vote practically unanimous, and that its operation will give such satisfaction that everybody will wonder why such a bill was not devised and enacted years ago. If passed in its original form, it will, for one thing, save in printing and binding double the total cost of carrying on my office, and this without at all reducing the number of books. In fact, the number will to all intents and purposes be greatly increased, because the demand will be reduced by cutting off the duplications which now arise from the practice of printing one book in many editions. I am equally confident that the bill will come before the Senate at a seasonable period in the next Congress, and, if it does so, and is received as I anticipate that it will be, I trust the *Nation* will improve the opportunity to recognize the open-mindedness of the Senate towards a measure which looks solely to the public good, and has in it no element of personal advantage for anybody.

F. A. Crandall,
Superintendent of Documents.

Washington, February 19, 1897.

[We did not mean to imply that our knowledge of senatorial opposition to Mr. Crandall's bill, and the absurd reasons for it, came from him, or were hinted at in his report. We shall cheerfully recognize the open-mindedness of the Senate when we see it. We shall also speak freely of the opposite quality whenever we see that.—Ed. Nation.]

SCARCITY OF MONEY AT THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your "Report on the Indianapolis Conference" in the *Nation* of February 11, you call attention to the following passage in the speech of Mr. William E. Dodge: "I found that there were great sections of the Western and Southern country where there was absolutely no money at all; where the most primitive forms of barter obtained. . . ." The *Nation* endorses this by saying, "That the condition described by Mr. Dodge exists in large districts of the South is undoubtedly true."

We down here have heard a good deal about these "great sections" of late years, but have never become much excited over the news. The assertions, coming invariably from the same sources, have located "the sections" in such a vague, treasure-island sort of way that we have to regard them as mere bits of poetical figure used for rhetorical emphasis or wadding, as one or the other might happen to be needed. "Great sections" is a good elastic term, and is handy for speech-making, but no speaker has been so accurate as to even name a State in which such a section can be found. Such a section in an agriculturally rich, or any other sort of rich, country is an impossibility, and such talk is absurd; it is the same old twaddle of the silverite, that a man can be rich in everything else, and yet be starving because the "per capita" is deficient. The poor people have no money, but that is because they are poor; they are not poor on account of the low "per capita." As long as corn, oats, cotton, hay, hogs, or manure are worth a fraction of a cent a hundred, these people can always get cash for any surplus they have.

We protest against such a slander as that there is any agricultural section in the South larger than a county poor-farm where none

of the inhabitants earn more than they consume. Many of our people *are* poor, and much of the business *is* done by barter; but the very poor in sparsely settled countries have always bartered to some extent, because where there is only one store in ten miles they usually buy and sell with the same man; it is more convenient.

Up to 1893 the most prosperous inhabitants of our agricultural sections were planters who rented their land, in small sections, to negroes and poor whites, and set up what is known as a merchandising and advancing business. Here they advanced one hundred dollars' worth of hog meat, cottonseed, trace-chains, and calico at a good round profit to themselves, and, at the end of the year, took (in barter) one hundred and twenty-five dollars' worth of cotton and corn in *part* payment of the debt. They always liked to have a small balance against the barterer to carry over, to preclude the possibility of his moving away and trying his bad luck elsewhere. Since 1893 the merchandising and advancing gentlemen have been on the road as silver-tongued calamity howlers, and the poor whites and negro renters have worked on, lived cheaply because they could get no credit (found out for the first time, in fact, that they *could* live without it), and at the end of the year found themselves with more coon-skins' worth of cotton and corn than they ever had before. Some few of them, indeed, see a few dollars now and then.

On closer reading of your article, I am pleasantly disappointed to find that Mr. Dodge's source of information regarding our large desert sections is the same with which we here are already acquainted, and that his exploring tour extended no further South than Indianapolis.—Yours, etc.,

G. S. Brown.

Birmingham, Ala., February 13, 1897.

THE RETREAT OF THE MOSLEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the interesting letter on North Africa in last week's *Nation* the writer makes the statement that the Mussulman population is "fast vanishing" from Bosnia. According to the official census taken in 1879, soon after the Austrian occupation of Bosnia and Herzegovina, the population numbered 1,212,172, of whom 448,613 were Mussulmans. In 1895 the total number of inhabitants was 1,568,092, of whom 548,818 were Mussulmans. The truth is, that the European Mohammedan peasant, when justly governed, is a law-abiding citizen who lives peaceably with his Christian neighbors, and is subject to the same natural laws of increase as they. While in Bosnia there is no evidence, to my knowledge, of a change in his faith, in southeastern Russia almost entire villages of Mohammedans have become Christians within a few years.

Jas. M. Hubbard.

Boston, February 16, 1897.

AN UNFINISHED WORK.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: According to a recent statement in the London *Bookman*, quoted in the *Evening Post*, the Clarendon Press is contemplating the publication of the English classics in an *édition définitive*. This is good news to us all, and to no one more acceptable than to the present writer. But would it be too ungracious to remind the Clarendon, before embarking in this new and grand enterprise, that it would do well first to liquidate a small debt of honor of long standing? I refer to the still incomplete Bosworth-Toller 'Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon.' Part I. appeared in 1882, Part II. in 1882, Part III. in 1887, the first section of Part IV. in 1892! There we still stick. Fifteen years, and nothing finished! We are unable to bind up the parts already printed. My private copy is going to pieces; so is the college library copy. This country, from Maine to California, is groaning under the nuisance. Every one, of course, knows the heinous defects of the Bosworth-Toller. But they are incurable by any amount of waiting. Meanwhile there must be nearly a thousand voices in America muttering, Give us our *book*, good or bad, that we may at least bind up and be at rest. Surely the Clarendon does not imagine that we are going to accept as a substitute Henry Sweet's two-dollar Students' Dictionary, just advertised "immediately." What need have we of a students' dictionary? Our undergraduates can make shift fairly well with certain special glossaries; our graduate students require something much more advanced than Henry Sweet is likely to offer. As a long-suffering scholar I advise the Clarendon Press not to forget the ancient motto: "*Noblesse oblige.*"

X.

February 22, 1897.

Notes.

Shortly to be issued by D. Appleton & Co. are a new edition of Professor Laughlin's 'History of Bimetallism in the United States'; 'Pioneers of Evolution,' from Thales to Huxley, by Edward Clodd; Marshal Oudinot's Memoirs; 'Some Masters of Lithography,' by Atherton Curtis; and 'The Aurora Borealis,' by Alfred Angot.

Ginn & Co. announce for April 'Stories from English History,' by Alfred F. Blaisdell.

Macmillan Co. have in preparation selections from the first nine books of the Florentine chronicle of Giovanni Villani, translated for the use of students of Dante and others by Rose E. Selfe, edited by Philip H. Wicksteed.

The Bibliographisches Institut of Leipzig and Vienna has undertaken the publication of an illustrated history of German literature that will doubtless surpass the widely circulated works by König and Lexer. It is being prepared by two professors of German literature in Breslau, Dr. Friedrich Vogt, who does the work on the earlier periods, and Dr. Max Koch, who has charge of the more modern. The publishers promise that the illustrations shall not be too prominent, that only those of real scientific value will be admitted, and that these will be prepared in the very best possible manner. The work is appearing in *Lieferung* fashion, and will cost complete and bound 16 marks.

The subscription or "Outward Bound" edition of Rudyard Kipling's 'Writings in Prose and Verse,' just begun to be published by Charles Scribner's Sons, has all the merits we commonly do *not* associate with "subscription books." A very handsome and legible letterpress is printed on a specially made and water-marked paper; the binding is simple and elegant. Quite unique, apart from the portrait frontispiece, are the illustrations. The elder Kipling, whose facility with pen and pencil was so takingly shown in his 'Beast and Man in India,' has modelled designs in relief for this edition of his more famous son's stories and verse. They not only are in perfect keeping with the style of the book-making, but they are admirable in themselves, whether as characterization, symbolism, or pure decoration. We single out "The Daughter of the Regiment" in volume ii. and "Muhammad Din" in volume i. as gems in their way; and the elephant seal of the title page and cover should not be passed over. The first volume is 'Plain Tales from the Hills'; the second, 'Soldiers Three, and Military Tales,' shows the grouping of kindred subjects which has been attempted in this series. We need say no more except that the edition is fine enough to be definitive; but Mr. Kipling is alive and still productive, and has yet perhaps more than one uniform collection before him ere finis comes.

The care with which Robert Louis Stevenson's slightest works are being preserved after his death again appears in the publication, by the Bodley Head Press (John Lane), of a "fragment of his, written in 1878, on 'A Mountain Town in France.'" Stevenson treated the same subject, a little less broadly, perhaps, in the later 'Travels with a Donkey'; but this essay is none the less interesting, and is written without that elaborate archaism which distinguishes his later style. The pamphlet is limited to three hundred and fifty copies, and has five full-page illustrations of landscape from sketches by the author, which have only a personal interest.

Just a dozen years have elapsed since we welcomed the second edition of Canon Ellacombe's 'Plant-Lore and Garden-Craft of Shakspere,' and now we have a third (New York: Edward Arnold), shorn of the appendices, slightly retrenched in certain places, slightly enlarged with a notice of the daisy, but, above all, illustrated. Major Ricketts has supplied very skilful and decorative drawings of the plants enumerated, copies of old prints of gardens, views of Anne Hathaway's cottage, dainty vignettes of other buildings and scenes, and perhaps the floriated initial letters and headpieces. In short, this delightful book has been rendered still more pleasing, and is sure of a fresh lease of popularity.

Brentano's sends us the second edition of Judge Prowse's 'History of Newfoundland,' which was noticed in these columns, on its original appearance, in the summer of 1895. The work has been both condensed and extended; an additional chapter briefly bringing the history up to date with an account of the woful crash of 1894, and of the heroic struggle to retrieve the financial disaster and establish the colony's credit, together with the latest unsuccessful effort to devise a basis of confederation with the Dominion, and some show of the new hopes which the interior railway and the recent development of the coal and iron resources of the island are inspiring in patriots like our author. An appendix gives the proposed terms of union and the official reports on the mineral deposits. The work is thus freshened and improved, and, as its price is incredibly low, it is equally calculated for an immigration tract and a preparation for tourists, who, we cannot doubt, are going to multiply even if the immigrants other than miners do not. A dollar and a half, in fact, puts one in possession of more than 600 pages of learned and entertaining and authentic text, a host of capital photomechanical illustrations, and a map. The third edition, or we mistake Judge Prowse's striving for perfection, will include an index.

The work bearing the singular title, 'Cyclopædia of Practical Quotations,' was first pub-

lished in 1882, and, having undergone a thorough overhauling and verification, is now brought out anew (Funk & Wagnalls Co.). It has been enlarged by nearly a third, and in many details exhibits a decided improvement. The index seems very minute, but we cannot think it worth while to have included in it the English versions accompanying the foreign quotations—at least indiscriminately, as has been done. *Mass* will help one to Henri IV.'s "Paris vaut bien une messe" (given unconsciously in an alternative form, "La couronne vaut bien une messe ou Paris vaut," etc.), and *candle* to "Le jeu ne vaut pas la chandelle"; but who could ever think of *bab blings* as a clue to Dante's "Vien retro a me, e lascia *dir* le genti"? It is, further, an odd conceit to refer to the bottom of each page of the index from quotations from Shakspere, Milton, Wordsworth, Byron, Tennyson, Lowell, Pope, and Longfellow. The considerably augmented list of authors now has references to all the respective citations. With all its apparatus, the work will chiefly serve, not those who wish to recall some saying, but those who seek an appropriate motto or sentiment or rhetorical embellishment. For this the classification answers well enough.

Readers who revel in the countless curiosities of the law will find much to amuse and something even of instruction in 'Legal Lore' (London: William Andrews & Co.), a collection of twenty-one essays by fifteen authors, devoted to as many topics in the legislation of England and Scotland, from Saxon times to the present. Law and custom reflect, as in a faithful mirror, the ideals of successive generations, and throw a search-light upon the social conditions of the past, so that even such popular disquisitions as these have their value to the student as well as to the general public. Of course in such a miscellaneous group as the present the component parts vary greatly in interest; some are decidedly amateurish, and others are scarce more than agglomerations of anecdotes, while there are a few, like that of Mr. Neilson on "Post-mortem Trials," deserving of permanent preservation. A wider outlook would have preserved the volume from the reproach of insularity, but this defect has its counterpoise in the fact that British conservatism has preserved the flavor of mediævalism to an extent not to be found in lands exposed to the revolutionary influence of codes founded on the imperial jurisprudence. The island, therefore, affords an unrivalled field for the legal antiquarian who delights in tracing survivals, and in seeing how forms may be piously preserved while substance is modified to meet the requirements of changing environment.

'The Principles of the Transformer,' by Frederick Bedell (Macmillan Co.), is an extended treatise upon the alternating current transformer in which the treatment would leave an uninformed reader somewhat doubtful whether a transformer belongs in the realm of mathematical hypotheses or of useful machines. The book will doubtless be of interest to teachers and students of mathematics and mathematical physics, but it offers little of attractiveness or profit to the designer of actual transformers or to students of engineering. In this respect the book presents a marked contrast to a little volume on Transformers by Gisbert Kapp which has been lately issued by the same publishers.

'What is Electricity?' by Prof. John Trowbridge (D. Appleton & Co.), is an attempt to explain in a popular manner the most approved scientific hypotheses in regard to the nature of electricity. We have reason to expect real success in any effort undertaken seriously by one of Prof. Trowbridge's reputation, and he has as nearly succeeded as the chaotic condition of scientific knowledge will permit. A complete popular explanation of the nature of electricity would tax the powers of a Tyndall, since the first requirement is to overset entirely several cherished popular conceptions before it is possible to make clear the interdependence of electricity, magnetism, light, and heat, and their common dependence upon a hypothetical and all-pervading ether. Were this huge undertaking thoroughly performed, even then the result might have doubtful utility, since our most advanced ideas upon the nature of electricity, light, and the ether are little more than mere speculations or hypotheses. The true scientist is ready at any time to accept a reasonable hypothesis which seems to fit his knowledge, and to use the theory as a guide in his search for additional facts; but upon any shifting of his bearings which discoveries may bring about he must be ready to throw over the old and look for new theories. The popular mind needs more tangible and enduring foundations for its views, so it is hardly probable that any popular work upon electricity, light, and the ether can truly attain its object until we have more settled facts relating to these important phenomena. Prof. Trowbridge's book will be interesting to students of science and to many others, even if it is not popular in the full meaning of the term.

The second volume of Mr. Foster's Monthly Bulletin of the Providence Public Library, for 1896, is before us, testifying to his assiduity as a bibliographical purveyor in the domain of current history. The first number contains an alphabetical list of the reference lists published in the accessible bulletins of other libraries since October 1, 1895, and renews the Providence Library's own series with No. 26, "Venezuela and its Boundaries." The closing number brings us No. 38, "William Morris," and a general index. Such lists, and this is notable of its kind, serve as a sort of Annual Register as well as guide to reading. Mr. Foster's entries are freely annotated for intelligent selection.

The Germans are far from ready to adopt such drastic methods of modernizing secondary education as the Norwegians have recently initiated by dropping the Greek absolutely, and substantially the Latin also, from the gymnasium course. Dr. Alex. Wernicke's 'Kultur und Schule: Präliminarien zu einem Schulfrieden' (Osterwieck: A. W. Zickfeldt) belongs to those numerous publications, aiming at a reconciliation of the old and the new, which almost every month brings forth. We call attention to this particular treatise as presenting a well-studied plan of satisfying the just and irresistible demands of modern life without ruthlessly disregarding the historical development of the higher culture in Germany.

A more radical project of reform is advocated by Harold Arjuna in 'Klassisch oder Volksthümlich? Auch ein Beitrag zur Lösung der Schulfrage' (Leipzig: Gustav Fock). This writer, who seems to disguise his real name and has had his pamphlet printed at Brussels, has taken for his motto Ulrich von Hutten's *Ich hab's gewagt*. To him the gymnasium appears like the "leaning tower" whose base is deranged. It must become Germanic or perish: *Tertium non datur*. He is well informed and actuated by humane and patriotic motives, and writes from the fulness of the heart; but the constructive part of his plan is decidedly fanciful.

At a recent meeting, in Chicago, of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, a resolution was passed looking toward the checking of the tendency to intrust freshmen classes in the colleges and universities to young and inexperienced teachers. This brings to mind a passage in Dr. Adolph Wagner's *Rectoratsrede* on the Development of the University of Berlin (Berlin: Julius Becker), in which the disproportionate growth of the docent system in that institution, and in some other German universities, is exhibited. The University of Berlin started on its career with a faculty of forty-six, of whom fourteen were docents. In 1830–31 the proportion of the whole number of instructors to that of docents was 121:32; in 1870 it was 168:61—*i. e.*, between 1830 and 1870 the number of docents had doubled, while the entire corps of instructors had increased by only one-third. In 1896 the proportion is 345:167—in other words, nearly one-half of all the teachers are unsalaried docents. In the eighty-five years since the foundation of the university, it thus appears, the whole faculty had grown to between seven and eight times its original size, while the number of docents had increased twelve-fold. Vienna had in the same year (1896) nineteen more docents than Berlin, in a faculty equal, in the aggregate, to that of the latter university.

M. Alfred Fouillée, writing, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for January 15, on youthful criminals and the influence of the school and the press, proves conclusively, at least for France, the inefficiency of the modern public school as a remedial agency against crime. The writer does not hold the State schools directly responsible for the alarming increase of vice and crime among the young; but the predominance of intellectual over moral training, and the superficial character of the instruction in the public schools, he considers pernicious. Anti-religious intolerance, which is "as fatal for a nation as religious intolerance," also exerts an unfortunate influence; moral scepticism among the young is usually the result of religious scepticism. But even under the most favorable conditions the teacher can never take the place of the family. Alcoholism, among the parents, and a licentious press are terrible curses, and these two causes of juvenile depravity call urgently for speedy and effective legislative action.

—The seventeenth annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey, for the fiscal year 1895 '96, has been lately distributed in advance of the geological essays to accompany the volume in which the report formally appears. Director Wolcott has thus a second time succeeded in issuing with commendable promptness his statement of work accomplished and in hand, from which those interested in the progress of this great national undertaking may almost accompany its progress. An item of popular interest concerns the report in preparation by Mr. Gilbert on the history of Niagara Falls, in which will be presented full evidence of a former northerly discharge of the waters of Lakes Michigan and Huron direct into Lake Ontario. The volume of Niagara River has therefore undergone great variation; the value of the retreat of the falls as a geological chronometer must be set rather low because of the variable rate of their recession. Another popular item is found in a brief mention of discoveries by Mr. Leverett regarding

the post-glacial origin of the Ohio River. Its upper waters, the Allegheny and Monongahela, formerly discharged into the basin of Lake Erie, as has been known for some time. Now it is discovered that the Kanawha River of West Virginia, bearing drainage even from the mountains of North Carolina, also formerly ran northward across the State of Ohio, following a line partly coincident with the south-flowing Scioto of to-day. The diversion of all these rivers to their present discharge by the Ohio is ascribed to the obstruction of their northward drainage by an ice-sheet of the glacial period; and a good part of the great water-way which has exercised so strong an influence on our history must consequently be considered as a cross-country patchwork of many rivers formerly independent. Great has been our advantage from the change, for it has allowed the settlement of the lower Ohio valley to be accomplished with the grain of one large river, instead of up hill and down dale, across the grain of many smaller rivers. During the year twelve geologic folios, Nos. 15 to 26, were published under the editorship of Mr. Willis, their price being generally twenty-five cents. The public is evidently unaware of the high value, great beauty, and low price of these superb publications. A list of the folios and their prices may be had on application; every student of our country's resources should have them in his library.

—The third volume of Mr. Thwaites's 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Brothers Co.) appears on the stroke of the clock, bearing signs of unremitting diligence. The action still centres in Acadia, whence we have already seen that the missionaries were expelled by the Virginians. On his return to France, Father Biard hastened to send a report of the St. Sauveur colony and its untimely end to Acquaviva, then General of the Order. He dated this Latin letter at Amiens, May 26, 1617. Two years later, and evidently after mature deliberation, he issued in French a formal "Relation de la Nouvelle France," designed with much skill to refute some specific attacks on the Jesuits of Port Royal. These are the pieces now presented in 285 pages of text and translation. How engaging is good Father Biard when he endeavors to put his anonymous adversary, perhaps Lescarbot, in the wrong and at the same moment to edify his readers by a prospect of ungleaned harvest fields! The poems of Ossian are not more fervid than the prose periods of the returned missionary. Among the polemical matters touched upon in Biard's Relation, the quarrel between the fathers and Biencourt is most prominent. According to our author, Simon Imbert poisoned Biencourt's mind by convincing him that the Marquise de Guercheville had sent the Jesuits over "de l'expulser hors de ses amples Seigneuries de Canada." It is much to Biard's credit that he keeps his temper and ascribes the root of the trouble to the devil. The Indians fill a large space in the narrative, but the Siroquois and Abenakis were tame creatures in comparison with the children of the Five Nations. We occasionally get a glimpse of French customs in these descriptions of Indian life. For instance: "Ils usent aussi du petun, et en boivent la fumée, de la façon commune en France." We are pleased to observe that the headline of the right-hand page has been changed from "The Jesuit Relations" to "Biard to the General," "Biard's Relation, 1616."

—Hippolyte Lencou's 'Le Théâtre Nouveau' (Paris: Savine) purports to be an inquiry into the influences at work on the contemporary dramatic movement in France. It has been inspired by the success which marked Huret's book on the literary movement, some years ago, but it is not likely to attract as much attention, although M. Eugène Fournière, who furnishes the preface to this new "enquête," is convinced of the contrary. Lavedan, Donnay, Curel, Maeterlinck, Jullien, Ancey, and Becque are the most important of the writers interviewed. Each has his own ideas of what the stage needs, and these ideas are in some cases absolutely antagonistic. Curiously enough, several of the authors mentioned meet on common ground, and, while seemingly hostile to all that has been done hitherto, hark back to Racine, in particular, as the great model. They have not much to say in favor of Dumas *fils*—rather they attack his drama; but they call with fair unanimity for the drama of "ideas" and the abolition of conventionality on the stage. The creation of characters, naturalness, diminution of episodes—these are some of the points on which there appears to be a substantial consensus of opinion among them. Rodenbach and Maeterlinck, it is true, are in favor of what M. Lencou calls "le théâtre muet," which is simply pantomime. According to M. Lencou, all the writers he has interviewed are "masters," and have produced masterpieces. It would be more correct to say that several of them have met with a fair measure of success, and may possibly produce a lasting work before they end their career. There is actually no dramatist of the first rank in France at the present moment. Dumas may not retain the high rank he occupies at this time, but there is surely not one among the men in M. Lencou's list who can be expected to displace him.

—The opinion of Sarcey may be considered biassed by prejudice, so far as the works of the younger school are concerned, though we should not, for our part, subscribe to such a judgment; but that of Lemaître is much the same as his, and Doumic, himself one of the "Jeunes," is not carried away by enthusiastic admiration when he discusses their works. In his latest book, 'Essais sur le Théâtre Contemporain' (Paris: Perrin), he examines the plays of four of the authors whom Lencou has interviewed; namely, Lavedan, Donnay, Curel, and Rodenbach. He looks upon them as men of talent and promise, but his deliberate judgment on their most recent productions is by no means favorable. They do not succeed in seizing on the real point of interest; they start out to do one thing and end by doing another, without quite understanding how they have managed, or mismanaged, it. The success of a play with an audience thoroughly in touch with the life depicted in it is not a sure gauge of permanent success, and this is the mistake which M. Lencou repeatedly makes. Apart from the studies referred to, M. Doumic's book contains an instructive chapter on Dumas's drama and two of his own Odéon lectures, the one on Pierre de Larivey, the other on Picard.

—In a vehement pamphlet (Paris: P. V. Stock) M. Bernard Lazare again takes up the cause of the unfortunate Capt. Dreyfus. A previous edition called forth a reply from the *Eclair* of Paris, which M. Bernard-Lazare considers inspired and now endeavors to refute. Without the record of the court-martial before us, it would be impossible to pass finally upon the merits of the case; but the Government's story, as told by its organ, is a sorry one. According to that authority, Dreyfus was a bad character; a busybody among the offices of the War Department; a conspirator whom all disliked and suspected, and who carried guilt in his face. The French secret service had for some time prior to 1894 been bribing the concierge of the German embassy at Paris to secure its office-sweepings for them, among which they one day found a torn wrapper, purporting to have contained documents relating to the arming and disposition of French troops, a list of which was endorsed in French on its back. A cipher letter, previously filched, had spoken of some "animal de Dreyfus"; and because of this allusion and a supposed similarity in his handwriting to that on the wrapper, Capt. Dreyfus was charged with treason, court-martialled, degraded, and exiled for life to Cayenne. As appears from the *Eclair*, the trial was principally a dispute among experts in handwriting, proved nothing positive, and was finally decided by the secret transmission among the judges of a letter whose contents are still undivulged—an expedient hitherto unheard of, except in cases like that Scotch political trial of the last century, described by Stevenson, where a similar mysterious "paper was handed round (like a curiosity) in court; passed through the jury-box, where it did its work; and disappeared again (as though by accident) before it reached the counsel for the prisoner." That trial ended in murder.

—M. Bernard-Lazare contends, on the other hand, that Dreyfus was an exemplary character; a married man, rich beyond temptation. He was no busybody; none of his acts were suspicious. The letter stolen from the German embassy alluded to no Dreyfus at all, but to some one designated as "D." Moreover, another man whose name began with D had been suspected before Dreyfus. The incriminating wrapper is not in Dreyfus's writing; Dreyfus could not have procured the documents it purported to contain; it is very doubtful if any such documents ever were furnished the Germans by any one. As to the details of Dreyfus's arrest, trial, and punishment, the axiom of the French criminal law that the accused is presumed guilty until he is proved innocent, and its procedure, which makes him a witness against himself, are sufficient to prejudice an Anglo-Saxon against any French trial, no matter how certain the guilt of the accused. In the present case, however, the War Office's very evident zeal to convict seems to have been quickened by popular fury against a supposed traitor who had the misfortune to be a German-speaking Alsatian and a Jew.

—Two manuals for the study of Modern Greek have lately appeared, which fill a gap in our educational apparatus, and which are designed for somewhat different classes of students. Mr. Rizo-Rangabé's Method (Boston: Ginn & Co.) is a concise volume of about 200 pages, with vocabularies and exercises well chosen and well arranged, which reveal the experience of the practical teacher. It has the merit of presenting, in addition to the general principles of the language, the chief features of the "vulgar" usage and speech, if those fresh dialectic or vernacular forms and constructions can fairly be called vulgar which lend vividness and charm to the poetry of Solomos and the folk ballads, and are still, fortunately, retained in familiar conversation even among the educated. These flowers of a new spring, legitimately growing from the ancient soil—this young blood—will inevitably be retained, by the natural process of development, to decorate and invigorate the somewhat color-

less and artificial literary language which the modern purists are developing too exclusively and mechanically upon an antique mould. It is a whimsical fact that some learned Greeks are rather ashamed of having "lived and loved" since the days of Xenophon. But murder will out, and the young Greek blood cannot be disguised or concealed. It is from this homely popular strain that the rejuvenescence will inevitably come, as it has in all the great European literatures.

—Dr. Stedman's 'Greek Mastery' (Harpers) is a more bulky work, fitted for private study, but not so well adapted for purposes of reference. The vocabulary and practice are supplied chiefly by progressive reading-lessons, translated in parallel columns. The rules for pronunciation are specially minute and accurate. Dr. Stedman is an enthusiast for the modern tongue; he thinks it might be agreed upon for the universal language; and he calls his manual a "Short Road to Ancient Greek," which he believes ought to be approached from the modern side, just as Englishmen go back to Chaucer from English of the nineteenth century. We grant him that the method he advises is an excellent one for any person who has had the accidental privilege to be born in Greece, and has therefore acquired the modern tongue without expense of time or money. Such a one has certainly a long start towards classic Greek, as compared with an Englishman or a Frenchman. But for people in general the shortest cut to the treasures of the ancient literature is evidently through the ancient language. This need not be a long process, though the teachers often talk as if it must be. We know a boy who in a single year was thoroughly prepared in the Greek requirements for admission to Harvard. For the foreigner, the modern literature and language must remain a tit bit—a delightful after-course to the ancient literature; it is, above all, a key to the heart of a living people—to their thoughts and ways. Hence, the bachelor of arts, masculine or feminine, of our American colleges who has been so unworldly wise as to include Greek in his studies, will find Dr. Stedman's manual, or Mr. Rizo Rangabé's, a useful book to put in his trunk when he purposes a visit to Athens on his way to Cairo or Constantinople.

THE STORY OF BOHEMIA.

The Story of Bohemia, from the Earliest Times to the Fall of National Independence in 1620. With a short summary of later events. By C. Edmund Maurice. [Story of the Nations Series.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

It has been the lot of the Slavic peoples to pass through long periods of foreign domination. Russia had to bow before the Tartar khans; Bulgaria and Servia were swallowed up in the flood of Ottoman conquest; the yoke of Muscovite and German has been fastened upon the Poles; the Croats have writhed under that of the Magyars; the national life of Bohemia was extinguished in the fires kindled by the Reformation. But Slavic blood is tenacious of its existence, and a Slav subdued is not a Slav suppressed. Serb and Bulgarian have emerged in unimpaired vigor, after a thraldom of centuries, from the receding tide of Turkish rule; the Pole clings desperately to the dream of a resuscitated fatherland; the Croat refuses to surrender his nationality to the Magyar; and the Czech of Bohemia is struggling to emancipate himself from the sway of the Teuton.

In the eighteenth century the world was oblivious of the presence of the Czech. In the nineteenth century he makes himself loudly heard in the effort to reassert his autonomous existence. The Czechs of Bohemia have before them to-day the spectacle of their neighbors, the Magyars, celebrating the one-thousandth anniversary of the establishment of their Danubian realm, the spectacle of six or seven million Turanians lording it over nearly ten millions of Slavs, Rumans, and Germans. The Slavs of Bohemia and Moravia are not so very much inferior in numbers to the Magyars of Hungary, and outnumber the German population within the bounds of these provinces. They have their tradition of national greatness, the memory of the rôle they played in history, and they cannot conceive why they should not be entitled to the same position of autonomy in the realm of the Hapsburgs that the Hungarians enjoy. The accomplished fact of a dual Austro-Magyar monarchy, a strange structure, indeed, but one which has been reared upon a stable foundation reaching deep into the past, and whose continuance is considered to be essential to the preservation of the equilibrium of Europe, does not appeal to the mind of the Czech. He refuses to recognize (and naturally enough from the standpoint of the militant Slav) the obstacles in the way of a triple federal system, a political partnership of German, Magyar, and Czech, to which ere long the Poles of Galicia would claim admittance. Heedless of the entanglements of the future, of the prospect of being swallowed up by Russia, or of being annexed to Germany in the event of a disrupted Austria, he is bent upon restoring the realm of St. Wenceslas and regaining supreme command of the region in which he considers the German only an intruder.

The great migration of nations which swept away the Roman Empire and revolutionized the ethnographic features of the European continent brought the Bohemians, about fourteen centuries ago, within their present abode. The flood which had been let loose from the seat of the old Slavic nation in what is now western Russia kept rolling westward until it reached the lowlands of the Elbe. The returning tide of German conquest, ushered in by the victories of Charlemagne, pressed back the boundaries of Slavdom, the Germans poured into the regions once occupied by their kinsfolk, and at last the land of the Czechs was left as a Slavic peninsula projecting into Teutony. Even here the complexion of the population was changed by the continued influx of German settlers (whose advent was welcomed by reason of their industry, technical attainments, and learning), and Bohemia and the adjoining region were destined to become and to remain a disputed ground between German and Slav. The beginning of the fourteenth century witnessed the extinction of the ancient Czech dynasty of Premysl, under which for a brief time, in the reign of Ottocar II., Bohemia was the most powerful member of the vast assemblage of states that made up the Holy Roman Empire. The establishment of a German dynasty, that of Luxemburg, the elevation of Charles of Luxemburg to the imperial throne, and the foundation by this sovereign of the University of Prague (the first university within the bounds of old Germany), worked powerfully in favor of Germanization; but in the Hussite convulsions of the following century the Czechs gave proof of a new national vigor. Nevertheless, though their indomitable spirit asserted itself on the battlefield in a manner to startle the world, it did not prove equal to the task of building up a powerful and permanent national Slavic monarchy. Never-ceasing internal dissensions and a labyrinthine complexity of political constitution hindered such a consummation. The realm of St. Wenceslas at the close of the Middle Ages—this kingdom of Bohemia, with its dependencies of Moravia, Silesia, and Lusatia, with its inextricable maze of jurisdictions of every sort—was a reflex of the complex fabric of the German Empire itself. The people came to regard it as a natural thing to be ruled by princes belonging to foreign dynasties. When, after an interval of a century and a half, the Czechs once more tasted the satisfaction of having a national king in the person of the able and crafty George Podiebrad (1458–'71), the establishment of a hereditary national dynasty was prevented by the ambitious designs of Hungary's great monarch, Matthias Corvinus, and Bohemia now leaned on the power of the Polish Jagellons.

After the death of Matthias Corvinus, Hungary and Bohemia were for a time united under Jagellon kings. Then came the catastrophe of Mohács, the collapse of the Hungarian realm at the hands of Solyman the Magnificent. The Bohemians had to choose a king. They accepted Ferdinand of Hapsburg, a step portentous for the future of the Czech nationality. *Hinc prima mali labes.* The land of Huss welcomed the Reformation, and the power of Hapsburg crushed it out and with it the national existence. Nowhere did the Counter-Reformation do its work more thoroughly than in Bohemia. The Protestant uprising under Count Thurn, which initiated the Thirty Years' War and well-nigh overturned the Austrian throne, had as a consequence the conversion of Bohemia into a conquered province of the Hapsburgs and an absolute restoration to Catholicism. The Peace of Westphalia sealed the fate of Bohemia, and ever since that time the nation which a hundred years before Luther defied the power of the Church, and so heroically beat back the crusading chivalry of Germany, has been reposing quietly in the arms of Rome. And now, when the Czech thinks of the part he once played in history, he is beset by conflicting emotions. He cannot help reflecting how the glorious deeds of his race are bound up with those struggles against the Church to which he is so fondly wedded. Yet none the less strongly does his love of nationality assert itself.

"In that struggle between Teuton and Slav," observes Mr. Maurice in the work before us, "the one thing which, from the earliest to the latest times, has been the most prized treasure, and the subject of the fiercest championship of the Bohemian, is his language. . . . Hus is honored, even by Roman Catholic Bohemians, as the assertor and developer of their language."

The vigorous reawakening of national feeling among the Czechs in the latter years of the eighteenth century, and in the early part of the nineteenth, was mainly the work of the scholar and the writer. The people realized that they possessed a language for which it was worth while struggling, a tongue "one of the most varied and expressive of modern Europe." They realized as they had never done before their position as part of the great Slavic race, and they gave an emphatic utterance to this sentiment in 1848, when a Slavic congress was convened at Prague and the propaganda of Panslavism took tangible

shape. Unfortunately for the Czech, the great Slavic power which threatens the disruption of Austria and on which he might lean, is separated from him by the barrier of divergent religious belief.

The struggle for autonomy on the part of Bohemia constitutes at the present day the greatest of the internal perils which beset the Austrian ship of state. That the Germans of Cisleithania will yield, cannot be expected. They cannot for a moment contemplate the idea of the reconversion of Bohemia and Moravia into a Slavic kingdom and the handing over of millions of their people to the rule of a foreign race. While the Czechs are perhaps as far as ever from achieving their main object, the attainment of which would entail a fresh danger to the peace of Europe, their untiring agitation has wrought a great change in the status of their nationality. They can now point with pride to their national university at Prague, instituted by the Government of Cisleithania by the side of the old university, and rivalling in attendance the universities of Oxford and Leipzig.

We regret that the author whom we are reviewing should have confined himself within the limits indicated on the title-page. For an account of the stirring events of 1848 Mr. Maurice refers the reader to his 'Revolutions of 1848 and 1849,' which was reviewed at length in these columns. That work is inspired by an ardent sympathy with the peoples whose efforts to regain their autonomy formed part of that extraordinary upheaval. The volume before us is not a "story," but serious history. Mr. Maurice has not enrolled himself among the writers whose plan, as set forth in the prospectus of the "Story of the Nations," is to "enter into the real life of the peoples, and to bring them before the reader as they actually lived, labored, and struggled, —as they studied and wrote, and as they amused themselves." He is as far removed from this class of historians as possible. He deals only with events, and is entirely engrossed with the recital of the religious and political revolutions of a people whose tragic career has excited his sympathies, and which has been "strangely misunderstood by the average Englishman." The most appropriate place for the volume would be on the shelf by the side of Coxe's 'History of the House of Austria.'

Mr. Maurice has evidently devoted much study and labor to his task (much of his research having been done in the towns of Bohemia and Moravia), and he deals with his subject with such painstaking minuteness that his work becomes a chronicle through which only the student who is already somewhat of an historian will wade with entire satisfaction. Always intent on his main theme, the author refuses to drop the thread of his narrative in order to enable the reader to survey the field before him. Indeed, we have seldom seen an historical production in which the student is allowed to proceed so utterly without bearings. Mr. Maurice has apparently forgotten that an historical picture like the one he has so carefully drawn needs a framing to be properly appreciated. The kingdom of St. Wenceslas floats before our vision in a shoreless sea. The Holy Roman Empire, Austria, Poland, Hungary, Luxemburg, loom up only as phantoms on a vague horizon. The recital of the woes and throes of Bohemia can hardly be pronounced a grateful theme for the historian. There is little to fasten our gaze till we reach the epoch of the Luxemburg kings, and the brief periods of national greatness, if such they may be called, had each their sequel of depression and downfall. The part which Bohemia played in initiating the Thirty Years' War of course possesses most dramatic interest for the reader.

A temperate tone pervades this history. Mr. Maurice is not led to indulge in undue praise of the nationality whose cause he champions, or in denunciation of the race and rulers which it has had to serve. His narrative is plain and unadorned, the style unaffected and often forcible. He does not always show himself perfectly familiar with the facts of history when he has to tread beyond his immediate *terrain*. Thus, we are told on page 394 that many of the Bohemian Brotherhood "accepted the invitation of the Elector of Brandenburg to settle in his newly conquered province of Prussia." Now Prussia was not a "province," but a separate state, a duchy. It had not been "conquered" by the Elector of Brandenburg, nor was it under the sway of the Electors of Brandenburg at the time referred to; its ruler being a prince of the margraval line of Brandenburg-Ansbach, who had converted the realm of the Teutonic Knights, of which order he was grand-master, into a secular duchy. The Schmalkaldic League was not formed in 1542, as stated on page 388, but in 1530.

Mr. Maurice finds pleasure in making his readers acquainted with the names of Bohemian and Moravian places in their Slavic form, in spite of the fact that they generally "seem so unpronounceable." In many cases he couples the German and Bohemian forms, placing one in parenthesis. We think he has indulged his own predilection unwarrantably far (witness on page 395 *Loket*, in which who will recognize *Elbogen?*), and he merits the charge of inconsistency of which he expresses a fear in his preface. Thus, while on page 468 we find *Budweis* (*Budejóvice*) and *Pilsen* (*Plzen*), on page 470 the former of these towns is mentioned under its Czech and the latter under its German form. The Slavic names are printed throughout with their diacritical marks, to the great exhilaration of the Anglo-Saxon reader. It is a pity that the same attention has not everywhere been lavished upon names in strange tongues. Stephen Bocskay, the leader in the Hungarian rising of 1604, figures everywhere under the appellation of Bocksay. The introduction of such forms as Passauer (inhabitant of Passau) may be praiseworthy, but we cannot see why Mr. Maurice prefers to employ the same ending for the plural as for the singular. A strange slip or misprint occurs on page 374, where we read of the danger of Ferdinand's "election" to the throne of Spain.

The map of Bohemia and Moravia inserted at the back of the volume is defective in not giving the names of the important mountain ranges which enclose these regions. The name Lausitz (Lusatia) might advantageously have been introduced on this map. Of the numerous half-tone illustrations in this otherwise handsomely printed book, we can only say that most of them are beneath criticism.

GREEK FUNEREAL MONUMENTS.

Sculptured Tombs of Hellas. By Percy Gardner, Litt.D., Lincoln and Merton Professor of Classical Archæology and Art in the University of Oxford. With thirty plates and eighty-seven engravings in the text. Macmillan. 1897.

THIS beautiful book is welcome to all who believe in classical archæology as a study which may bring into prominence the humanitarian side of classical studies. It is equally serviceable for the general reader and for the scholar, since it deals competently with the whole subject in hand, without being voluminous. Of its 259 pages, nearly fifty are occupied by the engravings in the text, which are a wonderfully complete supplement to the thirty well-executed and selected full-page plates. Prof. Gardner has successfully studied a brevity which sacrifices nothing essential because it suppresses all labored descriptions of monuments, and depends upon adequate representations of the monuments themselves. In harmony with this truly artistic as well as time-saving plan is the practice adhered to of using rhymed metrical translations where the literary form of cited texts invites and permits such treatment. These translations are often very happy, although the advisability of using the ballad metre for extracts from Homer is perhaps open to question. Throughout the book our author has most aptly availed himself of the Palatine Anthology where excerpts from it show themselves applicable to this or that figured monument. This is often done with the most original effect, and the same thing is noticeable in the use made of actually inscribed epitaphs. By these appeals to poetry a literary flavor, never quite foreign to any class of Greek monuments, is made to enhance our appreciation of Greek sculptured tombs.

One consideration makes the subject of Greek funeral monuments of especial moment, and that is the importance of the fourth century B. C. in this particular branch of art. During the earlier, the great period of Athenian power, when the greatest splendor and perfection were achieved in larger concerns, the monuments of the dead were comparatively neglected. For this the reasons were no doubt many, and the parallel fact is worth noting that during the period of the great dramatists and historians such minor and intimately personal forms of literature as the epigram almost disappear. Therefore it is important to have before us a full treatment of that minor and more intimate aspect of Greek art which finds its fullest scope during a period which we are tempted to pass over with neglect. Certainly after the battle of Aegospotami, as our author says, "the conditions of sculpture at Athens underwent a great change," and "Art worked mainly in the service of individuals." This was a time when the sepulchral monuments at Athens became almost sumptuous, and such sculptors as Praxiteles, such painters as Nicias, undertook tombs. Two well-known sepulchral reliefs, that of Dexileos (Plate xii.) in the Ceramicus, and one found in the Ilissus (Plate xv.), are connected with the school of Scopas if not with Scopas himself. Indeed, Prof. Gardner, though decorously sceptical, does not visit with downright scorn the suggestion that the stele of Phænarete may be in commemoration of the mother of Socrates, the handiwork either of Socrates or of his father Sophroniscus.

In the days of Phidias, sculptors of renown had higher work to do, and thus there is perhaps only one funeral monument unmistakably suggestive of the style of Phidias—the wonderful "figure of a young man clad in a mantle, who holds in his left hand a bird, and extends the right without obvious purpose" (Plate xiv.). With this, however, can be roughly classed that "noble figure of an athletic ephebus" (Plate xiii.) found at Thespiæ, and

inscribed in Roman times with the name of Agathocles. Also here may be placed the stele of Tynnias, the son of Tynnon (Plate x.). Of this simple seated figure Prof. Gardner truly says: "The work is not very careful, yet it would not be easy to find in art a figure of greater grace and dignity. This mere mortal would sit undisgraced among the seated gods of the frieze of the Parthenon. He might almost stand for Zeus, the father of gods and men, instead of for the father of ordinary Athenian girls and boys." Indeed, just here we may discern the surviving religious hue of earlier sepulchral art, where it is so often quite impossible to say how far the sculptured representation stands for the man commemorated, and how far it shadows forth the netherworld divinity with whom death has united the departed soul. Of such earlier sculptured monuments our book contains not a few, and the account of these is especially interesting since it leads back to the general introductory chapter—based largely on Rohde's well-known book—dealing with beliefs as to a future life.

One of the fascinating mysteries still unsolved in Greek sculptured tombs and funeral representations of all kinds is the persistent conspicuousness of representations of the horse. A study of the plates and figures in those chapters of the present work (vi. and vii.) which deal with Spartan monuments and with "heroizing reliefs," reveals a constant tendency to introduce a representation of the horse. This is done so oddly as to suggest that the presence of this animal had the virtue of some sort of a charm or was in some way consecrated by ritual. Take, for instance, the stele from Chrysapha (fig. 30), on which a seated man holds a wine-cup in his extended right hand. Below the cup, leaping up towards his lap, is his dog. Nothing could be more normal or natural. But above the wine-cup, standing in mid-air, is a very diminutive horse. Nothing could be more formal or enigmatical. Dr. Furtwängler is quoted as giving a symbolical reference to both animals: the horse belongs to Hades, the dog to Hecate, both mythologically and ritually connected with the dead. Prof. Gardner has advocated the bolder view "that these animals sculptured on the stone bear the same relation to the mortal horse and dog which had belonged to the hero that the portrait bears to himself." This view seems satisfactory so far as the representation of the dog is concerned. Indeed, the representation of a favorite dog in various natural attitudes is one of the most charming of the commonplaces of Greek sculptured tombs. But the case of the horse is different. An uncanny prominence is given to him, either by "skying" him and making him disproportionately small, as in this stele from Chrysapha, or by bringing him full-sized into the centre of the sculptured scene, where he crowds the human figures into less conspicuous positions and seems to take possession of the altar pictured at the centre, as in a relief from Thebes now at Berlin (fig. 36 in the present book), or on two so-called "Marathonian" funeral vases in the Louvre, and on various monuments figured in Prof. Gardner's plates. Finally, still among heroizing reliefs, we have (fig. 39) the curious representation of a hero approached by a line of worshippers, while just in front of and above him appears the head of a horse thrust through a small window, as if to assert his lively interest in the ceremonial of hero-worship represented.

These and other striking details characterizing the horse as figured on funereal monuments have led Dr. Furtwängler and others to insist upon the connection between the horse and Hades. But, as Prof. Gardner points out, there is no really sufficient ground assigned for this connection. If, however, the late Mr. McLennan had lived to become cognizant of this archæological difficulty, there is no question that he would have seen in the mysterious prominence of the horse on many sculptured tombs and funereal representations an echo of primeval totem-worship. For, when he endeavored to indicate Greek records of the survival of totem clans, he pointed among other things to the astounding number of names and epithets of Homeric heroes which rung the changes upon the word ἵππος. Certainly the notion of a horse-totem is suggested not only by Homer, but also by many facts and fancies given by Pindar. If this totem-worship was merged into those forms of ancestor-worship which ultimately grouped themselves around the cult of netherworld Hades, then the mysterious prominence of the horse on Greek sculptured tombs would be easier to understand. Nor would this view at all exclude Prof. Gardner's simpler explanation "that a chief accustomed all his life to riding would scarcely be supposed to lack a horse in the field of Hades." This would not be the first time that a matter-of-fact explanation has accounted to people for their own persistence in a time-honored practice, the original motive for which had vanished far beyond their ken.

Our author's account of the sepulchral significance both of the sphinx and of the siren is most lucid, and he clearly points out how these borrowed figures became something entirely new, both outwardly and in their spiritual significance, the moment they entered Hellas. Athenian sentiment and taste could not finally appropriate the conception of the sirens as they appeared in Homeric legend. "The siren of Attic tombs," says our author, "has greatly modified her nature under the kindly influence of Attic poetry and art. She came from the East almost certainly as a malicious and devouring dæmon. But in the ordinary custom of Attic tombs of the fifth and fourth centuries she becomes friendly and sympathetic." This fixed the significance of the siren for later Greece, and among the terracotta figurines found in the burial-ground at Myrina, no figures are more full of the incommunicable thrill of beautified regretfulness than those magical forms and faces of sirens scattered in profusion through the soil which enshrouded the beloved dead. But the necropolis of Myrina contained no sculptured tombs, and belongs mainly to the Greco-Roman period, which is not touched by the book in hand.

To return, then, to our author, he certainly has not justified a dictum laid down in his preface, that the Attic literature of Greece belonged to a class, an aristocracy; for nothing is more happy or striking than the constant use he has made of the tragedians as well as of the Anthology in pointing the meaning of his sculptured records of Atheniam sorrow for the dead. Nor does it seem likely that he could defend in the long run quite such an extreme statement about Homer as that "It is really remarkable how nearly the Homeric theories of the soul correspond with the facts recorded by that cautious and sceptical body of inquirers, 'The Psychical Society.'" Even Rohde, who has chosen to draw his whole picture of Hellenic beliefs as to a future life without much regard to delicate shades of transition and with a sad neglect of half-lights, has said nothing quite so lurid as this in his account of the "rationalizing" drift of Homer.

There is another point made in Prof. Gardner's striking account of the monuments of Dexileos and Aristonautes commemorated because they died on the field of battle, but sculptured in the most lively attitudes of warfare, which seems open to question.

"An artist," he says, speaking of Dexileos, "such as those who have modelled the tombs of St. Paul's and Westminster, would probably have sculptured him smitten to death, falling back in the arms of a grateful country; perhaps would have added, above, an angel crowning him with a wreath of celestial reward. But the Greek artists of the good period could not find in defeat and death any elements worthy of their art; they must represent those whom they portrayed in the moment of success and victory, not in that of overthrow. The difference is very suggestive. Infinitely inferior to Greek art in charm, in simplicity and dignity, modern art introduces higher elements than were usually taken into account in Hellas. From the artistic point of view the ancients were right; but from the ethical point of view there may be more to be said for the moderns."

The one thing which it is impossible to allow is that such representations as those in Westminster and St. Paul's thus alluded to stand for modern art. Most emphatically we protest that in such funereal monstrosities no higher element than melodrama can possibly be said to be introduced. If such things can pass for modern art, it is high time to agitate for a purgation of the two places of state burial in London.

But we must not part save in amity from so truly delightful a book, and will close, after noting the fascinating chapter at the end on the Sidon sarcophagi, and the really unique account of the Mausoleum in chapter xiv., with Prof. Gardner's wonderfully happy summary of the nobility and dignity which exhale alike from the roughest and the most finished of Athenian sculptured tombs. "Like the maidens of the Parthenon frieze, all these human beings behave as if in the immediate presence of the gods. They embody nobility and repose." Indeed, Prof. Gardner has here answered his own heretical statement that the melodramatic vacuity of certain monuments in St. Paul's embodies a higher element, and better satisfies an ethical standard, than do the sculptured tombs of Hellas.

The Girlhood of Maria Josepha Holroyd [Lady Stanley of Alderley]. Recorded in Letters of a Hundred Years Ago: from 1776 to 1796. Edited by J. H. Adeane. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

THE pair of silhouettes which ornament the cover of this volume are an excellent introduction to its contents. Before the reader reaches the title-page he is reminded by a profile of Gibbon facing another profile of Lord Sheffield that the peer was the historian's most familiar friend, and that the name of Holroyd will always be remembered so long as men, prompted by admiration of the 'Decline and Fall,' are led on to explore its author's life. Gibbon is both directly and indirectly concerned in this bundle of family letters. His authority is invoked by the editor to vouch for the unusual parts of Maria Holroyd, and he appears *passim* in the correspondence which she conducted with her friends and relatives. Moreover, a visit paid to him by Lord Sheffield with his wife and daughters furnishes the central action of the piece. The party reached Lausanne via Paris, travelling through France just after Louis

XVI.'s attempted flight to General Bouillé and detention at Varennes. On the journey and in Lausanne they met several leading nobles with whom they were again thrown in at Coblenz when on their way home. Thus Gibbon is very much to the fore, both from his intimacy with the Holroyds and as being the indirect means of their intercourse with many of the *émigrés*. Lord Sheffield was able to return with interest the hospitality which had been shown him on the Continent, by entertaining his former hosts after the stress of Revolution had driven them to seek refuge in England. It is to her close acquaintance with politicians like the Prince de Poix, Malouet, and Lally-Tollendal that the letters of Miss Holroyd owe most of the historical importance which they possess.

The personal interest of this correspondence is considerable. Maria Holroyd was a precocious child who did not lose her brightness with the approach of early womanhood. Gibbon may be suspected of falling into the vein of eighteenth-century flattery when he praises her to her face, but one also observes that he uses the same expressions in writing to persons outside the Holroyd circle. Though Edridge's portrait does not make her out a beauty, it shows intelligence, and her letters supply evidence of the sprightliness with which a successful woman of fashion must be endowed. She was born in 1771 and married to Mr. J. T. Stanley, afterwards the first Lord Stanley of Alderley, in 1796. Her letters now published open with a few childish efforts and end with her marriage. They begin to be worth notice in 1791, the date of her first visit to the Continent, and illustrate her life with fulness from its twentieth to its twenty-fifth year. Thus they cover French politics from the end of the Constituent Assembly to the installation of the Directory, and with French politics they deal more than with any other one subject. They are addressed principally to the writer's aunt, Sarah Martha Holroyd, and to a member of the family at Sheffield Place, Miss Anne Firth. Answers are often included, so that the effect of a mutual rather than of a one-sided correspondence is preserved.

One of Miss Holroyd's strong points was that she hardly ever ventured into the field of political dissertation, where she would have been a failure, but contented herself with writing free and frank descriptions of what she saw and did. Her breeding must have been excellent, for she never ran into girlish ecstasies over her experiences and acquaintance, though both would have gone to a weak head. That she kept her eyes open is quite clear. Her narrative is circumstantial to a degree, and bears traces of depending for fact on jottings made at the moment. Her account of the Apotheosis of Voltaire reminds one of the modern reporter. We select a passage from it to show her minuteness and the quality of her style:

"Garlands of Roses, oak leaves, etc., were thrown on the figure of Mirabeau as it passed, and women, as well as men, clapped and bravoed enough to deafen anybody who had not the spirit of Democracy as perfect as themselves. Then a plan and model of the Bastille; pieces of the Bastille, cut into the form of and painted to look like books, and old pieces of armour and cannon balls which were found in the Bastille when it was taken and destroyed: flags were carried with sentences out of Voltaire's works in favor of Liberty; after these, a gilt figure of Voltaire, seated on a chair, was brought and placed before the House. . . . Then followed a Case with Voltaire's Works very richly bound; National Guards; Deputies from the Municipality, Theatres, and Académies de Musique et de Danse. Some of the Poissardes who distinguished themselves most in the famous Revolution, marched in the procession in a most ludicrous dress, perfectly amphibious, for they were neither man nor woman. They had a petticoat on, which gave one reason to suppose they were females, while the Coat and Epaulette appeared as much the contrary; but the best information I could get, said they were women. I really supposed they had been men in women's clothes."

These are only a few lines taken from four pages of compact detail.

For one whom birth and friendships threw into the aristocratic camp Miss Holroyd, writing from Paris, Strassburg, and Coblenz, is tolerably impartial. While she notes the harangues of Brissot and Pétion at the Jacobin Club, and the popularity of "Ça ira! Ça ira! les Aristocrates à la Lanterne!" she likewise notes the trouble caused at Strassburg by the singing of "O Richard! O mon Roi!" and the jealousies of the *émigrés* at Coblenz. She reached the last named place on her return from Lausanne in October of 1791, just after the league of Pillnitz had given the Comte d'Artois and his band great courage. The town was overflowing with French notabilities, and Lord Sheffield's party had to hunt for beds to sleep in with as much diligence as is now required in Lucerne during the month of August.

"After the Servants had inquired at every Inn in the town, and at many private Houses, we could only have one miserable room without a bit of Furniture, and only one Bed, without Curtains. This was just better than nothing, and we four women adjusted ourselves as well as we could on Mattresses upon the Ground; Mama occupying the bed, which broke down as soon as she got in. Papa slept in the boat, as there was no place for him to dress and undress in, the house was so full."

Lord Sheffield, however, had the *entrée*, and met every one, from the Elector and princes of the blood down to counts and field-marshals. Of all the French nobles subsequently received as honored guests at Sheffield Place Lally-Tollendal became most closely identified with the family. No one interested in his career can afford to neglect the information about him which is contained in Miss Holroyd's letters.

We shall say little about the Gibbon element in these pages. It is of almost equal volume with the element of French politics and will perhaps attract more readers. For present purposes it may be lightly dismissed, because it does not add anything of much moment to our knowledge of that imposing historian's character or surroundings. Miss Holroyd had a sincere affection for him and admired him too. She wondered why he could remain in Lausanne, "for there does not appear to me anybody with whom he can converse on equal terms, or who is worthy to hear him." Yet she does not seem to have appreciated the value of his life-work, for the words in which she adverts to his death fall wholly short of the occasion: "We have lost a true and sincere friend, indeed, and just now he is a particular loss to Papa. . . . There is no other person who has half the influence that poor man had. The best sense always guided by the best Judgment."

While one does not scrutinize private letters with a view to detecting errors of fact, we can say that Miss Holroyd's references to public affairs are more than usually accurate. She makes a mistake when she says of Count Rumford in 1796: "He has lived the last twenty years of his life at Munich, as Prime Minister to the Elector of Bavaria," and her authority for the statement that the snowy Alps of Bern are seventy miles distant from the Lake of Thun is somewhat shady. Addison, by the way, puts the same mountain chain in the Grisons. Miss Holroyd's utterances on subjects within her proper range bear the stamp of truth, and her letters deserve the dainty garb in which they are presented.

Higher Education in Russian, Austrian, and Prussian Poland. By Hermann Schoenfeld, Ph.D., Professor of Modern Languages and Continental History in the Columbian University, Washington, D C.: being Chap. xv. of the Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1894-95. Washington. 1896.

THE average person connects with the name of Poland that of Jan Sobieski, the partition of the country and its consequent disappearance from the sisterhood of European states. To a few it still preserves a semblance of national existence in the cultivation of a native literature, of which Sienkiewicz is almost the only known representative. But one can almost count on his fingers the names of those Americans who are acquainted with the fact that a renaissance of letters and of the national spirit has been in progress for the last quarter of a century in the dislocated members of the quondam Polish kingdom, which gives fair promise soon to rival, if not to surpass, its golden age in the sixteenth century. Poland is far from being dead, and at no time has the national hymn, "Jeszcze Polska nie zginela" (Poland is not yet lost), proved so prophetic as now. It is true, the regeneration of the country in a political sense is as yet a distant dream, but intellectually and morally it is all that can be desired. Under these circumstances, nothing could be more timely than a report on the higher education in Russian, Austrian, and Prussian Poland, the purpose of which is in a substantial manner, by dint of dates, facts, and figures, to bring before our eyes the feverish activity of this Slavic race.

After giving a general summary of the education and of the historical vicissitudes of the country, and a discussion of the prominent features of the language, the author passes on to the condition of Polish learning in the sixteenth century and the dissemination of the printing-press in Poland; then follows a succinct review of the higher education in the period of the Reformation, and finally a report on the state of higher learning at the present time. Mr. Schoenfeld does not profess to give an exhaustive treatise on the subject (this he promises in a larger volume), but only a general review, to form a chapter in the report of the Commissioner of Education. He has acquitted himself well of his task and deserves our commendation. There are, however, a number of minor matters that we should like to see improved in his larger work. For example, we should like to see him quote Morfill less and original sources more. Morfill, to be sure, has done creditable work in introducing Slavic literature to an English public, but as he himself draws almost exclusively on foreign (mainly Slavic) sources, we regret to see so many facts got at second hand. Under the chapter on Language we find some incorrect statements, showing an imperfect appreciation of linguistic facts. The statement that "the syllable with the vowel which has the tonic accent is long" occurs, indeed, in some grammars, but is entirely wrong; so, too, the

author has probably never heard the hard *l* pronounced in Polish, since he makes it "similar to *ll* in Spanish." A Russian philologist has described the sound as "liquida lateralis lingualis prior dorsalis postdentalis," which is both scientifically exact and æsthetically beautiful!

In matters of transliteration from Slavic languages no unanimity exists among English writers, some trying the impossible task of giving English phonetic equivalents for native sounds, others making a half-hearted attempt at exact etymological renderings of the original. When the English first became acquainted with Russia, in the sixteenth century, they transcribed the many foreign words as they heard them, and they succeeded in approaching tolerably near the native pronunciation. In the eighteenth century the French set the precedent for writing Russian with French equivalents, and now we generally get an unhappy blending of these two methods with the etymological system; but from this nothing but chaos can result. In popular literature not much can be done to remove this awkwardness, but in scientific or generally serious literature, in bibliographies and catalogues, nothing but the etymological method ought to be attempted—*i. e.*, those Slavic languages which already use a Latin alphabet must be left in the form in which we find them, with the diacritical marks, if available, placed over or under the letters. The Slavic languages that use the Cyrillic alphabet (Russian, Ruthenian, Serbian, Bulgarian) possess very convenient Latin correspondents, such as we find in the Croatian, which is hardly anything else than Serbian written with Roman type. This system is universally used by philologists (especially in the *Archiv f. Sl. Ph.*), and is as good as can be desired. In Mr. Schoenfeld's report there is no consistency in this matter: on p. 767 we find the scientific transliteration, elsewhere a phonetic form, and in the word *varshawskago* on p. 750 not less than three methods are combined in one.

A similar diversity exists in the use of the word Slavic, for which our author, and with him many others, uses somewhat indiscriminately Slavic, Slavonic, Slavonian. This multiplicity arises from the fact that no two Slavic nations use the same generic word. Only so much is certain—the stem of all such words is connected with *slovo*, and means, as now accepted by philologists, 'the people endowed with speech,' just as the Slavs call foreigners, particularly Germans, *Němec*, mute, *i. e.*, "barbaroi." Unfortunately, Mr. Schoenfield brings forward the antiquated etymology from *slava*, 'glory,' making the Slavs 'the glorious people.' Extreme Panslavists alone now cherish this derivation. The chaos is still further increased by the many names, with *slav*, *slov* for their stem, borne by a large number of local subdivisions. The Russians of the Middle Ages called the Novgorodians Slovenians; Slavonia is a (Croatian) province of Austria; Slovenians are collectively the Slavs of Carniola, Carinthia, Styria; the Slovak is a dialect, with an independent literature, of Bohemian. In view of all this, philologists and other scholars in Germany and France long ago appropriated the shorter form Slav and Slavic (*slavisch*) for the generic name of the whole family, leaving Slavonian and Slavonic as derivatives from Slavonia. There is no reason why English and American writers should not follow this excellent precedent. The confusion in the report will be seen from the following quotation: "(Polish) surpasses in importance and scope all the other *Slavonic* literatures taken together—*i. e.*, Bohemian, Servian, Croatian, *Slavonian*, Russian, Bulgarian" (p. 714). Does the author mean Slovenian or Old-Church-Slavic by Slavonian? In another place he speaks of *Panslavic* grammar as taught in the University of Warsaw (p. 756). In justice to that institution be it said that no such absurdity is attempted there. Krizanic's 'Panslavic Language' has long since been abandoned by all who make pretence at Slavic scholarship. The author has merely wrongly interpreted the word "obsceslavjanskij," which he found in the catalogue, and which means 'comparative Slavic,' or, rather, *Urslavisch*.

We hope all these defects will be eliminated in the author's larger work.

Thomas of Monmouth's Life and Miracles of St. William of Norwich. Edited by Augustus Jessopp, D.D., and Montague Rhodes James, Litt.D. Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

One of the most repulsive features of Jewish persecution by Christians is the ascription to Jews of the practice of immolating Christians in the performance of secret and hideous rites. Belief in this has existed for ages and is as yet by no means extinct. It has no authoritative warrant, for when Gregory XIII., in 1581, in his atrocious bull against the Jews, enumerated the offences which subjected them to the jurisdiction of the Inquisition, he made no mention of this, although he specified a custom ascribed to them of attaching a lamb to a cross and spitting on it, or otherwise insulting it, in derision of the crucifixion. Still the belief continues to exist and is made the basis of persecution, though not to the extent of the massacres for which, during the Middle Ages, it sometimes served as an excuse. In 1817 the Russian Government was obliged to issue a ukase to put an end to frequent prosecutions brought against Jews for such alleged offences in Russian Poland, and in 1840 a firman from the Sultan was rendered necessary in consequence of the torturing to death of prominent Jews of Damascus in the effort to obtain confessions arising from the disappearance of a priest named Thomaso—proceedings in which the French consul took an active and sinister part. As lately as 1892 the *Kreutz-Zeitung* deplored the miscarriage of justice in the failure to convict a Jewish butcher, named Buschoff, of Xanten near Düsseldorf, accused of murdering a Christian boy, and the *Germania* asserted that such sanguinary rites are encouraged in the Talmud, in spite of the notorious fact that rabbinical Judaism is especially scrupulous in the matter of bloodshed.

In view of these well-known scruples, ingenuity has been taxed to devise some explanation of the assumed propensity to offer up a Christian as a sacrifice during the Passover celebration. It has been gravely asserted that a Jewess in labor could not bring forth without being anointed with Christian blood which was thus procured. This would require such a constant succession of victims that a more plausible reason was found in the allegation that on Easter-day all Jews were afflicted with a bloody flux, for which Christian blood was the only remedy. In the book before us (p. 93) we find an earlier and a less prosaic explanation. Theobald, a converted Jew, informed his gaping fellow-monks of Norwich that, in accordance with old tradition, the annual sacrifice of a Christian child, in parody of the crucifixion, would eventually restore to the promised land the Jews of the Diaspora. Every year the leading rabbis assembled in Narbonne and determined by lot the country in which the offering was to be made; then in that land the town which was to perform it was selected in the same manner. In 1144, by this process, Norwich was chosen, and the result was the murder of the boy named William who figures in hagiography as St. William of Norwich, with his feast-day on March 25.

To all students interested in the growth of legends and fables the work which Doctors Jessopp and James have laid before us will be found indispensable. The martyrdom in question is the earliest recorded case of the kind, though it is by no means likely that such a belief could have assumed a shape so definite and complete as we find it here without having had predecessors. Hitherto the story has been known only through more or less imperfect narratives derived from the contemporary account by William of Monmouth. The fortunate discovery of a MS. of this work has enabled the editors to give it in full with all the necessary apparatus—a translation and an introduction in which everything that antiquarian learning and research can bring to bear is utilized to enable us to realize the environment in which occurred the martyrdom of the boy-saint, with such side-lights as serve to elucidate the probabilities of the story. Photographs, also, are given of all surviving representations of St. William to be found on the screens of churches at the present day.

The interest of the work, moreover, is by no means confined to the question of the blood-ritual, for we gain a very perfect view of the process of the manufacture of saints. Why a child who had been supposedly entrapped and murdered by Jews should become at once a saintly martyr, any more than one who met death by violence in any other form, is a problem in superstition not easily solved; but the example set in this instance was repeatedly followed during the Middle Ages, and was ratified by the Holy See in the case of St. Simeon of Trent, crucified in 1472. We here see how the holiness of St. William began to show itself in visions and miracles; how Prior Elias of the Benedictine house where he was buried refused to countenance the belief, and resisted the efforts of Bishop William Turbe of Norwich, who was determined to have it recognized, and how, after the death of Elias in 1149, his successor was more pliable, after which miracles multiplied and the cult became established. A new and vigorous saint of unquestioned thaumaturgic power was a valuable acquisition, for the oblations of pilgrims and the ex-votos of the sick were a source of reliable revenue, and all churches and religious houses were apt to be on the lookout for such means of increasing their income. The invention of miracles was merely a pious fraud, which did not even require imagination, for Gregory the Great and Gregory of Tours were always at hand to supply models from which to borrow. A large part of William of Monmouth's work consists of a recital of these marvels, and Dr. Jessopp points out a number which are evidently derived from older sources. Puerile as many of these may seem to us, they throw much incidental light on the manners and customs and beliefs of an age of which our knowledge is imperfect.

Grover Cleveland. By James Lowry Whittle. With two portraits. London and New York: Frederick Warne & Co.

THIS sketch, by an Englishman, was written before the Presidential election of last year. It is, the author says, a study of "Mr. Cleveland's attempt to apply the original teaching of Jefferson and his followers to the Republic of to day." Brought within a small compass, and told with considerable skill, the story is very different from the dreary record some readers might expect from this definition. It is full of the most dramatic interest, for it gives us the picture of a great struggle by a political leader of courage, strong will, and individuality against malevolent intrigue and persistent corruption, ignorance, and prejudice embodied in the Government of which he is the head. The book is not likely to be passed over, for Cleveland's vigorous character invests the narrative with the sort of interest that "politics" never gave to anything, and this although it relates only to his public career. Of the man in private station we get no sort of glimpse. His tastes, friendships, interests, whims, passions, enthusiasms, or vanities are as if they were not, and this although he has lived both in New York and in Washington, and though the inquisitiveness of the press has never willingly respected his privacy. We see him here solely in his relation to the people whose rights he has protected, solely as the trustee of the greatest elective political trust in the world, battling with fraud and wrong, and proclaiming his unalterable loyalty to the immortal principles which underlie free government.

So far as domestic politics goes, the author's view of Cleveland would not differ much from that held by the mass of his supporters (his constant popular majorities have been one of the most marked features of his career). The fact that the great danger to popular institutions with us (is it not so everywhere?) lies in the tendency of private interests to absorb the functions of government, is brought out with a good deal of force, and in Cleveland's mouth "Public office is a public trust" becomes a battle-cry, while his state papers on economical questions take rank as the work of a true statesman. When he summoned the country to attack the tariff in 1887, not a politician but deplored his indiscretion; in 1892 tariff reform swept the country. In 1895 he declared that the greenbacks must be retired, and in 1897 we are about to witness the appointment of a Secretary of the Treasury pledged to this policy by the party which is responsible for having kept the greenbacks afloat.

In foreign affairs the author has a more difficult task, for even a eulogist cannot make out that Mr. Cleveland's foreign policy has been consistent. A fair enough account is given of the Keiley and Murchison incidents, of the President's policy as regards the Sandwich Islands and Cuba, and of the fisheries and Venezuela imbroglios; but Mr. Whittle fails to mention the withdrawal of the Frelinghuysen-Zavala treaty, which was important as showing a sane view of the canal question.

The evident haste with which the book has been compiled has marred its accuracy, and consequently its effectiveness. Mr. Cleveland was not "at the head of his profession" when he became a candidate for high office (p. 8). If Mrs. Cleveland was born in 1864, she cannot be said to have been "not yet twenty" in 1886 (pp. 85-86.) The statement on p. 75 that in his dealings with foreign governments the President has "hardly an even share of power" with the Foreign Affairs Committee of the Senate, will hardly be assented to by any one who remembers that he is in daily and, if necessary, hourly communication with them, while the Senate has no direct communication with these governments and generally acts in reference to foreign affairs only on the President's motion. That "Baby Cleveland" was a popular cry in the election of 1892 (p. 87), we deny; nor are we willing to admit that the picture of the American view of the relation of the United States to the rest of the world given at p. 219 is a true description of the real public opinion of to day. If it were, our case would be hopeless, for to be American would mean to be silly. Cleveland himself is an American of the Americans.

Classes and Masses. By W. H. Mallock. Macmillan Co. 1896.

WHAT Mr. Mallock has undertaken in this little book is what must be continually undertaken in every country where government by the people prevails. In every such country there will always be found demagogues whose energies will be devoted to stirring up discontent with existing institutions. They will proclaim, as Mr. Mallock says, that society as now organized is essentially unjust; that its "tendency is to confine the benefits of progress more and more strictly to the few, and to push down the masses of the people into ever deepening poverty and servitude, rendering their chances of making even a bare living more and more uncertain." The proper way to deal with such complaints is not to meet them with ridicule and denunciation, but to investigate them; to ascertain by scientific inquiry whether they have any basis or not If it appears that they have a substantial basis, then the demagogues were right in endeavoring to effect changes. If it can be shown that they have no basis, then the demagogues were wrong, and we must trust to the intelligence of the community to repudiate them.

We should very quickly exhaust our space were we to attempt to state the results of Mr. Mallock's investigation. He has prepared a perfect magazine of arguments ready for use by public speakers or by any one who has occasion to refute popular fallacies; but as his facts are drawn from English sources, they are only indirectly serviceable in this country. The inferences from them, however, are so unavoidable and so far-reaching as to establish a presumption that they are true outside of Great Britain. The condition of the poor may have improved more in that country than in others; but the fact that it has so greatly improved there—under the blighting influence of gold monometallism, it may be remarked in passing—proves that the present constitution of society is not necessarily evil.

So far as actual pauperism is concerned, Mr. Mallock shows that in proportion to population it has declined one-half within the period of a generation. The middle class—those having incomes between £150 and £1,000—increased between 1850 and 1880 from 330,000 to 990,000. The rich—those having incomes over £1,000—have not increased so rapidly, and with the exception of a few hundred persons their average wealth has not increased so much as that of the middle class. Since 1880 it is notorious that the great incomes from land have been cut down; and if the total income of the millionaires were divided among the people, it would be for each individual only a shilling a month. As to the working people, their numbers have relatively decreased because so many of them have risen into the middle class, but their income has grown enormously. It amounted in 1860 to as much as the income of all classes in 1800; it amounted in 1880 to as much as the income of all classes in 1850. During the century, average wages have also considerably more than doubled. As to the "idle rich," Mr. Mallock demonstrates that the proportion of unoccupied male adults is as one to sixty, and he contends that the ground rents of the whole country do not exceed a hundred million pounds—sixty millions less than the Socialists claim.

We do not vouch for the correctness of all Mr. Mallock's calculations, although we are satisfied that many of them are unexceptionable. But his book is to be commended to American readers as an illustration of methods of dealing with social discontent which we shall probably have to employ. Its weak point, as in most such efforts, is its employment of possibly defective and misleading statistics; and it is much to be desired that no one who shall attempt similar work in this country will be satisfied without the most conscientious verification of the figures furnished either by Government or by private enterprise.

The Silva of North America. By Charles Sprague Sargent. Vol. X. Liliaceæ to Coniferæ. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

THIS tenth volume of the 'Silva' gives forty-one more of the French reproductions of Mr. Faxon's beautiful plates. For the most part, the French artists have been successful, and with few exceptions have preserved the life-like character which Mr. Faxon has the gift of imparting to his figures. In some of the present plates there is noticeable a tendency to deepen the shadows beyond their true value, but, while this impairs the general effect, it does not touch the accuracy of the outlines. The remarkable steadiness with which Mr. Faxon has adhered to the high ideal with which he started in his illustration of the 'Silva,' gives to these plates, which now pass the five-hundred mark, the same value that the first possessed; their fidelity and artistic feeling are of the highest order. The analyses are well done and heighten the value of each demonstration. In questions which may later arise as to determinations, there can be no doubt as to the originals which Mr. Faxon had in hand.

The text is excellent. Some of the specific differentiations would be, without the accompanying plates, rather obscure, but, with the figures, present few features which would be likely to lead astray. The general descriptions of species are attractive and telling. And in all cases the general accounts of biological and economic aspects are interesting, especially when read in connection with the copious notes and references.

The range of the tenth volume carries the reader beyond the great group of Dicotyledons, extending from magnolias to willows, with which its nine predecessors had to do, and we begin here with the Monocotyledons. These two great groups of plants are distinguished in many ways. Between them, in the system of classification generally followed in this country hitherto, it has been customary to place the Gymnosperms. But of late years it has been shown beyond reasonable doubt that the Gymnosperms are very closely allied

to the more highly developed relatives of the ferns, and are therefore in the system of classification to be placed near them instead of between the two great groups of flowering plants above referred to. Prof. Sargent has wisely adopted this course.

The Monocotyledons, to which lilies, grasses, and the like belong, do not possess very many arborescent forms. Only two orders of these fall within our geographical limits. The order Liliaceæ contributes eight species, all of yucca. These are the Spanish bayonets and their kin, some of them having a noble or at least striking port. Of palms, the other order within the limits, there are seven species. One of the species of palms fitly commemorates the name of the author of the 'Silva.'

After the Monocotyledons come the Gymnosperms, for it must be remembered that the sequence in this work is from the plants assumed to be highest down to the lower. In the present volume only a few of the Gymnosperms are discussed. These are the Torreyas, junipers, cedars, and their near relatives; the vast group of pines is to find a place in subsequent volumes. The pines will bring this valuable work to a close.

The Yoke of Empire. Sketches of the Queen's Prime Ministers. By Reginald Brett. [With portraits.] Macmillan. 1896.

THIS is an elegant little volume, in which, the preface tells us, "the writer has endeavored to illustrate a single point—the human relation between a constitutional sovereign and her ministers." It is a sufficiently readable account of five of these remarkable men, Lord Melbourne, Sir Robert Peel, Lord Palmerston, Lord Beaconsfield, and Mr. Gladstone, while the period from 1846 to 1861, when Lord John Russell, Lord Derby, Lord Aberdeen, and Lord Palmerston held the Treasury for longer or shorter periods, is not improperly thrown into a single chapter, under the name of Prince Albert as "Permanent Minister." The writer does not disguise his opinion that Sir Robert Peel occupies much the highest position, whether for talents or character, among these leaders; and such is not unlikely to be the verdict of history. Mr. Brett is remarkably gentle, almost affectionate, towards Lord Melbourne as the Queen's instructor in her duties, and, though severe, hardly unjust to Lord Derby, as too flighty for his high position. He is generally fair to Russell, but he omits to bring out that his ministry was bound to be unsuccessful because the offices were blocked with a flood of Greys and Elliots, appointed out of an exaggerated regard for Russell's former chief and his own wife. The story of how the Queen gradually got over her dislike to Palmerston, Gladstone, and Disraeli is well told, though Mr. Brett hardly makes clear—perhaps he dared not—that such liberality and openness of disposition was much more possible to Victoria herself than to her somewhat narrow, if high-minded, husband.

There are some blots in the book. To say Peel was "ostracised" from political office is thorough journalistic jargon; his position in Parliament was as far from the exile of Aristides or Thucydides as well could be. To call Victoria at eighteen a "child-queen" (p. 4) is ridiculous; and so is it to speak of her husband as a "lad of twenty-two" (p. 39) and a "boy of six and twenty" (p. 70). The American minister in 1838 was not named Stephenson (p. 19). According to the 'Annual Register' for 1837, it was not Lord Conyngham but Lord Albemarle who accompanied the Archbishop in conveying to the Queen the news of her accession (p. 3)—if it is of any consequence.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Autobiography of Charles Force Deems, D.D., and Memoir by his Sons. F. H. Revell Co. $1.50.
Bailey, L. H. The Forcing-Book. Macmillan. $1.
Bartholomew, J. G. The Pocket Atlas of the World. 10th ed. Putnams. $1.25.
Cutler, E. H. The Ninth Book of Vergil's Æneid. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Davenport, C. B. Experimental Morphology. Part I. Effect of Chemical and Physical Agents upon Protoplasm. Macmillan. $2.60
Davidson, John. Miss Armstrong's and Other Circumstances. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Deland, Ellen D. In the Old Herrick House, and Other Stories. Harpers. $1.50.
Ellacombe, H. N. The Plant-Lore and Garden Craft of Shakspere. New ed., illustrated. Edward Arnold.
Frazer, R. W. British India. [The Story of the Nations.] Putnams. $1.50.
Gardner, Prof. E. A. A Handbook of Greek Sculpture. Vol II. Macmillan. $1 25.
Henley, W. E. The Works of Lord Byron. Vol. I. Letters, 1804-1813. Macmillan. $1.75.
Henry, Stuart Hours with Famous Parisians. Chicago: Way & Williams. $1.25.
Hornung, E. W. A Bride from the Bush. Scribners. 75c.
Howells, W. D. A Previous Engagement. Harpers. 50c.
Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Florence. Harpers $1.
Ibsen, Henrik. John Gabriel Borkman. Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Jacob, Georg. Altarabische Parallelen zum Alten Testament. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Kingsley, Miss Mary H. Travels in West Africa. Macmillan. $6.50.
Kipling, Rudyard. Plain Tales from the Hills. Soldiers Three and Military Tales. Vols. I. and II. in the "Outward Bound" Edition. Scribners
Lee, Sidney. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XLVIII. Reilly-Robins. Macmillan. $3.75
Macaulay's Essays on Addison, Milton and Johnson, and Goldsmith. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Each 25c.
Macy, Prof. Jesse. The English Constitution: A Commentary on its Nature and Growth. Macmillan. $2.
Matthews, Edith V. B. Six Cups of Chocolate. Harpers. 25c.
Matzke, Prof. J. E. A Primer of French Pronunciation. Henry Holt & Co. 25c.
Meredith, George. An Essay on Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit. Scribners. $1 25.
Morgan, Sir G. O. The Eclogues of Virgil. Translated into English Hexameter Verse. Henry Frowde.
Newhall, James F. Ye Great and General Courte in Collonie Times. Lynn, Mass.: Thos. P. Nichols.
Oldenberg, Hermann. Vedic Hymns. Part II. [Sacred Books of the East.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Orton, Prof Edward. An Account of the Descendants of Thomas Orton of Windsor, Connecticut, 1641 (Principally in the Male Line). Columbus, O.: Nitschke Bros. $2.
Robida, A Le Mystère de la Rue Carême-Prenant. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Scudder, Eliza. Hymns and Sonnets. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Tarr, Prof. R. S. Elementary Geology. Macmillan. $1.40.
Yeoman, W. J. A Woman's Courier. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Yonge, Charlotte M. Unknown to History: A Story of the Captivity of Mary of Scotland. Macmillan.

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The Week.

MR. CLEVELAND'S parting veto—of the Immigration bill, namely—is not the least of the services he has rendered his country. He does not exhaust the list of objections to a measure which was doubtless favored and actively promoted by many well-meaning citizens out of Congress, but which was most ostentatiously urged and defended within that body by Jingoes, protectionists, and labor demagogues, and which even so passed the Senate by a bare majority of three. The President clearly enough sets forth the contrast between the policy here attempted and that which has been observed by this country, except in the case of the Chinese, hitherto, in welcoming all sound-bodied, industrious immigrants from any quarter, and shows how loosely the bill was drawn, what uncertainty and hardship and inhumanity its execution would entail, and what an irritating effect it would have on our immediate neighbors particularly, by its provisions regarding crossing the border in search of temporary employment.

President Cleveland's proclamations adding many vast tracts to the national forest-preserves mark the completion of a great work of enduring value to the country which has been done in the right way. Some years ago Congress authorized the Executive to withdraw from public sale parts of the forested public lands, and during the Harrison administration about 18,000,000 acres were thus set apart, to which are now added about 21,000,000 acres more. There was no "politics" in the business from first to last. The selection of lands, instead of being intrusted to office-seekers whose claims could not be otherwise met, was committed to a board of experts appointed by the National Academy of Sciences, with Prof. Sargent of Harvard as President and other men of equal fitness as his associates. For many years past, clear-sighted men have pointed out that the reckless cutting of timber in the far West threatened irreparable harm to the interests of that section, and so of the whole nation; but the danger was that, as there was "nothing in it" for the politicians, the movement for forest preservation might fail, especially as selfish interests were bitterly opposed to the reform. That in the face of these obstacles it has been achieved, is cause for national congratulation.

The Treasury statement for February invites comparison with the corresponding statement for February, 1893. Of course, we all know that President Harrison turned over the Treasury in a glorious condition, and we know that President Cleveland has emptied it and is now maliciously smiling as he hands over nothing but debt and deficit to his successor. We know this because several reputable stump-speakers and a multitude of veracious newspapers have so asserted. But it may be just as well to ask what the official figures say. They may be lying, but what they say is that the total available funds in the Treasury at the end of February, 1893, amounted to $146,812,418; the corresponding sum now is $212,837,255. Then the gold in excess of certificates reached $103,000,000; now it is $147,000,000. The available cash balance above the gold reserve was then $49,000,000—practically, counting out unavailable fractional coin and the fund for the redemption of national banknotes, less than $30,000,000. Now it is $112,000,000. But then we were tremendously prosperous, and now we are ruined, and all on account of the condition of the Treasury. The figures confirming the paradox it is just as well to put on record for the future use of students of national ruin, its symptoms and its causes, its *Werden* and its *Wesen*, as the German philosophers say. It is true we have borrowed $290,000,000 in three years, but every dollar of this borrowing was necessitated by laws passed during the Harrison administration.

The final report of the Venezuelan Commission expresses no opinion on the question where the "true divisional line" between British Guiana and Venezuela lies. Such opinion, even if the Commissioners had formed one, would be inappropriate after another tribunal has been provided for, expressly to decide that point. The work done by the Commission, however, will expedite the task of the arbitrators by many months, and will probably make both the parties more easily satisfied with the finding. We need not ask ourselves what would have been the result if the Commission had reported what they deemed the true divisional line, and one or the other of the countries interested had refused to accept it. Fortunately, all the possibilities hinging on that eventuality have sunk below the horizon. We have no troubles with Great Britain to face, although some of the belligerents of the Senate are groping to find one in the Bering Sea question. Senator Pettigrew insists that England ought to show more interest in suppressing pelagic sealing. Senator Morgan, the indefatigable searcher for foreign grievances, says that the anger and jealousy of Great Britain were excited when we acquired Alaska, and that immediately the Canadian raiders were turned into Bering Sea, who destroyed 400,000 seals the first year. Morgan knows all about it because he was a member of the Paris arbitration commission, and he knows that one of our contentions was, and is, that the bulk of these Canadian raiders were American ship-owners who got themselves registered in British Columbia in order to secure British protection. Pettigrew suggested the killing of all the seals when they come to the breeding islands, in order to prevent the Canadian raiders from killing them in the water. There is one manifest disadvantage about this plan, and we wonder that Morgan did not mention it. If the seals were annihilated there would be one less bone of contention and one less foreign complication to rant over and distress the business community with.

Congressman Grosvenor of Ohio took occasion last week to vent once more his disgust at civil-service reform and the existing merit system (which he characterized as "a sinuous, infamous conspiracy upon the Government"), and his confidence that "there is a tide rising in this country which will sweep this bureaucracy from power." A Democratic member from Texas attempted to attach importance to Grosvenor's remarks, "because of his well-known relations to the incoming President"; but the Ohio Congressman was constrained to admit that "the first bitter controversy he [Grosvenor] had had as a member upon the floor, was with that distinguished gentleman, then a colleague from the State of Ohio, upon what is called the merit system." It is worth while to recall this controversy, which occurred in the House on the 24th of April, 1890. Mr. Houk, a Republican member from Tennessee, while the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill was under consideration, moved to strike out the entire section making provision for the expenses of the Civil-Service Commission, on the ground that it was "an impracticable machine," and that "the system was inconsistent with the genius and spirit of our institutions." Grosvenor supported this motion, asserting that "this law does not operate as a reform of the civil service of the country," and repeating the familiar falsehood that, "under the ægis of this system, under its protecting influence, there are a large number of utterly incompetent clerks in the public offices of this country, held there by the fundamental, underlying principle of this system and this practice which we are assailing."

After various spoilsmen had had their say, Mr. McKinley, who was then chairman of the ways and means committee, and so "leader of the House," closed the

debate in a brief but telling speech, which was followed by the rejection of the motion to starve out the Commission, 128 to 61. Mr. McKinley began by saying that his only regret was that the committee on appropriations had not given the Commission all that it asked, for the improvement and extension of the system, and proceeded to declare that, "if the Republican party of this country is pledged to any one thing more than another, it is to the maintenance of the civil-service law and its efficient execution; not only that, but to its enlargement and its further application to the public service." In last week's debate Grosvenor spoke of "Pendleton and the Democratic party having perfected this patent-medicine system." Something of the sort was said in the discussion seven years ago, and Mr. McKinley pointed out that the law was put upon the statute-book by Republican votes, and that every national platform of the party since its enactment had declared not only in favor of its continuance in full vigor, but in favor of its enlargement so as to apply more generally to the public service. He maintained that "this is not alone the declaration and purpose of the Republican party, but it is in accordance with its highest and best sentiment—aye, more, it is sustained by the best sentiment of the whole country, Republican and Democratic alike"; and he concluded with these emphatic remarks:

"Mr. Chairman, the Republican party must take no backward step. The merit system is here, and it is here to stay; and we may just as well understand and accept it now, and give our attention to correcting the abuses, if any exist, and improving the law wherever it can be done to the advantage of the public service."

If Mr. McKinley the Congressman felt in this way about the matter in 1890, we may be sure that Mr. McKinley the President will feel far more strongly in 1897, when he has been nearly killed by the onset of spoilsmen before he reached the White House.

If those Republican Senators who voted a few days ago for Chandler's international conference bill had any idea that it was possible to patch up a compromise with the silverites, all such notions must have been dispelled by the manifesto put out by Teller, Dubois, and the other seceders who supported Bryan last year. They say that for years events "have been forcing upon the country, with ever-increasing definiteness and emphasis, the necessity of reform in our monetary system as respects both the coinage of metallic money and the regulation and control of credit currency." They say further that they cannot follow those who have "usurped the dominion of the party into a shameless abandonment of American interests and the tyranny of an alien money system." The grammar of this deliverance is dubious, but its meaning is not. It signifies that the silver men will have no part nor lot with the Republican party hereafter, and that all efforts made to conciliate them will be completely thrown away. There never was any reason to imagine anything different. When Teller, Dubois & Co. took themselves out of the national Republican convention, and gave their support to Bryan, and brought to him the electoral votes of all the silver-mining States, they proclaimed in the loudest possible tones that they would have nothing short of free coinage at 16 to 1. They have now added to their programme, it seems, "the regulation and control of the credit currency," whatever that may mean. That it means further deterioration of the currency may be inferred from the company they keep. All experience shows that one downhill step leads to another. The real leaders of the movement to depreciate the money standard are the Populists, and it will be simply impossible for Teller and his followers to resist the next step toward the Ocala platform if they ever succeed in getting the metallic dollar shaved down to the minimum corresponding to their present desires.

Shortly before the meeting of the Indianapolis Conference, the nucleus of an organization called the National Sound-Money League was started in New York and Chicago simultaneously. In Chicago an organization of nearly the same character had existed during the political campaign, called the Honest-Money League, which had contributed much to the defeat of the Bryan ticket in Illinois and the adjoining States. After the election, the leading members of the League, which had only a temporary and local character, decided to unite with men of similar aims in other parts of the country to form a permanent working force to carry on the fight for the gold standard so successfully begun in the campaign. A similar group of men was brought together in New York at the same time, all of whom coöperated with, and some of whom were delegates to, the Indianapolis Conference. After the adjournment of the Conference the work of extending the organization was taken up and vigorously pushed, Mr. E. V. Smalley of St. Paul, Minn., taking the laboring oar as secretary and missionary-in-chief. It is worth mention that Mr. L. J. Gage was one of the Chicago members until he was designated for the office of Secretary of the Treasury. Some of the results of this movement were made manifest by the meeting last week at the Chamber of Commerce, where delegates came together from many distant States, including North Dakota and the State of Washington, to perfect the organization. The meeting was fortunate also in having the coöperation of Congressman Fowler of New Jersey, who has gained a wide reputation as an indefatigable worker and agitator for the gold standard and currency reform. Mr. Carl Schurz, Mr. Edward Atkinson, Mr. George E. Leighton of St. Louis, and other sound-money veterans were present and took an active part in the proceedings. Mr. Leighton was elected President of the organization, and Mr. A. B. Hepburn Treasurer, Mr. Smalley continuing as Secretary. Those who have kept close watch of the sound-money fight since it became definite and pronounced, will agree that no better selections could have been made.

The capabilities of 450 men chosen by universal suffrage and the boss system to decide important business questions are freshly illustrated by the failure of either house of Congress to pass any bill in reference to the Pacific Railroad subsidy debt. This question has been before Congress fifteen years. The Government has had five members of the board of directors of the Union Pacific, who have not been idle. They have presented this question to Congress from year to year, and have made recommendations with great regularity. There has been one investigation by a commission not composed of Congressmen, and the amount of testimony they took was appalling. There have been special investigations by committees of Congress itself and reports without number, and yet, whenever a definite measure has been brought forward, it has been voted down after a battle over the burial-place of the Crédit Mobilier and the members thereof. The last bill—the last one possible before foreclosure—met no better fate than its predecessors. Nor is there the least reason to hope for better results in the next Congress if the foreclosure suit could be postponed. Considering the ineptitude and helplessness of Congress in dealing with the question, the offer of the syndicate to pay about $47,000,000 to the Government for its second lien was extremely liberal and a great streak of luck. We do not say that anybody was particularly to blame for the failure of Congress to do anything. The case simply proves again that 450 men elected by ballot are not qualified to conduct large business transactions. What would have happened if the proposition that the Government should take the roads and operate them had been adopted?

It is reported that Gov. Black has been consulting with various persons, including several well-known advocates of civil-service reform, and has about reached the conclusion to discourage all efforts of the Progressives and other spoilsmen to take the "starch" out of the law. One would say, after the recent decision of the Appellate Division, that a man who was fit to be Governor of the State would not need to consult anybody about his course in this matter. Common sense is all that

is necessary to show that acquiescence in the inevitable is the only safe policy. The courts, including the highest in the State, have taken the position that the civil-service law, as it is upheld by the Constitution, is self-executing in the most rigorous form demanded by the reformers themselves. There is no escape from this, and the Governor who should try to escape from it would be something of a curiosity. There is only one way by which the Progressives can realize their hopes, and that is by securing the adoption of a constitutional amendment repealing the amendment on this subject adopted in 1894. That will be a task of sufficient magnitude to absorb all their energies for several years.

The outcome of Senator Raines's valiant determination to reform his own liquor law is somewhat amusing. He held an investigation, it will be remembered, of the law's workings in this and other cities, and accompanied his discoveries with a great deal of loud talk about the heroic remedies which he was going to devise to repair the law's defects. A perfect reign of terror for liquor-dealers was proclaimed as soon as Raines got to work in the Legislature. Now it is said that the law will not be changed at all, because Raines has been informed that the Republican politicians of the large cities will not permit the present condition of things to be disturbed. They are satisfied with the workings of the law; the liquor-dealers are satisfied; the Germans get their Sunday beer; and dire political consequences are threatened if any efforts be made to disturb the general content. The Raines hotels which have grown up under the law, and which have dissipated the terrors of a possible Puritanic Sunday, will remain in spite of all the loud threats of Raines to abolish them. Why? Because the Platt machine has been satisfied by most conclusive arguments that the present condition of things in the liquor world is as perfect as could be desired. Far be it from us to suggest that this happy result is the direct outcome of the noise which Raines made.

The difficulties of making work on public improvements meet the demands of "labor" have been freshly set forth by Superintendent Aldridge of the Public Works Department. He is engaged in operations under the act appropriating $9,000,000 for improvement of the canals, and he finds it impossible to satisfy the workingmen. Unskilled laborers receive 12½ cents an hour, or $6 for a week of eight-hour days, and most of the work is done so far from the homes of the employees that they have to pay two-thirds of their wages for board. Delegations of laboring men have repeatedly asked Mr. Aldridge to force contractors to pay higher wages, but he has been "compelled to say to all that the rate of wages constitutes a question which must be settled between employers and employees." In short, the Superintendent is constrained to make this discouraging admission:

> "One of the arguments used in favor of the $9,000,000 canal-improvement act was that this work would induce prosperity and afford relief where it was most needed. Up to the present time the work in this regard has been a disappointment."

All that Mr. Aldridge can suggest in the way of improvement is the passage of a law fixing a minimum price which shall be paid to unskilled laborers employed on State work, which he suggests should not be less than 15 cents per hour. This simply means that people who work for the ruling rate of wages in private employment shall be taxed to pay more than the ruling rate to those working under the State.

Commissioners Parker and Grant of the Police Board are clearly determined to show the public how thoroughly vicious the bi-partisan system is. Their conduct last week reached the farthest limit yet touched in this direction. They voted to uphold the Chief in an act of gross insubordination, thus taking a position which makes anything like strict discipline in the force impossible. The Chief had spoken with disrespect of the conduct of the Commissioners, who are his superiors—whether what he said was true or not does not matter; he added to this offence by refusing to make either excuse or apology. When the question of censuring him for his conduct and making charges against him came before the board, Messrs. Grant and Parker voted against it, dividing the board on the subject and virtually upholding the Chief. This proceeding was all the more inexcusable because the Mayor and Corporation Counsel had expressed the opinion that charges should be made against him. As usual in such cases, Parker and Grant made no explanation of their course, voting in silence in the same way that machine dummies always do. They are acting upon a general policy of opposing everything that Messrs. Roosevelt and Andrews propose, because the latter Commissioners are seeking to put the force on a basis completely removed from politics. Parker is doing this in accordance with his life-long practice, and Grant is helping him because the Republican machine has put pressure upon him which he is too much of a weakling to resist.

The Newark free public library is the first, so far as the public knows, to take a stand against the degradation of the press by refusing longer to admit to its reading-room two of the worst offenders among the daily newspapers of the country. The trustees, by a unanimous vote, have approved the report of the reading-room committee recommending this course, the committee having been stirred up to action by the librarian, who had been impressed by the demoralizing influence which an institution founded in the interest of education and morality was exerting when it allowed a mass of filth to be daily presented for inspection. The example of the Newark institution ought to be imitated by all library and reading-room associations throughout the country, and extended to all newspapers which are lowering the tone of the community, wherever published. People often lament the low estate of the press, and then ask what can be done about it. The Newark people have shown. Every self-respecting person can use his influence to have indecent newspapers banished from institutions of every sort which have reading-rooms.

In cool cynicism and jaunty self-sufficiency, Mr. Cecil Rhodes surpasses any state prisoner ever put on trial in England—for his examination by the Parliamentary committee is practically a trial. He convicts himself of deep conspiracy against a friendly state, and of lying unblushingly to cover up his tracks, and his only defence is, "Just look at the dazzling stakes for which I was playing!" Rhodes is no doubt fortunate in the time at which his examination is taking place, as well as most skilful in the way he plays upon popular passions. Friction with the Transvaal has again become serious, and President Krüger is again appealing to the Lord of Hosts against his enemies. All this plays into Rhodes's hand beautifully, and he appears to be justified in expecting to be let off with a warning to make his treason successful next time, so that it may no longer be treason. The Prince of Wales does not for nothing ostentatiously shake hands with a man in Rhodes's position.

The London *Economist*, which is very nervous, both politically and financially, over the Cretan imbroglio, enunciates, in its issue of February 20, a great truth when it says that "even Turks have difficulty in massacring superior force." It argues from this that the Greeks would be perfectly right in withdrawing from Crete, inasmuch as the strong naval and military demonstration made by the Powers would necessarily prevent the Turkish garrisons from murdering the inhabitants. But we infer that the perverse Greeks will insist on turning the argument the other way. They will subscribe to the doctrine of superior force, but will declare that, so far as Crete is concerned, they mean to be that force. The statement of Prime Minister Delyannis on Monday seems to leave no doubt on that point. Greece acknowledges herself a small nation, but puts the moral force of a great nation into her protests against Turkish misgovernment and inhumanity. Whatever the diplomats may say or do, there is ground for the Prime Minister's assertion that "all great peoples" sympathize with Greece.

MR. CLEVELAND'S PRESIDENCY.

MR. CLEVELAND first became an important political figure in 1881, when he was elected Mayor of Buffalo. He retires from public life to-day, having made a deeper mark upon the history of his time than any save the greatest of his predecessors. Little as it was then suspected, we can see now that there were circumstances connected with his selection for this first office which pointed to the possibility of the higher destiny in store for him. The office itself was that of the elective administrative head of a corruptly governed community; he was chosen as a party man, yet his work was to attack and frustrate partisan misgovernment. The weapon he found waiting for him was the veto; his first characteristic words, "This is a time for plain speech," were uttered in refusing to sign a legislative measure which he told its promoters was "the culmination of a most barefaced, impudent, and shameless scheme to betray the interests of the people and worse than squander the public money." Plain speech, courage, and honesty in similar situations of ever-increasing importance are what has made him a great President.

His career was connected with a movement which antedated his appearance by several years. As early as 1868, side by side with the agitation for civil-service reform, a popular longing began to make itself distinctly manifest for a President fitted to be a leader against "the politicians," the shifting, obscure, ignorant, and often corrupt body of placemen who, indifferent to the real demands of the country, were learning to manage its affairs in the interest of themselves or of schemes which would not bear the light, and paving the way for what we know in its perfected form as "Boss Government." Such a leader we had lost in Lincoln and were not destined to find in Grant. Such a leader the Liberal Republican movement of 1872 was intended to bring forward, but it resulted on one side in the fiasco of the nomination of Horace Greeley, and on the other in the unfortunate second term of Grant, and the domination of a Senatorial cabal, threatening by means of a third term to control the Government in perpetuity. Public opinion forced Hayes in 1876 upon the Republicans as it made Tilden the Democratic nominee. But neither Tilden nor Hayes thoroughly represented the ideas rapidly gaining ground.

Those ideas, put in a few words, were that the crying need of the country was, not more laws or new political ventures, but honest and intelligent administration of the Government as it stood; that this the politicians would never give us; and that we consequently needed a leader who would fight the popular battle against them. It was not clear then, as it is now, that the citadel of corrupt intrigue and abuse was in the great coördinated nominating machinery, the complicated congeries of primaries and conventions throughout the country, tending more and more, through standing committees, to become tyrannical political corporations. Perhaps it is fortunate that we did not clearly foresee what we have since experienced; perhaps if we had we should have despaired of the result. What was felt, rather than understood, was that the only way in which the system could be attacked was through the Executive—most effectively of all, by the most powerful of all executives, at Washington. That this feeling was a sound national instinct could now be proved by the subsequent course of events—by the steady increase in power of the Executives in the various States, by the general contempt which has overtaken the State Legislatures; by the constitutional movement which has steadily reduced their powers; by the rise in influence in great cities of mayors and other administrative officers; by the wrenching of the national civil service out of the congressional grasp. In 1880 the only thing that could be clearly seen was that if the institutions of the country were to be saved from the corruption which dogs the path of democracy as assassination does that of tyranny, relief must come from some one who had received his actual training in honest and orderly administration; some one who, even at Washington, would find in constitutional government nothing but a simple deed of trust.

No doubt it would be a mistake to imagine the career of Mr. Cleveland a realization of the ideal of the Independents of 1872. The gentleman whom they hoped to make President was a trained public servant, a publicist, an astute diplomat, whose advancement had come to him through long service. Mr. Cleveland became an important public man without much previous training, and really acquired his knowledge of government through governing. He has always taken pains to avow himself a strong party man, and has become a non-partisan President almost against his will. When he declared, on becoming Mayor of Buffalo, that "the affairs of the city should be conducted, as far as possible, upon the same principles as a good business man manages his private concerns," he did not put this forward as a novelty, but as sound historic party doctrine, though when his party followers found that he meant it, and was actually vetoing every exorbitant and illegal appropriation, they stood aghast. When, in the ensuing fall, he was elected Governor over Folger by nearly 200,000 majority, his tremendous victory no doubt confirmed him for the time in his view of the subject. When he went on foot to the Capitol on New Year's day, it was not a piece of clap-trap, but the act of a man of real simplicity of character and tastes, who was thinking of himself chiefly as a follower of a great party leader of the past. His governorship was intended to be a Democratic governorship. His vetoes were intended to be Democratic vetoes. It was probably not until he reached Washington in 1885 that he perceived that, to the great bulk of the politicians of his own as well as of the opposite side, party meant office and nothing else. With characteristic caution he reminded his supporters that even faithful party service cannot be "always rewarded by appointment to office," and merely promised a faithful enforcement of the civil-service law, by means of which he was in a few years to give the death-blow to the entire spoils system.

During his first term he hoped that he might revive the party glories of the past. He proclaimed in 1885 the disaster involved in silver coinage because his conviction was that Democrats could not be inflationists; he insisted in 1887 on a tariff for revenue because he knew that Democrats could not be protectionists. He did not then conceive it possible that the whole vast machinery of his party might itself be swallowed up by corrupt interests. In 1888, speaking of this period, he said: "I knew then that abuses and extravagances had crept into the management of public affairs; but I did not know their enormous power, nor the tenacity of their grasp. I knew then something of the littleness of partisan obstruction, but I did not know how bitter, how reckless, and how shameless it could be."

Mr. Cleveland's first administration showed that we had at last got a President of the first rank, fully capable of dealing with the subjects of finance and revenue urgently demanding attention, a man of singular courage and independence of character, ready to confront the enemies of the country as his own. It is a common fallacy to suppose that those who wish the support of a democratic community must get it by time-serving and flattery, by glib appeals to prejudice and passion, by cowardly compromise with every base plot that is afoot. The example of Cleveland, supported for fifteen years in his struggle for good government by constant popular majorities (for the defeat of free silver in the last election was a vindication for him), is alone enough to stamp the theory as false. For a popular leader the one indispensable quality is that which is always lacking among politicians dependent on place for their support. What has made him for twelve years the inevitable representative of the American people has been the fact that he could not be made afraid.

His two administrations have been so crowded with events of importance that we can barely touch upon a few of them. In foreign affairs the principles avowed by him, and usually acted upon, have been eminently pacific. On several occasions, however, he has, in order to gain support at home, shown the readiness to

make use of a defiant tone abroad, which his warmest friends could only regret. The attempt to force Mr. Keily upon a court at which he could not be received, the summary dismissal of Lord Sackville, the demand for authority to retaliate on Canada in 1888 because the fisheries treaty had failed in the Senate, and the Venezuela message, seemed too much like efforts at a belated imitation of Jacksonian barbarism to gain the lasting admiration of the America of to-day. His success in getting England to arbitrate with Venezuela does not justify his threat of war, and his introduction of the Monroe Doctrine into a question with which it had nothing to do, instead of being an advantage to this country, can but prove a source of danger. On the other hand, the treaty negotiated in 1884 to establish a protectorate of Nicaragua was withdrawn from the Senate in a message which might have been written by Washington. His repudiation of the Hawaiian revolution and movement for annexation was an act of simple but very courageous international justice, made necessary by the fact that our minister had taken an active part in the rising against the Government to which he was accredited. His enforcement of the neutrality laws during the Cuban troubles and his support of American interests in Cuba have been beyond praise, and his recent message on Cuba shows that he has done his utmost to secure from Spain guarantees of justice and humanity in its dealings with the island. If the fisheries difficulty with England is not flagrant, the fact is due to a *modus vivendi* established through his efforts, while the general arbitration treaty with England is so great a triumph for peace that, even unratified, it is likely to render war impossible.

Mr. Cleveland's domestic administration is called a failure only by the enemies who have done their best to make it so. With a Congress legislating in the interest of inflation, protection, and waste, it is impossible for a President to do much more than make the issue plain. There is no real evidence anywhere that his conduct to-day is not as popular throughout the country as it has been all along. Even in 1888, though the electoral machinery gave the Presidency to Harrison, Cleveland's vote at the polls remained the largest in the field. Two years later the country had repudiated the McKinley bill and the wanton waste of Congress, and in 1893 Mr. Cleveland came into office, still a party man trying to revive lost party ideals, but, besides this, the President of a whole people face to face with the misgovernment and corruption entrenched in its Legislature. When he forced the repeal of the Sherman silver-purchase act; when he killed the Bland bill for coining the seigniorage; when again and again he urged real tariff reform; when he vetoed job after job; when he quelled disorder in the strike of 1894, and when, above all, he maintained the credit of the Treasury throughout the world, in defiance of partisan and press fury, he obtained success in defeat.

It is a noticeable fact, in a period in which politicians generally seem to have lost the art of forcible and direct speech, that the few pithy phrases that have caught the attention and approval of the public have either come from him or been occasioned by him. The best of them have not been witty epigrams, but homely maxims, the truth of which no one can deny, but which all mankind find it so hard to act upon. That public office is a public trust, and that a government which undertook (because people supported it) to "support the people" would be doomed, are statements that become eloquent as the challenge of a bold man to those who are betraying trusts and "corrupting the poor with the money of the rich." "We love him for the enemies he has made," was the vigorous expression of an undeniable and most significant fact.

The most frequent criticism upon Mr. Cleveland's character from those who, without being openly hostile, have tried to justify their want of admiration by a sceptical analysis, has been that his public life has been marked by what are called the commonplace virtues. Courage, a love of truth, common sense, and integrity he is admitted to have; but where, his critics ask, is his greatness? What brilliant schemes has he advocated? What remarkable intelligence has he shown? Why, if he is a great man, does he go out of office amid the wreck of the party of which he was the chosen leader? Where is the tact, the power of managing and inspiring a following, which is the true mark of statesmanship? We have endeavored to suggest what we believe to be the true answer to these questions; but that the virtues which are conceded to him can be declared commonplace, shows a ludicrous misapprehension. It is because courage and truth and common sense and integrity are rare qualities in the world that, when they appear together in one character, they give their possessor such astonishing and seemingly inexplicable importance. Work, however done, may always be done more skilfully; but those who think, if there are any such, that Mr. Cleveland could have done his without exciting ferocious and increasing opposition, forget what it has been. As Governor and President he has killed a mass of special legislation—in other words, of jobs—which has meant the loss of hundreds of millions of money that their promoters would have filched from the public. He has stood alone between a rich and busy community and a horde of desperate plunderers, and beat them off. Not only this, but he has maintained the public credit in the teeth of a legislature most of whose members were perfectly willing to betray it to advance their own selfish interests. Where other statesmen have left behind them a monument of wise laws passed, he has left a monument of foolish and base laws prevented. Such work cannot be done by means of tact.

As Mr. Cleveland retires to private life, not one of the public enemies he has made his own but will heave a sigh of relief. Not an unjust claimant but will feel his hopes rise, not a boss but will rub his hands with delight over what he thinks his improving chance of plunder and patronage. But Mr. Cleveland's public service has had one result which getting rid of him cannot now undo. The long contest between him and his opponents has made clear the real nature of the opinion of the country, on almost every important public question, in such a way that it cannot be mistaken by any President who desires popular favor. His present successor could not have been elected but for an appeal to the same public opinion which for twelve years trusted in Cleveland, and was trusted by Cleveland.

MR. HOBART'S OPPORTUNITY.

The inaugural address which Mr. McKinley will deliver to-day can be discounted in advance. Unless it differs from all foregoing addresses of the kind, it will be intensely patriotic in tone; it will doubtless declare for national good faith and a secure and stable currency; it will breathe a spirit of peace at home and abroad; it will very likely foreshadow a policy of increased taxation in order to increase revenue. But it cannot, in the nature of the case, touch directly upon the great menace to the new President's administration and to the country. It cannot speak of the sullen, brute force in our public life which has thrown itself athwart the execution of any rational policy. In other words, it cannot tell the truth about the United States Senate. But the man who will take up the gavel as presiding officer of the Senate on March 4 can do what Mr. McKinley cannot do. By what he says and what he does he has an opportunity to electrify the nation. He may easily make his five minutes' inaugural the great event of the day, and outline a policy of legislative reform which must be executed before any other reform whatever can be attained.

In place of the ordinary meaningless remarks, Vice-President Hobart might say something like this to-day:

"Senators: My predecessor, on taking this chair four years ago, characterized you as 'the most august legislative assembly on earth.' He himself would now doubtless give worlds to withdraw that phrase. At any rate it is my duty, sent here as I am by the direct vote of the people, to tell you that you are nothing of the kind. No other legislative body in a free country is so much despised and at the same time dreaded as you are. Abroad you are pointed to as a horrible example

of a once great assembly degenerate. At home you are considered a standing and deadly obstacle to political and financial reform, a threat to business, an enemy of peace—in short, the one great danger-point in our body politic on which the eyes of our alarmed citizens are fixed. It is my solemn duty to notify you that you must set your house in order lest the popular wrath find some way either to mend or end you. Another four years, like the last, of steady affront to the best sentiment of the nation, of aid and comfort given to agitators and incendiaries, of shameless trifling with the country's good name and as shameless speculating in the stock markets, of dull, insensate opposition to all political progress and political purity, will fill up the cup of your iniquity. Beware lest an outraged people press it to your own lips.

"But it is my duty also to be specific as to the nature of the chief evil in which you are engulfed, and as to the remedy which I propose to apply. You have deliberately put yourself in the power of the worst men in your body. One Senator, strong in prejudices or self-interest, with front and lungs of brass, is able to withstand and defy all the rest. You have justified and tolerated this outrage on the ground of the dignity of the Senate, on the ground of the courtesy due a fellow-Senator. But what you have really done is to make the dignity of the Senate a hissing and a byword, to make the courtesy due Senators something lower than the honor which exists among thieves. As far as it is in my power, I propose to put an end to this monstrous abuse. It will be necessary for me to enforce your rules, but there are also certain general parliamentary rules, essential to the civilized dispatch of public business, which I shall likewise enforce. One of these is the duty of a presiding officer to make a debater speak to the question. When the Indian appropriation bill is before the Senate, I shall call any Senator to order who proceeds to discuss a war with Spain. I shall not allow a four hours' rehearsal of the crime of '73 to be made under guise of discussing the bill for regulating the Congressional Library. Nor shall I permit the laxity of the Senate rules to defeat the end of all rules—the bringing of the question to a vote. When talk becomes evidently and defiantly obstructive, I shall ask the support of a majority of the Senate in putting the question. By co-operating with me in these simple and imperative reforms, Senators, you will do much to save the session from wreck, the country from peril, and yourselves from yet deeper ignominy. What is the pleasure of the Senate?"

The first effect of such an address on the Senate would no doubt be painful. Senatorial dignity would fall a-shrieking. The courtesy of the Senate would be more than usually indistinguishable from ruffianly blackguardism. But the country? Would it not rise in delight and hope at the sight of a firm, strong man taking an inveterate public abuse by the throat? Vice-President Hobart would not get his needed support in the Senate the first day, nor the second, nor the fortieth. But in time it would be his. He could insist day after day that Senators should not beat the air, and though the beating would be allowed to go on for a while, public opinion would at last compel a majority of the Senate to join with him in suppressing it. With a resolute presiding officer exposing and rebuking wilful obstruction of the public business, it would at last curl up in the aisles of the Senate and die.

Mr. Hobart's opportunity is great. He is an experienced presiding officer, having been Speaker of the New Jersey Assembly and twice President of the New Jersey Senate. He is now the constitutional presiding officer of the United States Senate. Let him really preside. By doing so he would rescue the vice-presidency from its traditional obscurity and helplessness, and make of it a great and beneficent office. He could easily make himself the most popular man in the country. Better than that, he could contribute much towards removing a national disgrace and danger, and point the way out of the legislative paralysis which now threatens to make all policies failures and all administrations impotent.

THE SANGUILLY AFFAIR.

It is hard to speak in moderate terms of the display of reckless demagogism and incapacity which the Senate made of itself on Thursday. The day before, the committee on foreign relations reported a resolution in these terms:

"Resolved, That the Government of the United States demands the immediate and unconditional release of Julio Sanguilly, a citizen of the United States, from imprisonment under the charges that are pending and that are being prosecuted against him in the military and civil courts of Cuba upon alleged grounds of rebellion and kidnapping, contrary to the treaty rights of each of said governments, and in violation of the law of nations. And the President of the United States is requested to communicate this resolution to the Government of Spain, and to demand of that Government such compensation as he shall deem just for the imprisonment and sufferings of Julio Sanguilly."

Although the public have learned, during recent years, to make large allowances for the eccentricities of this committee, and not to take them too seriously, yet the sober and peremptory tone of this resolution made an impression on the public mind, more especially as Senator Sherman, the chairman of the committee and prospective Secretary of State, declared that the committee was unanimous in reporting the resolution, and that he hoped the Senate would take it up the following day. These remarks gained additional force from the fact that the end of the session was only a few days distant, and its necessary business was unusually behindhand. In view of the solemnity of tone in which the demand upon Spain was to be made, and the possible consequences of it, stocks declined, the confidence of business men was shaken, and most people went to bed that night with sore hearts.

The next day it appeared that Sanguilly was not a citizen of the United States, or at all events that nobody was able to show that he was such, and further that he had been pardoned by Spain before the Senate committee adopted its resolution. As soon as these facts transpired in the Senate chamber, Senator Sherman was seized with a sudden desire to pass an appropriation bill that had been laid aside in order to take up the Sanguilly resolution. This was altogether too tame and pusillanimous a course for the blatherskite majority. These, led by Morgan, Allen, Lodge, Frye, and Mills, were not to be put off by any such makeshifts as the non-citizenship of Sanguilly or his release from a Spanish dungeon. As to his citizenship, he had naturalization papers, and those were sacred, like the American flag, until proved false by conclusive testimony. Senator Hoar, on the other hand, pointed out the fact that the record of the case showed that Sanguilly had spent the five years next succeeding his declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States, in Cuba, and in arms against the Spanish Government; whereas our naturalization laws require that he should have spent them in the United States in order to acquire citizenship. That fact did not alter the sublime purpose of Lodge to make the eagle scream. He did not know whether Sanguilly's naturalization was fraudulent or not. What he did know was that if Sanguilly held a certificate of citizenship from the Queen of England and he had been incarcerated in like manner, "England would have had him out of his prison, and would have had him surrendered at once, if it had taken her whole fleet and all of her army to do it." Indeed! But England would have learned the facts in the case first, and not have put herself in the humiliating attitude of demanding the release of a man who was not her citizen and who had been released already. She would have taken account, too, of the peculiar fact that Sanguilly's change of citizenship was a manifest sham and pretence, having for its purpose the protection of the sovereignty of a foreign country in which he had no intention of residing or performing any of the duties incumbent on a citizen.

But more scandalous revelations were to come. Secretary Olney once more quietly took the public into his confidence and left senatorial intriguers dangling. This time it was Senator Sherman who was hung up for the admiration of the country. In his capacity as chairman of the Senate committee on foreign relations, Mr. Sherman was confidentially informed

by the Secretary of State on February 17 that Sanguilly was on the point of being released. Mr. Olney added that the matter was of "a somewhat delicate nature," and said that "any public discussion of the case in the Senate" could not but injuriously affect the flattering prospect of Sanguilly's pardon. Five days later, Mr. Sherman joined the other members of his committee in precipitating the public clamor about Sanguilly—in other words, in doing his best to keep in jail the man whom he was professing to cry to Heaven to get out of jail. So far as known, Senator Sherman did not give the committee or the Senate a hint of the information conveyed to him. Why he did not, it became his instant duty to explain. Did he forget Mr. Olney's letter? If he did, all that has been said about his mental decay is more than justified, and McKinley must be shivering to think of the man he has chosen for his Secretary of State. If, on the other hand, the chairman of the committee on foreign relations deliberately suppressed this most vital communication from the State Department, it was a most gross and shocking offence, which of itself would have warranted McKinley—even at the eleventh hour—in choosing another Secretary of State.

Amid all this mock fury and imbecility, not a particle of evidence had been exhibited that the rights of American citizens in Cuba had not been watched over with vigilant zeal by Secretary Olney. Indeed, the extraordinary thing is that Mr. Olney should have been suspected of lack of vigor in standing up for American rights abroad. Brusque energy has characterized his entire administration of the State Department. We have had no such hard-hitting man in charge of foreign affairs for years, if ever. Yet the aged Senators, in their ardent desire for a war, forgot how he left them all gasping with astonishment at his Venezuelan audacity, and thought, or affected to think, him as nerveless as the Jingo papers painted him. Mr. Hitt of the House committee on foreign affairs happily did not share this delusion, but kept himself, as he should, in touch with Secretary Olney, and smothered every firebrand sent to his committee. The legacy of trouble which Mr. McKinley will receive in this Cuban business will be left him, not by Secretary Olney or President Cleveland, but by the passionate and reckless Senate. That body has become the dangerous explosive of our public life. Mr. McKinley will have spokesmen and a party support in the Senate, as Mr. Cleveland has not had of late; but the Ethiopian is not going to change his skin suddenly on March 4, and any sudden cause of friction with Spain, any naval accident on the Florida coast, may set the Senate dragging the President into a war before he knows it.

SIGNS OF THE TIMES.

THE Southern farmers are again showing that it is not the principle of combination to which they are opposed, but the use of that principle by any other class of people than farmers—except "organized labor." They denounce bitterly any union on the part of those who buy their cotton to raise the price of products manufactured from it, but they earnestly advocate the adoption of measures to make the manufacturers pay higher prices for the staple. The President of the Cotton-Growers' Association has issued an address calling conventions of the Texas farmers at Waco March 8, of those in the Mississippi valley at Memphis March 10, and of those east of the Mississippi at Augusta March 15, to secure "concert of action," as "by a systematic and judicious marketing of our crops we can realize inestimable benefits that never can be secured permanently otherwise." The method urged upon the cotton-growers is that which is so bitterly complained of when applied by the cotton-manufacturers—a restriction of the output in order to secure higher prices. "Destroy the annual surplus of cotton," is the watchword. "You will be better off with a 7,000,000-bale crop selling at 10 cents, supplemented by ample food crops, than with a 10,000,000-bale crop selling at 5 cents."

The farmers in the South Carolina Legislature gave on Thursday another illustration of the tendency of all farmers toward class legislation, by passing through the lower branch a bill requiring everybody except farmers and laborers to get a license to work. The proposed law provides that "every person, firm, company, or corporation engaged or intending to engage in business in this State shall obtain on or before May 1, 1897, a license." Nearly a column of fine type in a newspaper is required to give the list of businesses and the amount of the licenses, and the list is full of queer features, as, that "artists, ambrotypists, photographists, etc.," must pay 25 cents for each thousand inhabitants of the place where they "do business"; barbers, 25 cents for each chair in the shop; dealers in any article of merchandise, each $1 for the first $10,000 or less of goods, etc., sold, and 25 cents for each additional thousand sold; fruit and peanut dealers, with stand on street, $1; lawyers, physicians, dentists, chemists, $5 each, without regard to their income or the population of their places of residence; hand laundries, 50 cents. But while the poor country doctor must pay $5, the richest farmer pays nothing; and while the poor laundry-woman must pay 50 cents, the best remunerated laborer pays nothing.

The system of licensing not only is grossly unjust in exempting from its operation the great majority of the people, but also appears to be plainly unconstitutional. The new Constitution of the State authorizes the Legislature to provide for "a *graduated* license on occupations and businesses," but the bill which has passed the lower branch disregards the principle of graduation almost entirely. It is true that "artists, ambrotypists, photographists, etc.," are taxed at the rate of 25 cents for each thousand inhabitants of the place where they "do business," and that dealers in merchandise selling over $10,000 worth of goods a year must pay 25 cents for each additional thousand sold; but all lawyers and physicians are mulcted in the uniform sum of $5, whether their income be $500 or $5,000, every hand laundry must pay 50 cents whether it is a small one run by a poor woman or a large one that does a profitable business, and so of many other occupations. This is only another illustration of the familiar fact that few legislators nowadays care enough about the Constitution even to read it and find out what it allows.

The whole assumption underlying this system of licensing occupations and businesses, as well as the anti-Trust law of Texas, both of which exempt farmers from their operation, is that the agricultural class of the population is entitled to special privileges. It was high time that this assumption should be taken in hand by an authority whose words would command respect, and we are glad to see that Judge Swayne of the United States District Court did this, in his recent decision annulling the Texas anti-Trust law for unconstitutionality. The Judge declared that a careful study of the act showed that "it aims to favor the agricultural class, and is against the merchant and mechanic and all the others, without either reason or justice," and said:

> "We are familiar with the duties of the farmer, and the cares and trials of his business life, and appreciate highly the customary compliments paid by mankind to the rural yeomanry of the land; he has been justly lauded for his integrity and for the independence and importance of his calling; without the products of his toil people cannot live, nor society endure; yet, what is there about it all to entitle him to the privilege of combining in restraint of trade as to those articles he produces, while his neighbor, the storekeeper, and mechanics are precluded therefrom?"

It is, of course, class legislation of the most odious sort when a majority of farmers in a State impose taxes upon men engaged in all other occupations, and a similar majority in another State forbid combinations to raise prices on the part of all people except themselves and "organized labor." The manufacturers of cotton may not combine to raise the price of cloth, but the growers of cotton may combine to raise the price of the raw material from which the cloth is made; the sellers of meat may not combine to raise its price, but the raisers of live stock may combine to raise the price of their cattle—to state such propositions is enough to show the gross injustice of a law which would permit such discriminations. Judge Swayne quoted two striking passages bearing on this very point, which he said are "almost prophetic in

some respects," from decisions rendered by Judge Catron of the United States Supreme Court many years ago:

"The rights of every citizen must stand or fall by the same rule of law that governs every other member of the body politic under similar circumstances; and every partial or private law which directly proposes to destroy or affect individual rights, or does the same thing by affording remedies leading to similar consequences, is unconstitutional and void. Were it otherwise, odious individuals or corporate bodies would be governed by one law, the most of the community, and those who made the law, by another; whereas a like and general law affecting the whole community equally could not have been passed.

"The idea of the people, through their representatives, making laws whereby are swept away the life, liberty, and property of one or a few citizens, by which neither the representatives nor their other constituents are willing to be bound, is too odious to be tolerated in any government where freedom has a name."

THE HILL OF TARA.

DUBLIN, 1897.

OF those who have heard of the famous Hill of Tara, few there are who could say where it is situate, and still fewer what is to be seen upon it. In Ireland, at least, everybody knows Moore's verses, which a beautiful air has made popular; and every patriotic Irishman, wherever he may dwell, is held bound to feel a throb of sentiment at the name of the ancient capital of his ill-starred country. But even in Ireland the visitors to Tara seem to be extremely scarce, and in travelling through Ireland I have found only two or three persons who could tell me anything about a spot which is much more remarkable from the part it plays in the traditions of prehistoric times than any place in England or in Scotland belonging to the legendary period.

Tara is, however, easily accessible, being only some three miles from a railway station, to which the train—a slow train, as nearly all trains in Ireland are—brings you in an hour's time from Dublin. The hill is about five hundred feet above tide-water and about two hundred feet above the average level of the surrounding country. This seems a small elevation, yet, as the land is fairly level for a long distance in every direction, the top of the hill commands a very extensive as well as beautiful prospect. All round are the rich green pastures and scattered woods of Meath, one of the greenest and richest countries in Ireland; while the far-off horizon is bounded by irregular groups and ranges of mountains. To the south, beyond Dublin, are the bold summits of Wicklow; to the northeast, and distant some forty miles, the still bolder peaks of the Mourne Mountains; to the northwest, the bare ridges of Cavan; while in the southwest, sixty miles away, one catches the long blue line of the Slieve Bloom range, which looks down upon Lough Derg, with its sacred island, and the middle course of the Shannon.

No monarch could desire for his palace a finer site, nor one commanding a wider sweep of country; and it may well be that the advantages which the site afforded for discovering the approach of an enemy from a distance was one of the reasons why this height was selected for a royal residence. Another may be found in the richness of the surrounding pasture-lands, where the cattle, which constituted the chief wealth and support of the primitive Irish, could thrive and fatten. And although the hill is not comparable for the natural strength of its position to the rocky heights on which the castles of Edinburgh and Stirling and Dumbarton have been built, or to a Greek Acropolis such as that of Athens or Corinth, still it is, like Old Sarum in England, steep enough and high enough to render much more easily defensible any entrenchments placed on the top of it. It is, indeed, as good a spot for defence as can well be found over a wide range of surrounding country, for in this part of Ireland the undulations of the hills are gentle, and outbursts of igneous rock, such as occur frequently in the northeastern counties, are scarcely to be found.

The Hill of Tara itself is about half a mile long by only some two hundred yards wide at the top. It forms a ridge running nearly north and south, sloping pretty steeply to the west, and rather more gently to the east, and is covered with smooth turf, the subjacent limestone rock cropping out only in one spot on the lower slope to the west. Scattered over the hill are numerous mounds and ridges, the latter mostly circular, with no trace left of a stone building, though the presence of a number of loose stones in one of the earth circles shows that a wall or a fort of stone may have existed at some remote period. About ten or twelve distinct earthworks can still be distinguished, and slight inequalities in the grassy surface of the hill prove the former existence of others whose shape can no longer be determined. If we had no further clue to the origin or history of these remains, the spot would be romantic, but nothing more. But—and this is the peculiar interest of Tara—there exist some ancient Irish poems and prose tracts, ascribed to writers of the sixth, seventh, and eighth centuries, and preserved in the collection called the 'Dinnsenchas' (itself compiled in the twelfth century from old materials), which give a curiously minute topographical description of the hill and the various erections on it as these stood in those early centuries. When the first Ordnance survey of Ireland was being carried out in 1837, Dr. Petrie and some other learned antiquaries examined the hill by the light of these ancient records, and succeeded in identifying such earthworks as then remained with those described by the ancient writers. Though in the last sixty years a few of the mounds and ramparts which Dr. Petrie saw have been almost obliterated by the stupid selfishness of the owners of the hill, who have levelled the ground for their own purposes, and by the strange indifference of the public, which has made no effort (till the passing of the Ancient Monuments Act in 1884) to preserve these relics of antiquity, still Petrie's description remains substantially true of the place as the traveller sees it to-day; and by the help of his translations from the 'Dinnsenchas' one can tell what purpose each mound served.

On the top of the hill, where it begins to decline towards the south, is a large circular enclosure, 850 feet in diameter, surrounded by a dry ditch and a low earthen wall two and a half feet above the natural level of the hill, and in places six and a half feet above the bottom of the ditch. Within this enclosure, which is called Rath na Riogh, the "Fortress of the Kings," are several smaller earthworks and mounds, one of which, called the Forradh, or Place of Meeting, is probably the oldest monument on the hill, the seat of the most ancient dwelling of the primitive Irish kings. It is enclosed by two ramparts and two ditches, still in fair preservation, and as it seems to be older than a similar earthwork adjoining, which was called in the sixth or seventh century the House of Cormac, from Cormac Mac Airt, a king who reigned in the third century, it may very well belong to the first or second century of our era. Of the other remains (which are too numerous to mention in detail) the most remarkable is a long, narrow enclosure lying further to the north, and called the Banqueting Hall, or House of the Heroes. It is 760 feet long by 50 broad, with a number of apertures on each side corresponding with the number of the entrances given by the ancient poets, and was doubtless the spot in which the great feasts and recitations of poems to music took place, at the triennial gatherings which the kings of Ireland convoked at their capital.

That no traces of buildings in masonry remain at a place which the number and size of these earthworks prove to have been of great importance and often tenanted by a large population, is doubtless to be ascribed to the fact that the houses in which the inhabitants dwelt, and the halls in which they held revel, were all constructed of wood or wicker-work only. There seems to have been no masonry-work in Ireland before the introduction of Christianity in the fifth century, and stone was used only for the erection of loose walls of defence, such as those huge ones which remain in the Isle of Arran on the west coast. Round Tara there is very little stone to be had, and no doubt all the buildings which stood within these enclosures and upon these mounds were of timber only. They may, however, have been of considerable size, and the beauty of the numerous gold ornaments, dating from very remote times, which have been discovered, some very fine ones at Tara itself, shows that the arts of decoration had made considerable progress among these ancient Celts, as we know that music and poetry had also done.

According to the legends preserved by poets and annalists of the Christian period, Teamhair, or Tara, was first occupied by a Firboly king more than a thousand years before our era, and continued to be the chief residence of the monarchs till the reign of a king named Diarmaid, or Dermot, in the middle of the sixth century. This king had quarrelled with a famous saint of that day named Ruadhan, and the curses which the saint laid upon Tara as well as upon the king himself, caused the seat of royalty to be for ever withdrawn from it. The curse of a saint was terrible, especially if the saint was "fasting on his enemy" when he uttered it. No other spot in Ireland succeeded to the fame of Teamhair as a royal residence and a place for the meeting of the national assemblies; and the poets who thereafter celebrated the glories of the ancient kings continued, down to the days of the Anglo-Norman conquest, to make Tara the frequent theme of their song, although it was then already deserted. So far as anything can be considered certain in Irish history before the coming of St. Patrick, it is pretty certain that Tara had been then for some centuries the usual seat of the monarchy and the centre of such national life as existed. Nor is there any reason to doubt the tradition which brings St. Patrick himself to Tara to confront and defy King Laoghaire (of whose Rath or fortress traces still exist on the Hill). The very remarkable poem called "The Breastplate of St. Patrick" is, by the same tradition, stated to have been composed by the missionary when he went to meet the king. Whether or no it is the work of Patrick himself, it must belong to the earliest age of Irish Christianity, for its profession of the Christian faith is tinged by lingering pagan beliefs which would

have been strange to ecclesiastics of a later time. The saint's name is connected with a well on the stream flowing from which had been set up, in pagan times, the first water-mill ever erected in Ireland. Unhappily, a more recent memorial of his visit has been very recently added, in the form of a poor and tasteless statue of the saint himself—a "work of art" which had been intended for the Chicago Exhibition of 1893, and which, failing to obtain a place there, has been set up here, where it is grotesquely out of keeping with the landscape and the prehistoric remains.

Tara was a place of civil and military rather than of ecclesiastical importance. It had never a round tower, and no ancient churches are mentioned. The parish church which now stands on the Hill is modern and uninteresting. Synods, however, were held—one of the earth-circles is called the Rath of the Synods; and St. Adamnan of Iona, the biographer and successor of St. Columba, who presided at one of these, is commemorated by a very ancient cross, bearing a rude figure (now much defaced), which stands in the church-yard, close beside one of the two very ancient stones called the gravestones of the Druids. An old legend says that these stones used to stand close together, and that whenever the new King of Erin was chosen and (as the custom was) placed in a chariot drawn by two horses never previously under the yoke, the stones moved apart to permit his chariot to pass between them if he was worthy of the throne, but remained fixed if he was unworthy.

A still more curious and famous stone stands in the most ancient earthwork, that called the Forradh, or Place of Assembly. It is the stone on which the newly chosen King of Ireland placed his feet, and which roared if he was a person deserving of the honor. It is repeatedly mentioned by the old writers, who call it the Lia Fail (usually interpreted Stone of Fate), and say that it stood by a hillock called the Mound of the Hostages, being the place where the King used to keep the hostages he had taken from the provinces of Ireland. It was removed to its present site in 1798, to mark the graves of the insurgents who were killed at Tara in the great rebellion of that year—a curious use to which to put a prehistoric monument. It is a bluntly conical obelisk of gray crystalline limestone, standing six feet high from the ground, and with five or six feet more under the surface. Probably it was an object of worship in heathen times The same name of Lia Fail is given to a still more famous stone, that upon which the Pictish and Scottish kings were crowned at Scone in Perthshire, and upon which the sovereigns of the United Kingdom are crowned to this day. This Scottish stone, however, which is the oldest and greatest curiosity of Westminster Abbey, was obviously used as a seat, which the Irish stone, having regard to its shape, can hardly have been.

Those who have noticed that on the Hill of Tara there are no architectural remains, nor indeed anything but grass-grown mounds, earth ramparts, and ditches, may ask wherein consists the peculiar impressiveness and even charm which the place, by the testimony of those who have visited it, possesses. Its interest lies in two things. One is that no other prehistoric monument in the British Isles is at once so ancient and so important. There are abundant remains, both in England and in Scotland, of the hill strongholds of the ancient Celtic peoples, but none had anything more than a local importance, and none shows anything more than walls and ditches of defence. Here at Tara we have a great variety of earthworks destined to different purposes, and the place was the capital of a kingdom for those days large and important, the scene of assemblies, political, military, ecclesiastical, and festive, which brought men together from every part of the island. And the second feature of special interest lies in the fact that, whereas there exists absolutely no information regarding any of the camps or towns or places of worship of primitive England or Scotland—nothing about Stonehenge, or Avebury, or Old Sarum, or Caerleon upon Usk, or even regarding the Roman cities of Uriconium and Silchester—we have for Tara descriptions so careful and minute from the earliest Irish writers that we can to-day identify and tell the purposes of these grasses, ridges, and circles, and picture to ourselves with tolerable completeness the hill fortress of the fourth century, with its kings and wizards, its bards and soldiers, and the crowd of cattle-herding dependents whose huts lay along beneath. Fantastic legends cluster round many of the spots mentioned by the old poets; and two or three of the scenes which they describe, notably the meeting of St. Patrick and the heathen king Leoghaire, and the cursing contest of St. Ruadhan and King Diarmaid, have probably an element of historical fact. Thus the place has a wealth of poetic and semi-historical associations which make it unique in the British Isles, for it belongs to centuries when in other parts of the islands history is almost silent; and its very solitude and simplicity, with nothing to speak of the past except the green lines of ditch and rampart, the rude cross and the mysterious stone pillars, make upon the imagination an impression more powerful than the elaborate works of a civilized people might have produced.

There is at present in England a remarkable revival of interest in old Celtic literature. It is to be hoped that one result of it may be to secure the publication of a number of these very ancient Irish poems, belonging to the centuries between the coming of Christianity in the fifth century and the Anglo-Norman invasion in the twelfth, which connect themselves with Tara and its kings, and enable us to realize the character of a primitive society which was, despite its rudeness and its ferocity, prolific of men learned in the learning of their time, full of intellectual life, and proud of its intellectual achievement. Y.

Correspondence.

TRUSTS AND CONSUMERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Recurring to your question as to the object of the Lexow Trust Investigation, its possibilities, etc., contained in column three, page 118, of the issue of February 18, 1897, permit me to quote from page 74 of 'Recent Economic Changes,' by David A. Wells, as follows:

"Society has practically abandoned—and from the very necessity of the case has got to abandon, unless it proposes to war against progress and civilization—the prohibition of industrial concentrations and combinations. The world demands abundance of commodities, and demands them cheaply; and experience shows it can have them only by the employment of great capital upon the most extensive scale. . . . To the producer the question of importance is, How can competition be restricted to an extent sufficient to prevent its injurious excesses? To the consumer, How can combination be restricted so as to secure its advantages and at the same time curb its abuses?"

Then what do the party platforms mean when they declare against Trusts, and the public men—even Mr. Cleveland—when they declaim? Flournoy Rivers.

Pulaski, Tenn., February 21, 1897.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The platform of the Republican City Convention of Chicago, adopted February 26, contains the following plank:

"In our opinion, one of the crying evils of our city is the destruction of the profits of the small shopkeepers by the competition of the department stores, which, by the use of labor grossly underpaid, have succeeded in largely driving out of business the many smaller storekeepers throughout the city, and we hereby request such legislation from the State of Illinois and the City Council as will prevent the combination of the many different kinds of storekeeping, otherwise unallied, in the great department stores. We believe that *the theory of the Republican party in favor of protection goes to the extent that the local business of every neighborhood*, so far as possible, *should be transacted in that neighborhood*, and we favor, as far as may be legally done, the wiping out of the present system of big department stores."

Of course, if the theory of protection has any validity whatever, the convention is right. In order to carry out the principle, let every city, town, and village enact a prohibitive tariff against its neighbors, and let every neighborhood in every city and town protect itself against every other neighborhood. Then the millennium will come; then we shall all be rich, happy, and prosperous; then "the local business of every neighborhood" will "be transacted in that neighborhood," and the wicked free-traders at last see the error of their ways and acknowledge the greatness of the principle of protection!

Yours respectfully,

Edwin I. Felsenthal.

450 W. Randolph Street, Chicago, Feb. 27, 1897.

THE VENUS OF MELOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Evidently the unfortunate award which Paris made of the apple of Discord is destined to exert its baneful influence upon the modern world no less than it did upon the ancient, as the heat of the controversies over the most beautiful statue of the recipient of the apple shows no sign of abating, although nearly seventy-seven years have passed since the discovery of the statue and the beginning of the dispute. Recently new fuel has been added to the flames by the publication of an article in *L'Illustration* of December 12, giving what was claimed to be new and convincing testimony upon two important points—the date of the discovery of the statue, and the condition of its arms at that time. With his characteristic thoroughness, M. Salomon Reinach has shown from contemporary documents how absolutely devoid of value this testimony is, in a letter published in the *Chronique des Arts* of January 9 and 16.

In the *Nation* of February 18 Mr. Stillman has added force to M. Reinach's statements by expressing the same opinion, based upon his own investigations in the island of Melos. But, by the unhappy fatality which awaits all those who attempt to solve the mysteries of the Venus, he raises new difficulties while settling old ones. There are in his account one

or two statements which are not supported by the official documents, and, though of minor importance, they tend to increase the confusion already sufficiently confounded regarding the circumstances of the discovery and removal of the statue. Such are, for example, his assertions that there was no French ship-of-war in the harbor of Melos when the statue was discovered, and that it was Dumont d'Urville who rescued it for France. As M. Reinach's letter may not be accessible to all your readers, perhaps there are some among them who would be glad to know how much has actually been determined with regard to this portion of the disputed questions, and why it is that the new evidence—which has been extensively repeated and accepted by the press of this country—is not accepted by special students of the subject.

This evidence, as Mr. Stillman stated, is an extract from the diary or notebook of a French midshipman, M. de Trogoff, said to have been attached to the *Espérance* in the spring of 1820, when she was cruising in the Levant. It is held to prove two points: first, that the statue was discovered, not on the 8th of April, the date generally accepted, but between the 4th and 11th of March preceding; second, that, when discovered, it still retained the arms. The question of the date is not of vital importance, perhaps, as it makes little difference now whether the statue was found in March or in April. Still, if it can be settled, it would better be, especially as the correctness of one statement affects the validity of the whole of M. de Trogoff's testimony. In his notebook he writes that the statue was discovered by a Greek peasant "lors de notre relâche à Milo." He gives no date, but the log-book of the *Espérance* shows that she was at Melos from March 4 to March 11; hence the conclusion is supposed to be obvious and incontrovertible — the statue must have been brought to light a month earlier than has been hitherto supposed. But in reply to this it is to be said that, admitting the Trogoff document to be genuine—and, so far as the Venus is concerned, I see no reason for wishing to doubt this—it bears numerous indications of having been written some time after the event it describes, and of having been written from hearsay rather than personal inspection. In speaking of "notre relâche," the writer may have referred to the squadron to which he belonged, not to his own ship, as the other two ships of the squadron, the *Lionne* and the *Estafette*, did remain at Melos after the *Espérance* had sailed away, and were both there April 8. This is proved by documents in the French naval archives, quoted by Reinach.

Whatever may have been Trogoff's meaning, the authority for the date generally accepted is much more satisfactory and convincing. On April 10 the *Bonite* joined the two ships at Melos; its Captain, M. Dauriac, was shown the statue, and on the 11th he wrote to the French Consul-General at Smyrna, telling him about the statue, and stating that it had been found three days before. This letter has been published several times. It was evidently written to support the request of the Vice-Consul at Melos, M. Brest, that measures might be taken to secure the statue for France; for on the following day Brest wrote to the Consul-General to the same effect. In his letter he said that the statue had just been found ("Un paysan vient de trouver," etc.). Knowing the anxiety which he displayed until it was actually on board a French man-of-war, it is impossible to believe that he would have waited a month or more before reporting its discovery to his superior; and his letter, therefore, serves to give what support may be considered necessary to the explicit statement of M. Dauriac, made as soon as he had been informed of the facts. The Trogoff statement is too vague to affect such evidence as his.

Turning now to the subject of the arms, the Trogoff document says, "Elle [the statue] est bien conservée. Dans une de ses mains elle tient une pomme." The publisher of the document accepts this as evidence that when the statue was found the arms were intact, and thus revives a story which was supposed to have passed into the region of legend, namely, the account of one Matterer, said to have been a seaman on the *Estafette*, who described in tearful language an engagement which he had witnessed between the French sailors who were sent ashore to take possession of the statue, and the inhabitants who refused to let it go. This Matterer statement was worked up in the columns of *Le Temps* by an energetic correspondent in 1874, but it is now generally suspected of being an early specimen of modern "fake" journalism. At all events, the charge that it was spurious has been seriously made, and, so far as I am aware, never successfully refuted.

But assertion is not proof, and it therefore remains to be shown again why neither this nor any other statement which implies that the arms were broken off after the discovery of the statue, can be accepted in the face of the evidence we possess. The statue was found April 8, the upper and lower half being separated. The letters of the period following—which will be found in Ravaisson's later essay, "La Vénus de Milo," 1892—show that the upper half was removed immediately to a neighboring hut or stable; the lower remained some time in the place where it had been found. The Vice-Consul receiving no authority to buy the statue, and the French ships having sailed away, it was disposed of by the peasant who found it to the primates of the island, their intention being to send it as a gift to a powerful official at Constantinople. For this purpose it was carried down to the shore on May 10. M. Brest succeeded in dissuading any captain from consenting to ship it, and thus delayed its departure until May 23, when, as a Ragusan trader was about to receive it, the *Estafette* returned, bringing M. de Marcellus, secretary of the French Ambassador at the Porte, with orders to purchase it for his chief. According to Marcellus's account, the negotiations were entirely peaceful, and two days later he sailed away with his prize. As the dates given are matters of history, it will be seen that if the arms of the Venus were broken off in an encounter between French sailors and Greeks, this could not have been before May 23; if they were broken in carrying the statue down to the shore, this must have been May 10. Of any dispute or rough handling before that time there is no mention on any side.

There are, however, positive statements that the arms were broken before either of these dates—in fact, that they were not on the statue when it was found. In M. Brest's first letter, that of April 12, referred to above, he says the statue "est un peu mutilée; les bras sont cassés." On the 19th of April, Dumont d'Urville, Ensign of the *Chevrette*, which arrived at Melos a few days before, saw the statue, and subsequently wrote a long account of it, in which he states that "elle représentait une femme nue, dont la main gauche relevée tenait une pomme, et la droite soutenait une ceinture habilement drapée; . . . du reste, elles ont été l'une et l'autre mutilées, et sont actuellement détachées du corps." Finally, we have the testimony of the drawings of M. Voutier, a cadet on the *Estafette*, who actually witnessed the discovery, being only a few yards away when it was made, and who sketched the statue before his ship left Melos. His sketch is published in Ravaisson's essay, and shows that the condition of the arms was precisely as we see it to-day. The left hand holding the apple was not a myth, however; it was found with the statue, carried to Paris with it, and is now in the Louvre.

The testimony of M. de Trogoff's diary is, then, not so important as its publisher would have us believe, and is evidently not that of an eye-witness of what he describes. If he was on the *Espérance*, he could not have been at Melos when the statue was discovered, nor could he have seen it before it left the island, by which time all are agreed that its arms were broken. The old evidence upon which the history of the statue is based remains unshaken, although the newspapers are hardly to be blamed for seizing upon whatever appeared to be a final solution of any of the vexed problems which have grown up about the statue, the most popular as it is the most mysterious of all the works which Greece has left us.

EDWARD ROBINSON.

BOSTON, February 22, 1897.

AN AMENDABLE CRITICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There is an article, in Professor Skeat's *Student's Pastime*, devoted to the expression *darkling;* and very different it is from what one would expect to be offered, even by a philologist of no more than ordinary circumspection and research, as a contribution to knowledge. The gist of that article is as follows:

"Please note that *darkling* is an adverb. Keats is quite wrong in using it as an adjective; perhaps it was a beautiful word to him, because he did not clearly understand it."

This first appeared in 1887, in the pages of *Notes and Queries*, and was reprinted a few months ago.

In partial discrepancy from what is quoted above, Professor Skeat says, in his Introduction, p. lxxvi:

"Keats seems to have been under the impression that *darkling* is a present participle; but let us charitably hope that he knew it to be an adverb."

The *Oxford Dictionary* Professor Skeat is so gracious as to speak of, at page 320 of his new work, as "a book which, with all its faults, is by far the best dictionary we possess." "With all its faults," it is, however, a book from which he has something to learn about *darkling*, a word dispatched by Dr. Murray in 1894.

The adjectival use of it in Keats is, as has been seen, apparently held, by Professor Skeat, to be, if not unique, at all events a monstrosity, and noticeable merely by way of warning and to point a sneer.

Paul Whitehead, in 1739, sang of "a doleful tenant of the *darkling* cell"; and, on turning to my notes, I find that, a few years later, or in 1752, Dr. Johnson, in the motto to No. 7 of the *Rambler*, second edition, wrote, translating from Boethius:

"On *darkling* man in pure effulgence shine,
And cheer the clouded mind with light divine."

To Keats, it has been surmised, as we have

seen, *darkling* may have been "a beautiful word," "because he did not clearly understand it." And how as to Dr. Johnson? Were he and Keats "both in a tale"?

After altering Prof. Skeat's "because" to "and," even if we acknowledge that the two authors are to be bracketed with relation to *darkling*, still their desert is the contrary of depreciation. Though Dr. Johnson "did not clearly understand" the word, as will be shown presently, yet Keats, not impossibly, when he used it as he did, was quite aware of what he was doing. Who is to say that he did not wittingly follow, with respect to it, in the footsteps of his predecessors in his craft? To return to Dr. Johnson, inasmuch as, so far as has been ascertained, he was preceded only by Whitehead—whom he styles "a small poet"—in venturing the adjective *darkling*, it is interesting that he is, with some probability, to be credited with its effective introduction into our phraseology. However misapprehensively innovated, it was, no doubt, as to Keats, so to him, "a beautiful word"; and so, in poetic diction, it is generally considered to be, unbeautiful as it may be in the judgment of Professor Skeat.

On *darkling*, as employed in the quotations given in his *Dictionary*, Dr. Johnson, in his ignorance, is reduced to speculating that it is "a participle, as it seems, from *darkle*, which, yet, I have never found; or, perhaps, a kind of diminutive from *dark*, as *young*, *youngling*." As used by Shakespeare, Milton, and Dryden, most dictionaries, down to this hour, erroneously call it an adjective. That, in recent authors, it is frequently so is not to be disputed. And why, as adjectival, should it not be as good as, to go no farther, *now* and *then*, for instance, put attributively, were to our forefathers?

To Dr. Murray we owe the information that, among those who have used *darkling* at variance with its original acceptation, are, besides the authors already named, Shenstone, Hurdis, Gilbert Wakefield, Sir Walter Scott, Dr. Chalmers, Matthew Arnold, Mr. George Meredith, Mrs. Oliphant, Mr. P. H. Gosse, and Mr. J. R. Lowell. And this list I could amplify from my own verbal stores.

The verb *darkle*, now nearly a century old, concerning which, also, Dr. Murray enters into full particulars, has eluded Prof. Skeat's observation; and likewise has *darkling*, as its participial adjective. The first occurs in Thomas Moore, Byron, Thackeray, William Morris, and others. And, except for a narrow range of reading, or an irretentive memory, to whom is it unfamiliar? For the rest, viewed analogically, it is nothing strikingly peculiar. To many verbs, up and down our language, we find *-le* suffixed, to the production of derivates neither diminutive nor frequentative, appreciably; among them being *croak*, *gab*, *grunt*, *hug*, *just*, *ming*, *ring*, *scuff*, *start*, *ting*, *tink*, *touse*, and *twink*. Why not, then, *darkle* from *dark*, to be accounted simply a euphonic elongation of it? Or why not justify it, theoretically, as a back-formation from *darkling*, on the analogy of *grovel*, from *groveling*?

By misleading deliverances like that on *darkling*, Prof. Skeat puts his reputation to the touch. He is much too prone to precipitancy. It often really looks as if he supposed that, because of his proficiency in the English of ancient days, bare intuition was well-nigh adequate to acquaint him with the English of modern days. In none of his various productions are there tokens that, otherwise than through the medium of dictionaries and glossaries, and these consulted insufficiently, he has explored our literature of the last four centuries to any but a moderate extent, just as it has been explored by thousands of living students who advance no pretensions as philologists. Throughout his *Etymological Dictionary* this fact is patent; and very noticeably does it detract from what might, under other circumstances, have been its value. Greater still might have been its value if it had not been compiled, as it avowedly was, against time; and no one can estimate what its value might not have been, if it had not been compiled prematurely. Single-handed drudgery could accumulate but a minute fraction of materials equal to those at the service of Dr. Murray and Mr. Bradley; and, with the scanty relevant materials that Prof. Skeat had at his command, nothing better than the indifferent success which has attended his etymological labours could have been anticipated. Nor has it escaped the inquisition of the curious, that his hold on scientific principles is neither firm nor steady, and that his logical faculty is not of an eminent order. To no competent person who, for a few hours, examines, side by side, his *Etymological Dictionary* and the *Oxford Dictionary*, will the conclusion be avoidable, that, as concerns the treatment of the history and derivation of our vocabulary, the latter, "with all its faults," is, beyond comparison, superior. Moreover, the *Etymological Dictionary* being by much the most important of its author's publications, and being what it is, especially with its strange attitude towards suffixes, little does it become him to assume, as is his wont, towards his fellow-philologists, an air of magisterial patronage. No one, he should bear in mind, abases himself by modesty and generous appreciation. Of these things one might, under ordinary conditions, feel constrained to content oneself with vague intimations, or with none at all. But the subject of the present remarks, censorious at every other turn, sets no example of reticence; and what is permissible to a critic is not impermissible to a counter-critic.

F. H.

Marlesford, England, February 9, 1897.

TOAD AND TOADY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was looking over an old edition of Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress' the other day, and, in the "Author's Apology for his Book," came across these lines:

> "If that a pearl may in a toad's head dwell,
> And may be found too in an oyster shell."

Turning to the 'Century Dictionary,' under *Toad* I found the following: "The fable of the jewel in the toad's head may have some basis of fact in the piece of glistening cartilage which represents an unossified basioccipital." Such glistening substance would hardly suggest a pearl, however. Does Bunyan in this line represent the common form of the superstition?

Can you tell me how the word "toady," as used for example by Thackeray in his 'Book of Snobs,' originated? What is there in the habits or appearance of the ordinary toad to suggest any disposition on his part to raise himself by unworthy methods to a station superior to that allotted him by a wise Providence?

I have had unusual opportunities for observing toads. A great multitude of them dwell under my barn, and I have found them in every way eminently respectable tenants. Though I possess unusual opportunities for advancing or retarding their fortunes, they have never to my knowledge approached me in the attitude of sycophants or flattered me in any manner whatsoever. Their life for the most part seems to be one of great leisure and dignity—*otium cum dignitate*.

Charles Edward Stowe.

Simsbury, Conn., February 27, 1897.

[*Toady* would seem to be connected immediately with *toad-eating*. See both illustrated in one scene in Cruikshank's 'Sketch-Book.'—Ed. Nation.]

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press 'Philip and Alexander of Macedon,' by Prof. D. C. Hogarth of Oxford; 'A Short History of Mediæval Europe,' by Prof. Oliver J. Thatcher of the University of Chicago; 'Martha Washington,' by Miss Anne Hollingsworth Wharton; 'The Builders, and Other Poems,' by Dr. Henry van Dyke; and 'A Story-Teller's Pack,' short stories by Frank R. Stockton.

Further announcements by Macmillan Co. are 'The Port of Missing Ships, and Other Stories of the Sea'; 'A Manual of Coach Building,' by John Philipson; and Temple Scott's 'Book Sales of the Year 1896.'

Henry Holt & Co. will speedily issue 'The Fern Collector's Handbook and Herbarium,' by Miss S. F. Price; volume ii. of Prof. E. Aubert's 'Littérature Française'; and 'In Plain Air,' by Mrs. Cabot.

Prof. Trent's 'Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime' is on the point of being issued by T. Y. Crowell & Co.

Edward Arnold will have ready on March 5 'Through Unknown African Countries: The First Expedition from Somaliland to Lake Rudolf and Lamu,' by A. Donaldson Smith, M.D., with nearly thirty full-page plates and other illustrations, and five original maps, with a full index. The author is an American.

T. Fisher Unwin's spring announcements include 'The Works of Charles Keene,' with introduction and notes by Joseph Pennell; 'The Printers of Basle,' being the autobiographies of Felix and Thomas Platter; 'The Welsh People,' their origin, language, history, and present characteristics, edited by Prof. John Rhys; 'Pioneer Work in the Alps of New Zealand,' by Arthur P. Harper; Taine's 'Travelling Notes in Southern France'; 'Turgeneff and his French Circle,' a series of letters to Flaubert, George Sand, Zola, etc, edited by M.-H. Halpérine-Kaminsky; 'South Africa as It Is,' by F. Reginald Statham; 'The Inner Life of the House of Commons'; 'Communism in Middle Europe in the Time of the Reformation,' from the German of Carl Kautsky; 'Frederic Engels, Co-founder of Scientific Socialism'; 'A Village Politician,' the life story of John Buckley; 'The Life of Sir Henry Parkes'; and 'St. Mark's Indebtedness to St. Matthew,' by F. P. Badham.

Students of early English will rejoice to learn that Mätzner's great Dictionary, the publication of which has been suspended for nearly six years, in consequence of his death, is now resumed, with every prospect of a speedy completion. The present editor, Hugo Bieling, associated with Mätzner in the earlier portions of the work (from F on), is abundantly qualified for his task. The present

fasciculus, pp. 305-464, runs from *makien* to *merien*. From the brief statement on the cover, we learn that Bieling's exclusive responsibility begins with *marchen*, p. 348. It would perhaps be over-sanguine to expect the completion of the *magnus opus* by the end of the century. S and W, as the Germans say, are ugly chapters. But we hope for only a brief waiting after 1900. Meanwhile we welcome the new editor heartily.

While we can hardly think the continuator of the late Prof. Alexander Johnston's 'American Orations' (Putnams) of equal rank with that scholar and student, his insertions and additions, involving a fourth volume, will be found convenient for reference. The necessary condensation when, as in volume iv., twenty orators are presented in 400 pages of moderate size and open type, quite spoils the newer volumes for rhetorical enjoyment. Omitted passages are generally summarized in the appendix.

A tenth edition of Bartholomew's 'Pocket Atlas of the World' (Putnams) is not to be wondered at. The little volume, beside one, answers a thousand questions in the broader, and even in the minuter, range of geographical knowledge with the least trouble. There are nearly a hundred and fifty maps altogether, with an index of seventy-two pages, not quite impeccable: the only entry for Sandwich Islands, for example, refers to the South Polar group. The classified list of maps in the table of contents should, in our judgment, be repeated alphabetically.

Sir E. J. Poynter's portrait fronts the titlepage of the eighteenth issue of 'The Year's Art,' 1897 (London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentano's), and leads the regular array of portraits of his fellow-artists. The list has now become so considerable as to demand an alphabetical index, which is accordingly given on pp. 310-13, and covers the years 1888-96, with indication of the deaths in that period—those of last year forming a minority significant both in number and in weight. Besides the usual compact and full information respecting societies, exhibitions, etc., a record has been made of all proof-engravings and etchings of the year published under the sanction of the Printsellers' Association. Moreover, arts and crafts have found recognition in a directory of craftsmen and designers appended to the customary directory of artists proper.

The *Portfolio* for January (Macmillan) consists of a monograph on 'Albert Dürer's Paintings and Drawings,' by Lionel Cust. The illustrations are very fairly well reproduced, and are, of course, of the highest interest; but it cannot be said that the text is very valuable as containing anything new or very interesting, either as art criticism or as biography. It, however, serves its purpose as a vehicle for the illustrations in a respectable manner.

The *Quarto* (London: J. S. Virtue) is another of the new English magazines in covers which, if not so eccentric, is also not so clever as some of its predecessors. The only marked difference from others of its type which it displays is the inclusion of music in its table of contents. It has only one illustration of any great degree of merit, a photogravure after Rossetti's painting of "The Salutation of Beatrice," and contains no literature that seems above the ordinary magazine average. It is called a "quarterly," but seems, so far, to be very irregular in date of publication.

The most recent work of the indefatigable editor, Senator Luigi Chiala, is 'La Vita e i Tempi del Generale Giuseppe Dabormida' (Turin: Roux, Frassati & Co.), in which are given for the first time many documents concerning the Italian Revolution of 1848. Dabormida was both one of Charles Albert's most trustworthy generals and a member of his Cabinet in that exciting year. Prefixed to the main biography is a sketch by V. Chiala of Gen. V. E. Dabormida, who gallantly lost his life in the battle of Adowa March 1, 1896, while fighting the Abyssinians. In soldierly qualities, in loyalty to their king, and in devotion to duty, the Dabormidas were fine specimens of that best Piedmontese stock to which Italy owed, in large measure, her independence and unity.

A recent Johns Hopkins doctoral dissertation, by Constance Pessels, is on 'The Present and Past Periphrastic Tenses in Anglo-Saxon.' The writer, now instructor in the University of Texas, has studied the Anglo-Saxon texts exhaustively and tabulated the results. The chief conclusion, stated at page 74, that periphrasis is not conclusively a borrowing from Latin, or, if borrowed, was early naturalized, seems to us well established. We are not quite satisfied with the terminology "periphrastic tenses" for such locutions as "I was fighting," but should prefer to call them "periphrastic forms." Nor does it seem to us wise to adopt Sweet's definition of a "future preterite," p. 23. Occasionally the writer's expression is not as lucid as it should be. But in the main the dissertation is a bit of solid work.

Frank H. Chase's 'Bibliographical Guide to Old English Syntax,' though published by Fock, Leipzig, represents the writer's study, as Clark scholar, at Yale. It is an extremely useful little pamphlet, giving one the means of surveying the literature bearing upon the subject. The critical remarks proffered are few, but sound and suggestive. If we were to raise any objection, it would be to the writer's estimate of Wülfing. That scholar's voluminous and labored compilation seems to us faulty both in plan and in execution. But we must not make too much of a minor point in Chase's work, while commending it as a whole for precision and practical arrangement.

In *Dialect Notes*, Part ix., Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan makes a first report on the distribution of American dialects, using as criterion the pronunciation of *grease* and *greasy*. He has had some 1,600 sets of answers to his list of questions, and concludes that there are four dialectic sections of the country, called North, South, Midland (a belt separating the two previous divisions), and West. "The District of Columbia is peculiarly national," but is in this report classed, like Delaware, with the Midland. "In some matters Canada (especially Lower Canada) goes with the North, in others with the Midland and the South." As respects the pronunciation of *grease* and *greasy*, the North generally "strongly favors *s* in the adjective and verb." Subserviency to Walker and his lexicographical imitators has, in and about Boston, favored the use of "*s* in noun, *z* in verb and adjective," and so somewhat disturbed the general verdict. "Connecticut is the average New England as well as Northern State. For the Middle North (that is, excluding New England and the British Possessions), Iowa occupies a similar position, as does southern Iowa for the West, and middle Illinois for the Midland belt." Arkansas and most of Missouri represent the South. "Our North harmonizes fairly with the larger part of England, while our Midland, and even more our South, show distinct traces of the Scotch and Scotch-Irish ancestry of a large part of their population."

We reviewed, some years ago, a book entitled 'Kentucky Jurisprudence,' by Mr. L. N. Dembitz of the Louisville bar, in which the author successfully established his proposition that the development of law in the several States would furnish material for a corresponding number of separate treatises. The suggestion has so far, we believe, not been acted on; but in the February number of the *New Jersey Law Journal* Mr. Frederic Adams of the bar of that State points out a peculiarly interesting field for such a legal inquiry. In fact, as he observes, the public history of New Jersey is for the most part a history of law; and "a bare enumeration of the attractive features of a legal narrative that should begin with the Duke of York and end with the Duke of Gloucester" would of itself occupy no inconsiderable space.

The new first supplement to the Carnegie Free Library's Catalogue of Fiction (Allegheny, Pa.) is noticeable for its prefatory "List of Books no longer on the shelves," including Horatio Alger's, Martha Finley's, May Agnes Fleming's, "Harry Castlemon's," A. C. Gunter's, Mrs. Mary Jane Holmes's, E. P. Roe's, Mrs. Southworth's, Marion Harland's, and Augusta J. Evans's. The intrepid librarian fortifies his action with extracts from the *Nation's* reviews pointing out the inanity of many of these voluminous purveyors for the vacant mind.

An unusually interesting number of the *Geographical Journal* contains an account of an extensive journey to the north of the Zambesi by which some important gaps in the map of this region were filled. The explorers found that the memory of Dr. Livingstone was retained by many of the natives, who befriended them for his sake. Much of the country traversed was devastated by the rinderpest, and "the game now is practically extinct, the carcasses lying rotting in all directions." In some notes of a journey made for the study of the classical geography of Mysia, Mr. J. A. R. Munro describes a settlement of Russians on Lake Manias who, after centuries of expatriation, "retain their national type and customs with surprising freshness." "Their houses are neat and well kept," and "the inhabitants appear to be prosperous and contented"—and this within a comparatively short distance of Constantinople. There is also an account of a visit to the cave-dwellings on Mount Elgon in East Africa. Some are of a considerable size, with numerous passages, and are inhabited by large numbers of people, who "appear to develop a special power of sight, and run about at full speed in the dense darkness of the passages with the greatest ease and confidence." The caves are very dry, and "the attrition of human feet through long ages has worn away the rock and produced a fine floury dust" several feet deep. Some travellers have suggested that they were artificial, but Mr. Hobley thinks that they may be due to the action of water when the Victoria Nyanza was a "mighty inland sea." This and the preceding articles are accompanied by maps, and there is also a map of the Niger delta, compiled in part from a route survey by Major Crawford, one of the victims of the recent Benin massacre. Sir Clements Markham's address at the jubilee of the Hakluyt Society contains many interesting facts, especially regarding the life and work of Richard Hakluyt, to whom, as the

preserver of the records of explorers and discoverers, both Shakspere and Milton owed much.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for February opens with an account of recent explorations in the Patagonian Andes, made for the purpose of determining the continental watershed and the sources of the principal streams, and to examine the valleys, which appear to be of great value both for agriculture and for cattle-raising. This is followed by notes on the geography of the Argentine Republic.

Since Miss Helen Gladstone retired from the first vice-principalship of Newnham College, in order to be with her parents during their declining years, the post has been filled by the appointment of Miss Katherine Stephen, daughter of the late Sir James Stephen. Miss Stephen's promotion to Sidgwick Hall makes room for Miss B. A. Clough, younger daughter of Arthur Hugh Clough, who succeeds as head of Clough Hall. Mr. and Mrs. H. Y. Thompson have presented the college with a new library, which is now being built; it will hold three or four times as many books as the old library and accommodate many more readers.

—Mr. Harry A. Cushing's 'History of the Transition from Provincial to Commonwealth Government in Massachusetts' is the latest issue in the Columbia University "Studies in History, Economics and Public Law." The period is one which, in many of its aspects, has been pretty thoroughly worked, but its governmental features have not, so far as we recall, received so detailed an examination as is here given them. Rightly insisting, at the outset, that the Revolution was no sudden or isolated event, but "the normal ending of years of faithful adherence to divergent policies," and of "the firm maintenance of incompatible political theories," Mr. Cushing shows how careful Massachusetts was to conform, as far as possible, to familiar law and precedent, even while constitutional principles were yielding to the stress of political necessity. As the breach with Great Britain widened, and the possibility of war became more imminent, the Provincial Congress was forced to assume increased powers of control; in so doing, however, it manifested a remarkable deference to the wishes of the Continental Congress, to which it seems to have felt itself, in a way, subordinate. On May 16, 1775, the Provincial Congress accepted a report of a committee declaring that since the condition of affairs in Massachusetts and the possibility of war "equally affected our sister colonies and us, we have declined, though urged thereto by the most pressing necessity, to assume the reins of civil government" without the advice and consent of the Continental Congress; and it was in accordance with the suggestion of that body that the government under the charter was resumed. The chapter on the Constitution of 1778 is of especial value; that on the Constitution of 1780 covers, naturally, more familiar ground. We note unimportant misprints on pages 152 and 182. The fact that Mr. Cushing's volume is one which all students of American history will be grateful for, makes the absence of an index only the more unpardonable.

—Mr. L. L. Price of Oriel College, Oxford, has collected a number of his essays, published and unpublished, in a volume entitled 'Economic Science and Practice' (London: Methuen & Co.). More definitely these papers may be described as essays on the various aspects of the relations of economic science to practical affairs. If not of very high, they are of very even, merit, being marked by moderation and good sense as well as scholarship. The author is a bimetallist, but, as he is evidently incapable of dishonesty, it is curious to observe the arguments that he finds unanswerable. Falling prices, he thinks, act powerfully on the imagination, and discourage enterprise. This is very well in theory, but if any one attempts to make out that the era since 1873 has been one of "discouraged enterprise," he has not a hopeful task. Theoretically "it cannot be doubted that employers are disheartened by falling prices"; but in spite of their faint hearts they have vastly increased the number of their workmen since 1873. It is true, Mr. Price concedes, that appearances may fail to reveal the existence of suffering on the part of the wage earner, who yet might have been much better off had it not been "for discouragement occasioned by falling prices to business enterprise." Still, Mr. Price is conscious that some more tangible evidence of the ruin caused by the gold standard might be helpful, and this he finds in "the stationary wages, the falling profit, the failure to recover from temporary depression due to credit fluctuations, and the feeling of *malaise* which has been a characteristic of business in recent years, attested by successive Royal Commissions." It may be submitted that this is not exactly evidence, in the scientific sense, and that if, as a matter of fact, the purchasing power of wages and the number of wage-earners are increasing, if production is enlarged even with a declining rate of profit, and if the volume of trade steadily swells, the disastrous effect of the gold standard remains to be proved.

—The Symbolists are still alive, and furnish matter for two volumes, one, 'Le Livre des Masques,' by Remy de Gourmont (Paris: Société du Mercure de France), the other by Jacques Plowert, 'Petit Glossaire pour servir à l'intelligence des Auteurs décadents et symbolistes' (Paris: Vanier). The latter is really a reissue of the book published in 1888. It may therefore be dismissed with this passing mention, that it is exactly what its title indicates, a glossary of terms affected by Décadents, though many of these terms are by no means peculiar to that peculiar group, nor even employed by them in any new sense. Gourmont's book is disappointing. It is an almost uniform laudation of writers who have not all succeeded in making themselves heard by the public—which is, therefore, an idiotic public. Epithets which Hugo would have loved to apply to himself, if he had only thought of them, are freely bestowed on third and fourth-rate Symbolists; they are "luminous Levites," whatever that may mean; "authentic glories of French letters of the present," and so forth. The preface is better worth reading, for it is an attempt to define Symbolism and a protest against the slavish observance of rules and formulæ, a protest to which one may heartily subscribe without necessarily sharing M. de Gourmont's admiration of the writers of his school. According to him, Symbolism is the expression, even if excessive and unseasonable, of individualism in art. What gives a value of its own to the book is the admirable work of the illustrator, F. Vallotton, whose masks of the authors spoken of are excellent in every respect.

—The first part of a 'Geschichte der isländischen Geographie,' published by Teubner of Leipzig, is the German translation of a work by the Icelandic geologist Thorvald Thoroddsen, printed (in 1892) by the Icelandic Literary Society for its members. The present volume begins with a discussion of the imagined identity of Iceland with the Thule of the ancients, and ends with a description of the cartography of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; a subsequent volume will bring the matter down to the present time. The author has treated his subject along the broadest possible lines. The work is primarily intended to cover everything of importance that has been written concerning Icelandic geography; but political, commercial, and social conditions, a knowledge of which is necessary to the intelligibility of early writers, have also been most carefully described in their historical development, and literature and *Culturgeschichte* have received an unexpected share of attention. This is especially worthy of note, since for a great part of the time under discussion but little has hitherto been done. The earliest period of the history of Iceland, thanks to the phenomenal literature of the Classic Age, has been most minutely investigated. With regard to conditions after 1300, however, as the author points out in his preface, there is still almost complete darkness, although plenty of material is at hand in documents and manuscripts which are the sources of some of the present material. That the work was originally written for an Icelandic public, and not for the specialist, has in no wise invalidated its interest or its usefulness.

—A report of unusual interest has lately been issued by the Public Works Department of the Government of India, concerning the great landslip at Gohna on a head branch of the Ganges in the Garhwal Himalayas, in September, 1893, and the precautions taken to lessen danger when the lake formed by the slip overflowed in August, 1894. The slip descended about 4,000 feet; successive falls continuing for three days with deafening noise, the air being darkened with dust from the 800,000,000 tons of shattered rocks. A dam was formed across the narrow Birahi Ganga valley, behind which a lake at once began to rise. It was hopeless to cut a passage through the dam. As the flood anticipated when the lake overflowed could not be controlled, effort was turned to warning the people in the valley below. A telegraph line was constructed from Hardwar, where the Ganges emerges on the plains, to the lake, 150 miles away in the mountains. Iron suspension bridges were dismantled and removed and replaced by temporary rope bridges for the use of pilgrims, who resort in great numbers to the sacred valley. Safety pillars were set up in plain sight at frequent intervals along the valley-side, to indicate the probable height of the flood. In April, 1894, predictions based on the rate of rise of the lake waters gave August 15 as the date of overflow and discharge. The flood actually happened at midnight, August 25–26, during heavy rain. In four hours the dam was cut down 390 feet; the lake was reduced from four to two miles in length, and from half to a quarter of a mile in breadth; ten billion cubic feet of water was discharged. The flood rushed down the valley at a rate of twenty miles an hour just below the dam; its advance was reduced to ten miles an hour at Hardwar. The water generally rose well up to the safety pillars, one or two hundred feet above the ordinary channel; its increase was nicely recorded even at night by the successive extinction of lanterns that had been lighted on posts set up at ten-foot vertical intervals at

a number of points along the doomed valley. Two bridges that had been left standing, after protest by the local authorities against their removal, were swept away. Many miles of valley road was obliterated. All vestiges of habitations were destroyed at three considerable towns and many small villages. Yet so completely did the telegraphic warnings from the lake serve their purpose that not a single human life was lost. The officer in charge of this beneficent work was Lieut.-Col. R. R. Pulford.

PATER'S UNFINISHED ROMANCE.

Gaston de Latour: An Unfinished Romance. By Walter Pater. Macmillan. 1896.

Mr. Shadwell informs us that this little volume is the last we may expect from his gleanings of Mr. Pater's uncollected work, and the last that was left in fit condition for publication by that careful and elaborate workman. The greater part of these seven chapters appeared in *Macmillan's Magazine*, and hence will be new to many readers on this side of the water. To say that the work is an unfinished romance need not disappoint readers who are familiar with Mr. Pater's methods; each chapter is a vignette which is self-sufficing in its individual beauty and interest.

Gaston de Latour is a second Marius, transferred to the sphere of modern thoughts and ideas. Mr. Pater has chosen France for his scene, just at the time when the Renaissance and the religious wars made it a vortex of mingling currents and movements in art, philosophy, and religion. Gaston's birthplace is an old château, in the fertile plain of La Beauce, the country of Joachim du Bellay, over whose wide landscape the Cathedral of Chartres "shows like a ship for ever a-sail in the distance." He is the last of a long line of gentlefolk, who had infused something of their blood as well as of their gentility into the neighborhood, and left their impress upon its character and manners as well as on the landscape. Their château of Deux Manoirs, embodying in the peculiarity of its architecture an episode of family affections, is one of those places which the genius of Mr. Pater loved to haunt and to adorn with fanciful and touching retrospect such as we meet with in 'The Child in the House.'

Here, in the family chapel of St. Hubert, the young seigneur is first presented to us. He is taking a step which might end the race of Latour; he is of his own choice assuming clerk's orders, according to the ritual of the Roman Church. Yet the old ecclesiastics of his kindred, who assist at the rite, have their misgivings; they can discern that he is not quite after their kind. The cloistered life at the Cathedral of Chartres will not extinguish certain alien and disquieting sensibilities. He suspects "somewhere in the world, waiting for him in the distance, a still living humanity, perchance already on its way, to explain, by its own plenary beauty and power, why wine and roses and the languorous summer afternoons were so delightful. . . . Sorrow came along with beauty, a rival of its intricate omnipresence in life. . . . The beauty of the world and its sorrow, solaced a little by religious faith, itself so beautiful a thing—these were the chief impressions with which he made his way towards manhood."

These passages echo the note of 'Marius' and of 'The Child in the House.' It is easy to guess with what subtle, refined, and tender touches the author of these works paints the life and atmosphere of La Beauce, the memories and associations of the old château, the routine and ceremonial of the great cathedral. There the young clerk and his fellow-acolytes pursue an unending function, "a sort of religious drama, as if one explored the entire Middle Ages." The young clerical actors in this drama were not too deeply tinctured with its sentiment and solemnity. Mr. Pater, who knew his student world in Oxford, sketches with delicious penetration the ways of this flock of sparrows in the temple—their zealous officiousness, their disdain of the untonsured laity, their profound irreverence, their worldliness and graceful fopperies, their longing for Paris and all the pomps and vanities which the Huguenots despised. "Half clerical, they loved nevertheless the touch of steel; they read eagerly in racy new translations old Greek and Latin books with a delightful shudder at their wanton paganism."

Gaston, too, had his fit of the classical enthusiasm. Like his comrades, he had taken on trust the *hortus siccus* of Virgil and Horace. It was a "docile act of faith" regarding a past that was chained to the bookshelf. But he takes his first flight into the "world of modernity" as he crosses the low hills that bound the horizon of La Beauce, and visits the convent where Ronsard, by special court favor, was acting as lay-superior. This is a second step in our Pilgrim's Progress. He had already made the acquaintance of the poet's odes, of his "Skylark," and his "Mignonne! allons voir si la Rose," "which had proved the key to a new world of seemingly boundless intellectual resources, and yet with a special closeness to visible sensuous things." Here was something new and alive, like the faces one knows and loves, as brilliant and magical as the flowers and the birds in the sunshine. Compared with the Maries and Cassandres, what were Dido and Æneas but statues in the gallery of antiquity? Why should poetry "mask itself in the habit of a bygone day? Gaston could but pity the people of the past for not being above ground to read."

Thus vividly does Mr. Pater suggest the miracle that was wrought on youthful imagination by the poetry of the Pleiad—the budding of that new spring—the awakening from the sterile contemplation of a beautiful but petrified past to the worship of a living beauty speaking the languages of the day. This new and profane religion—the worship of physical beauty, with Ronsard for its high priest—makes an appeal to the ardent young clerk that is likely to conflict with his vows and his tonsure. But he is plunged into deeper waters when the "Prince of Poets" offers him a letter to his friend Michel de Montaigne, with which he travels further south to the Gironde, "the country of peach-blossoms and wine."

The chapter on Montaigne must remain a classic on its attractive subject. In it Mr. Pater has decanted the essence of the Essays, in their discursive turnings and windings, and has managed to collect a most characteristic cento of their thoughts and phrases. All this is artfully wreathed about the individual traits of their author so as to give a nearly perfect miniature of a singular and fascinating personality. The undulancy of that philosophy into which Gaston found his mind precipitated, its "fluxions and mobility," its negative and sceptical attitude, are somewhat over-emphasized by Mr. Pater as well as by Emerson. If Montaigne thought "doubt the best of pillows to sleep on," it was a sleep from which he wakened with purged vision that saw centuries beyond his contemporaries. At his particular epoch, it really was the "greatest thing in the world for a man to know that a man is his own." His scepticism is, on its reverse side, only the assertion of freedom and independence of thought—a splendid practical assertion, which is felt in every chapter and page of his writings. His indifference, in another view, became religious tolerance, in which he was "the solitary conscience of his age." The light of common day, that shines around us all now, was then a single gleam just touching the height of that genial and elevated intelligence. His ideas on education, his condemnation of monkish asceticism, his adorable spirit of humanity, his abhorrence of cruelty to children, to criminals, and to animals—all these, which are the axioms of modern civilization, were then hardly dreamed of save by that tender heart and innovating brain. "I do not much pity the dead, and I should envy them rather; but I very much pity the dying. For my part, even in justice itself, all that exceeds mere death appears to me pure cruelty. . . . 'Tis not a soul, 'tis not a body we are training up, but a man; and we ought not to divide him. Of all the infirmities we have, the most savage is to despise our being." In sentences like these break out the light and reason of that lucid and unique spirit, like a patch of blue sky above the mists and prejudices and illusions of its tumultuous age.

When Gaston leaves Montaigne's "Castle of Circe," and visits Paris just on the verge of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, when he marries a young girl of Huguenot family by "dubious and irregular rites, the religious sanction of which he hardly recognized," the casual reader may fancy that he is at last hot on the scent of romantic passion and adventure. But Mr. Pater's admirers know quite well that this cannot be, that there is nothing of Dumas or Stevenson in his pensive and meditative pages. He is here, as in his 'Marius,' the historian of sensations and ideas, not of action, and passions, and hair-breadth escapes. It is, indeed, most striking and characteristic how, just at the moment when action might be forced upon his hero, he swerves aside and will have none of it. The healthy and happy novel-reader, who loves the drama of passion and adventure, and who regularly commits the crime of reading solely for amusement, may as well be warned that Mr. Pater will not serve his turn. Here is a romance which offers no action, no conversation, no love-making, no adventures greater than the surprise of meeting with a great poet or a famous philosopher. On the eve of the massacre Gaston is summoned to his grandfather's deathbed; his young wife, with her unborn child, flees into the country, believing herself deserted and betrayed, at the most poignant moment, and so disappears. Instead of the massacre itself, we have a fine allusive description of the atmosphere of horror and delirium, of mystery and wild surmise, that overshadows it; in the midst of this, a single tragedy is hinted at, and then vanishes into melancholy haze.

The thread of personal experiences which in 'Marius' was never lost, is firmly held in the early chapters on the boyhood and nurture of Latour; it is retained in the chapter on Ronsard, who is felt and seen through the fancy and the eyes of his youthful and poetic worshipper; it reappears rarely in the essay on Montaigne, it disappears completely in the chapter on Giordano Bruno. Perhaps it was the consciousness that he had lost his hero which broke off this vein, and left us only a

fragment. Be that as it may, Gaston here simply poses as a listener to introduce us, one Whitsunday afternoon, to an address *de umbris idearum* by Giordano Bruno, that Dominican brother whose philosophy was just then one of the new-fangled Italian fashions made welcome at Paris. But the listener drops out of view altogether, and instead we are offered the personality of the philosopher.

There is something in the method of its presentation which recalls the unity of purpose, the continuity of interests and studies, which run through all Mr. Pater's work. The essay on Joachim du Bellay was published in 1872; the poetry of the Pleiad, the wide landscape and the fertile fields of La Beauce, the winnowers' song and the winnowing fans took hold of his fancy, and it is to those scenes that he reverts nearly twenty years later for the birthplace of his hero, Gaston de Latour. He was always fond of philosophy, but of philosophy only as embodied in or shining through a personality. In his Sebastian Van Storck he personified or dramatized Spinozism. "Philosophy," he wrote in his essay on Winckelmann—"philosophy serves culture, not by the fancied gift of absolute or transcendental knowledge, but by suggesting questions which help one to detect the passion and strangeness and dramatic contrasts of life." It is from this point of view that he looks at Plato; it is from the same that he gives us those rounded and vivid and colored pictures of Montaigne and Giordano Bruno.

"The spiritual unity of the world" which Bruno preached "must involve the alliance, the congruity, of all things with one another, of the teacher's personality with the doctrine he had to deliver—in hearing him speak you seemed to see that subtle spiritual fire to which he testified, kindling from word to word. In Bruno that abstract theory of the perpetual motion of the world was become a visible person talking with you."

The same thing, *mutatis mutandis*, may be said of our author, as we listen here to the last vibrations of his musical voice. He and his philosophy were all of one piece. He was endowed with that keen sense of form and sounds and scents and colors, and of their impression on the emotions and the soul, which transcends the gamut of ordinary experience, and is the special heritage of the poet and the artist. This exquisite and perilous sense, which in most of us fades after childhood, and in many is dulled and perverted to gross abuse, he kept to the last so fresh and pure and true that he showed how it might ally itself with religion—that he bridged in a Platonic manner the passage from the beautiful to the good, from the perception of ideal beauty to the conscience of the good. He showed how this refined epicureanism, the enjoyment of select and noble pleasures, of the most refined sensations and emotions which the fleeting moment can offer, may ally itself in the end with morality, with the beauty of holiness. Finally, he interpreted this sense with the most vivid fidelity, and with a literary craft whose beauty and conscientious finish were born of his creed. If such doctrine seems esoteric, a cult reserved only for the initiated few, it is none the less a counsel of perfection—a goal towards which human nature must press and aspire if it is destined some time "to let the ape and tiger die." It is a doctrine that above all needs preaching to a gross and materialized democracy like ours, to the Caliban or the plutocrat who is the true *Epicuri de grege porcus*. And hence these highly wrought essays have a real message to deliver and a real niche to fill in the temple of art and humanity.

ENGLISH RHETORIC AND COMPOSITION.

Constructive Rhetoric. By Edward Everett Hale, jr. New York: Henry Holt & Co. 1896.

Talks on Writing English. By Arlo Bates. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

THE term Constructive Rhetoric seems to be used by Mr. Hale, not in opposition to analytical rhetoric, but to indicate that he wishes to analyze the art of composition for constructive purposes—to use the materials of rhetoric to teach students how to write. He is professor of rhetoric and logic in Union College, and no doubt his book illustrates his own method of teaching. This may be described, briefly, as consisting of an explanation of the principles underlying the art of writing, accompanied by exercises in the application of the principles. For instance, Part I., which treats of kinds of composition (narration, description, exposition, and argumentation), after explaining them, gives a number of subjects, *e. g.*, Autumn Weather, The Decay of Political Honesty in Republics, and The Oratory of Burke, and asks the student to determine by what kind of composition each should be treated. This part of the book is simple, and contains many useful and, we believe, some original suggestions. Beginners not only have few ideas, but they are totally unaccustomed to reflect upon or analyze their own mental processes, or to consider the fitness of a particular rhetorical means to an end. Most people remain in a fog about this all their lives. A student doing the exercises in Part I. could but find his literary powers strengthened by them. What the author says about the mistake of "realists" who imagine that a catalogue is good descriptive writing is excellent, and so is his analysis of a passage from Scott illustrating the fact that description which follows the order of sequence of original observation is apt to be good. The rationale of this matter we take to be that the method in question reproduces for the hearer the *impressions* made on the observer, exactly as they were produced, *i. e.*, the natural order. In modern descriptive writing we are often annoyed by the writer's undertaking to invert the order and force an unnatural sequence of impressions. The result is always fatigue and revolt.

Part II. the author calls "The Paragraph," and it is here that we begin to get a clearer insight into his system, the object of which is to fix the mind primarily on *structure*. It would perhaps be a caricature of a book which contains much that is valuable to say that Mr. Hale's ideal in composition would be an ideal of form without content; but his method of treatment strongly suggests this. Illustrations may be found at every turn. Even in Part I. he shows his devotion to form by suggesting to the student in narration to write the end of his story first, because the end "makes the final impression," and "one should have it in mind all through." And so at p. 157: "Wishing, then, to end our paragraphs with the very best effect, we will think particularly what sort of effect we can give by manipulating the thought, and then what effect we can give by manipulating the style." A better practice, however, he thinks, is "writing beginnings." So we hear nothing about simplicity and clearness, the two essentials of all good elementary composition, till we reach a postscript to Parts I. and II., where they are described as intellectual qualities of style; the next mention is at p. 253, where, under Simile, we are told that, "if simplicity be our aim," "one form of synecdoche may to some extent take the place of example in other kinds of composition." When we have examined all that the author has to say about simplicity and clearness, we cannot help thinking that he regards them as almost figures of speech. A great deal of the book can be of little or no value except to very advanced students or expert rhetoricians. The tendency of much of it is to make the pupil mistake form for substance.

The fallacy which underlies what we object to in the book consists in the idea that the *art of writing* can be taught by means of what the author calls constructive rhetoric. Our experience is that the teacher can do very little beyond practising the learner in the expression of such ideas as he has (and they are usually not numerous), and that the system expounded by Mr. Hale, blindly followed, would inevitably produce, not good, but highly artificial writing. A curious instance of the effect upon himself of the author's devotion to form occurs at p. 278, where he declares that, by antonomasia, a boy who has accumulated more marbles than all his schoolfellows put together may properly be called "the Jay Gould or the Rothschild of this spherical currency." Yet on the next page he says, speaking of two other figures, "I do not believe that anybody was ever yet taught outright to speak ironically or to make good epigrams."

Those who have never had anything to do with writing or teaching others how to write, would be surprised to find how few beginners have any idea about the matter. One of the most invaluable accomplishments in practical life is the art of being able to reproduce a document or piece of writing of any kind in a condensed form. In any profession or business it is of the first importance to know how to do this. Without expertness in it, dispatches and letters cannot be abstracted, cases cannot be prepared for trial, news cannot be summarized for a newspaper. Yet expertness in it is very rare, solely from lack of early training. We believe that it ought to be taught wherever writing is taught; when learned, it is at once perceived to be a matter of substance, not form, and most people have to learn it for themselves. A student with this one thing for his equipment will, we believe, be ready for work, though he may have hardly a speaking acquaintance with metonymy or antonomasia, and never have heard of obverse iteration or anti-climax. Mr. Hale, far from recommending exercises of this sort, seems even to object to abstracts. He recommends "making analyses of the paragraph structure of other people's writing," but expressly says: "Don't try to make an abstract of the essay or whatever else you are at work on" (p. 117).

Our author, though so strong an advocate of form and rule in structure, is somewhat indifferent where diction is concerned. He seems to think that the student is more often at a loss for *some* word to express an idea than in difficulty as to the correct word (p. 187). This may be, but we believe that the reason is usually connected with lack of ideas rather than words. We have seldom met with anybody plentifully supplied with ideas who had not also a large vocabulary of some sort. Many young people have feelings and

emotions which they long to express and cannot find words for, but feelings and emotions are not ideas. And why are not purity and propriety of diction and correct usage of just as much importance as correctness in style? All students are warned against mixed metaphors, though, as Mr. Hale points out (p. 260-1), any metaphor which introduces terms of both idea and image must be mixed, while on hearing the stock classical instance, "to take up arms against a sea of troubles," we are not disturbed, though the metaphors are absolutely incongruous. He would not, however, on this account recommend or teach the mixture of metaphors. Is there any reason for allowing a greater degree of slovenliness with regard to diction? Yet this seems to be at bottom Mr. Hale's idea, and the tendency of his book is accordingly to encourage the student to think that if he is correct in structure, he need not mind being slovenly in diction – which is surely a great mistake. He suggests (p. 243) that a class of men exists—*e. g.*, Walt Whitman—to whom it is "necessary" to "dismiss the care for good English from their minds and surge ahead." To tell this to a student is to mislead him. The student always has a tendency to think that rules are made for others, but that his is a peculiar case. The object of teaching is to show him that good work is possible only under rule. The important thing for him is to find out what good usage is, not to have it preached that good usage is always changing (p. 65), and that the usage of one century is not that of another. The fact is true enough, but it is of almost no help to any one learning how to use language. We live in a period of slovenly writing, and to direct the attention of students to the great evangelist of slovenliness, disorder, and barbarism, as if he belonged on this account to an acknowledged class of great writers, is all the more pity. The fact that language and usage are always changing is the very reason why correct usage is of so much importance. The author cites Campbell as an authority on the principles of good usage, and says "he is as valuable as ever." This means that good usage must be that of the present age, must be reputable, and must not bear the brand of locality, technicality, or provincialism. No one will quarrel with this, except those who think it necessary to dismiss the care for good English from their minds and surge ahead. But its importance needs to be emphasized, not minimized.

There is between Mr. Hale's 'Rhetoric' and Mr. Bates's 'Talks' (given in 1894 as a course in the Lowell Free Classes) a certain family likeness. One is a treatise, and the other a collection of conversational lectures, but both writers belong to the same school; in the teaching of both we detect the haunting influence of the same professional ideal—that of composition taught formally, as if without content or substance, as by instructors desiring to produce a perfected rhetorical man, skilled in all the arts of expression, but freed from the incubus of ideas. No doubt both of them would repudiate, as a travesty, any such description of their aim, and to be quite accurate we should perhaps say that such books suggest this as a sort of esoteric ideal, not to be rashly proclaimed in public doctrine, but to be cherished by the initiated and tentatively adumbrated to the neophyte. Mr. Bates, for instance, is for ever reminding us that writing is very like playing on the piano. A girl learns to play the instrument without composing music, and five-finger exercises are to musical composition what rhetoric is to writing. In both the student "must not think of what he is doing, but of how he is doing it" (p. 23). For the same reason, "it is well, in learning to write, to select uninteresting subjects," themes "which depend for their effectiveness not upon what they are, but upon the way in which they are presented" (p. 26). Mr. Bates regrets to find that students tend "to set to work to find something to write about which is in itself attractive," and declares that, do what he will, it is difficult to persuade them to stick to "careful attempts to express the commonplace."

All this does not prevent Mr. Bates from making sensible remarks about writing, but it leads to one very extraordinary consequence. Departing from "the time-honored custom of putting description and narrative before exposition and argument," he insists that exposition and argument shall come first. One of his principal reasons is that the pupil, in describing something or telling a story, is in danger of becoming interested in what he is about, and this emotion of interest may distract his mind and obstruct his progress in the cultivation of skill in form and technique. Have not the great performers on musical instruments been for the most part "trained technically while they were still so young or so undeveloped that the emotional capabilities of their nature were not matured?" (p. 125). It is an old saw that a metaphor proves nothing, but to this Mr. Bates does not agree where the piano and rhetoric are concerned.

Both Mr. Bates and Mr. Hale seem to have been curiously misled by some advice given by Flaubert to Maupassant (p. 24). The latter is very justly described as "one of the most finished masters of literary art, pure and simple, who have written in this century"; and Flaubert gave him some advice, in a whimsical vein, which Maupassant has reported. It does not follow from this that Flaubert's advice produced Maupassant's style, and, as a matter of fact, it did not. Maupassant would have us believe that Flaubert taught him "the way to become original." But this was precisely the one thing which the elder novelist could not teach the younger. The passage quoted is an extravagant and thoroughly French overstatement of the fancy that the essence of genius lies in an immense capacity for patient toil. If Maupassant were taken literally, it would mean that Flaubert taught him that by staring long enough at a familiar object, he would see in it something which no one had seen before. Whatever Flaubert taught Maupassant, it was certainly not his own method. For writers of English, Hawthorne's notebooks convey the lesson and record the results of painstaking literary practice much better than Maupassant's curious interpretation of French realism. Hawthorne is quoted (p. 238) as having declared the secret of his own style to be "the desire to tell the simple truth as honestly and vividly as one can." This is utterly different from trying to see something in an aspect that nobody has noticed before.

Authors and Friends. By Annie Fields. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

It is a happy fortune which enables us to see so many writers of the famous Boston coterie through the eyes of an intelligent, cultivated, and sympathetic woman, whose opportunities for knowing them were of the best. Mrs. Fields did not know them merely as the acquaintances and friends of her husband, James T. Fields, publisher and man of letters, but clearly, in several cases, in her own right as much as his—Mrs. Stowe and Mrs. Thaxter and Whittier, it would seem, much better, partly because her friendship with them went on and grew after her husband's death. Not unmindful of the privilege of such high companionship, there is no boasting as of the vase that it had been with the rose, and still less any deliberate suggestion of the peace and comfort which these authors and friends found under her hospitable roof. But the suggestion is no less evident because unconscious. It was inevitable, and one of the most beautiful things in Mrs. Fields's book is the reflection of her husband's cheerful kindness as a literary host, and her own perfect sympathy with him and intuitive coöperation. In and between the lines of the letters given here from one friend and another we have glimpses of the writer's personality quite as attractive as any she affords of those whom she esteemed so much. The scope of her book is not commensurate with that of Boston authorship. One of the greatest names is missing from the table of contents—that of Lowell—and why this happens is a problem which the curious psychologist will not refuse to entertain.

All these chapters, except the brief concluding one on Lady Tennyson, had previously appeared in print, though in some cases less adequately than here. The treatment varies not only with the subject, but also with the author's method of approaching it. The "Longfellow" is a biographical sketch in which Mrs. Fields avails herself of varied help, and is most happy when relying on her personal impressions. The delightful quality of these is substantially the same as that of others which have been published by Longfellow's friends. Sometimes the note impresses us as somewhat exaggerated or even false, as where it is said that "he was first of all a seer of beauty in common things." Hardly could anything be further out than this, and to speak of his life, as a whole, as being "crowded with incident and experience" is equally beside the mark. A more favorable impression is given of Longfellow's wit and humor than we have commonly received. On one occasion he "scintillated all the evening," but this is set down as a most unusual thing. Unlike another poet, he did not "celebrate himself," nor even talk about himself. In the conversation at the Craigie House there were many "flashes of silence" and periods of absent-mindedness, when the poet may have been upon the track of a new poem. To the misadventures of his enemies, the lion-hunters, there are some notable additions. On his return voyage from Europe in 1842 he was cabined and confined for fifteen days, twelve of them in his berth, and there he thought out by night his seven poems on slavery and wrote them down in the morning.

That "aloofness" which Margaret Fuller found in Emerson may account for the less personal tone of the second chapter, which is as characteristic of Emerson as the first is of Longfellow. "Emerson's Young Man," some new discovery of genius, was a constant joke among his friends. Once it was a youth in the far West who had sent him verses for his criticism. Apparently he has not been discovered. One of his lines which Emerson thought a great one was, as here given,

> "Life is a flame whose splendor hides its base."

Our own recollection of Emerson's quotation is "Life is a lamp," etc., with another,

> "The short parenthesis of life was sweet."

There is an amusing story of the elder Henry James's monopolizing one of Alcott's "conversations" until Emerson's Aunt Mary cried, "Let me confront the monster!"—suiting her action to the words. In spite of Emerson's distrust of laughter (wherein he was at Carlyle's antipodes), at Dickens's reading of 'Dr. Marigold' "he laughed as if he would crumble to pieces." He took his revenge later in the evening by declaring Dickens to be "too consummate an artist to have a thread of nature left." His indifference to "Faust" and his inability to read Dante Mrs. Fields attributes to his early reading of them in poor translations; but here, as elsewhere, her critical opinions are less valuable than her personal impressions. Emerson's reading of his "Voluntaries" to Mr. Fields at the Parker House in a disordered room which a former occupant had just vacated, is one of the choicest bits. Mr. Fields, it seems, suggested the title. The amount of coöperation in the Boston literary set is getting constantly fresh illustration.

Of all her literary friends in the first rank Holmes was the best known to Mrs. Fields, and no more creditable and engaging account of him has yet been written than her own. Although he was a near neighbor to the Fieldses, he wrote them many letters, and almost invariably when at the top of his condition. Some of his encounters with Hawthorne and Lowell are of special interest. Lowell praised his lyrics, but Holmes depreciated them as "too hopping." Evidently his "Chambered Nautilus" represented for him a mood to which he attained too seldom, when he was "rapt out of himself and carried away into the region of the divine" and taught what he should speak.

Mrs. Fields's acquaintance with Mrs. Stowe began with the civil war. We are shown how far a little went with her in the way of actual observation when she came to write 'Uncle Tom's Cabin.' Even more remarkable was her lack of apparent engagement with the subject of slavery before this. The circumstances under which she wrote her most famous book are well described in a passage taken from one of Mr. Fields's lectures. A habit which she had of suddenly retiring into herself in companies where she had been taking a leading part, must have been disappointing and embarrassing. She was always eager to try upon some friend, as soon as possible, what she had written. She was much interested in spiritualism, and her husband, who had a way of seeing visions, once mistook her for one, and treated her with distant courtesy until she began to laugh. Writing to George Eliot, she took for granted that Mr. Casaubon in 'Middlemarch' represented Mr. Lewes, and could with difficulty be cured of the idea. The irresponsible Will Ladislaw would have been a likelier guess.

The chapter on Celia Thaxter sounds the note of personal affection stronger than any of the others, and it is written the most continuously, with fewer letters to illustrate the character, because the sketch was made to introduce a volume of letters. Mrs. Thaxter's first published poem, "Land-Locked," is quoted in full as being "as beautiful as her latest work." If the critic had not been subordinate to the friend, would not Mrs. Fields have said that Mrs. Thaxter never wrote another poem quite so fine as that? All who knew her even a little will find it easy to believe the praises of her friend.

The Whittier chapter is valuable, not only for its delineation of Whittier, but for its glimpses of Mrs. Child and its tokens of the great esteem in which he held her graces and her gifts. The way in which she mingled her economies and charities was most admirable. When she gave Wendell Phillips $50 for the Kansas negroes, he thought it was too much and advised her to think it over. She did and sent another fifty later in the day. Whittier's interest in Robert Dale Owen is reported, but it was imperfect on the spiritualistic side. There is a true story current to the effect that when Owen, describing certain visions, asked Whittier what he should do if he should see such things, Whittier said, "I should scoot," and instantly made off. Rossetti's ballad, "Sister Helen," impressed Whittier the more because he had seen his aunt and mother burning the waxen image of a clergyman whose heresies they could not endure.

Tennyson was not inclined to personal talk. He preferred reading his own poems or those of other poets, and Mrs. Fields represents his reading, which was rather chanting, as remarkably impressive, especially when the matter was his own parting of Arthur and Guinevere. Mrs. Browning thought Tennyson's wife was not critical enough with him, but was she more critical with her own poet? It is evident from the exquisite sketch of Lady Tennyson that her share in her husband's occupation as a poet was unlimited, and that both their lives were singularly remote from common ways.

The Rise and Growth of the English Nation. With special reference to Epochs and Crises. A History of and for the People. By W. H. S. Aubrey, LL.D. 3 vols. D. Appleton & Co. 1896.

It is hard to see why this book should ever have been written. It is not exactly fatuous; it indicates a good deal of reading, on the whole wisely directed, as well as a certain hard common sense about matters of detail. But there is nothing new in it, either in the way of information or of philosophic generalization. It is perhaps half as long again as Green's 'Short History'; but no one whose opinion is worth having would advise a student or "the general reader" to spend his time over Mr. Aubrey's book rather than over Green. And when the student has read Green, he will be ready to turn to writers of larger calibre than Mr. Aubrey—to Macaulay and Gardiner and Lecky and Freeman and Stubbs.

The author tells us in his preface that the work is "written in no partisan or sectarian spirit." No doubt he has tried to be fair; but, as a matter of fact, the book is throughout that of a Radical of the generation just passing away, with all the limitations and self-satisfaction which only too frequently marked the race. He exemplifies, one cannot help saying, his own remark that "there is no prejudice so strong as that which arises from a fancied exemption from all prejudice" (iii., 27). A few examples will suffice. The account of the Anglo-Saxon Church bears the title "Rise of Ecclesiasticism"; and, before we get far into it, we are told that "a professional order of priests, whether Christian or pagan, Romanist or Protestant, is always a menace to a community" (i., 76). The Great Charter, the Petition of Right, and the Bill of Rights "did not confer fresh privileges"; they only "reaffirmed" "ancient and indisputable public rights" (i., 229). "For nearly five hundred years," in the Middle Ages, the "Protective Spirit was rampant in every department of Church and State" (i., 372). The ecclesiastical system of the Middle Ages is described as the priesthood's "tawdry paraphernalia of dogma and mystery" (i.,390), rearing "a mighty fabric of tyranny on a foundation of imposture" (i., 392). When our author gets to the periods of the Stuarts and of George III.—the happy hunting-ground of commonplace Radicalism—he warms to his task: "James I. knew as much as a troglodyte of the people over whom he nominally ruled" (ii., 317); and Mr. Aubrey is apparently surprised to find that he "never forgot or forgave Andrew Melville for telling him in a public audience that his kingship was subordinate to Christ's, as embodied in the Kirk" (ii., 319). Laud, among other things, "derided patriotism" (ii., 394), and "attempted to extirpate freedom of thought" (ii., 396). And, finally, "the long reign of George III." may be "expressed in concise terms" as "sixty years of blundering, injustice, and repression" (iii., 200).

That there is an element of truth in each of these propositions and in scores of like remarks to be found in this work, we are not concerned to deny. But it is a truth that has long been sufficiently dinned into British and American ears; it panders to that conceit of the modern and enlightened which does so easily beset us; and it is so one-sided that it again and again misses the true issue. Even an evidently one-sided treatment of a subject may, indeed, be rendered attractive by charm of style or distinction of manner. What readers will find in Mr. Aubrey may be judged from this specimen of his sententious moralizing: "In every age there have been too many with souls wholly given to dress and adornment, yet having no innate sense of beauty, grace, or fitness, who suffer themselves to become mere lay figures for exhibiting the freaks of fashion, regardless of health, comfort, appropriateness or decorum" (i., 162).

However, it is not absolutely a sin to write even 1,400 pages with contents such as these. It must have furnished a pleasant occupation to the author for several years; and, after all, nobody need buy the book. What does irritate one is the pretentiousness of the performance, the air of unusual intelligence and novelty. This is going to be a history "of and for the People," says the title-page. "It is important to exhibit the Commonwealth, as distinct from what is called the State; the People, as distinct from the titular Monarch; and the National Life, as distinct from the trivial circumstances of the hour" (i., 3). Do not come to me, says Mr. Aubrey, for "records of royal imbecility, of palace scandals, of political huckstering, of factious strife, of official corruption, of battles and sieges, and of all the accidents and excrescences of former times." "They will be found," he observes with fine scorn, "in works specially devoted to Court millinery and upholstery" (i., 2).

Such a work as we are here promised would necessarily involve intense and prolonged application; and so Mr. Aubrey informs us. "Designed for popular reading, its pages are not burdened with footnotes giving the authorities." But "the utmost care has been taken . . . to use all available information," and "ordinary readers have no conception of the prolonged and toilsome labor of examining authorities" (i., 10). What he means by "examining authorities" we may gather from his remark apropos of the "three hundred and fifty volumes of the Rolls Series": "Life is not long enough to search among so many bushels of chaff for a few valuable grains of wheat. The bulk and multi-

tude of the Calendars" (an odd term) "would render them almost useless, but for their complete indices and introductory historical matter" (i., 9). The truth is, Mr. Aubrey's learning is chiefly second-hand; and his mental attitude is like that of scores of his predecessors. A history of the People he does not give us: he gives us only a crowd of disconnected facts and observations, put together in chapters by themselves at the end of each section of political history, in the good old semi-enlightened fashion. Take two sufficient instances. England in the Middle Ages was an agricultural country; from the point of view of social evolution, therefore, the one all-important subject of mediæval history is the condition of the peasants. Mr. Aubrey returns to it again and again for a few sentences, but the most intelligent reader might be defied to construct out of them a clear picture of the situation—for the simple reason that Mr. Aubrey has no clear understanding of it himself. He may have turned over the pages, he cannot have given any sustained thought even to the books he parades in his Bibliographical List. Vinogradoff would have saved him from repeating the old fiction about *villeins regardant* and *in gross* (i., 168)—a small matter, but significant.

England, again, is "the classic land" of "the great industry." "The Industrial Revolution" has profoundly affected the lives of tens of millions of Englishmen. Will it be believed that to the inventions in the textile industries and their effects Mr. Aubrey devotes in all some forty-four lines (iii., 246, 292), about as many as are given to George III.'s lunacy (iii., 243); fewer and far less impressive than those on "the progress of invention" in Mr. S. R. Gardiner's book, which professes only to supply the wants of schoolboys ('Student's History,' 814-818)? The point need not be labored. In dealing with political history Mr. Aubrey does avoid unnecessary detail; names and dates are mercifully few. But he has not really risen above the political point of view, and his work is essentially conventional.

The Cell in Development and Inheritance. By Edmund B. Wilson. Macmillan. 8vo, pp. xvi, 371. 1896.

THIS volume is one of the very best scientific manuals published in America, and is sure of a rapid recognition and generous welcome, not in this country alone, but in Europe also. Its importance depends first upon the subject, and second upon the author's presentation. The subject is of course as old as the cell-theory itself, but the observations upon which our present views are based have been made almost wholly within the last twenty years, and most of them within the last ten years. These observations have brought a whole series of new conceptions before the scientific world—conceptions which bear upon the fundamental questions of biology, and are equally significant to zoölogists, botanists, and philosophers. We are confronted with new theories of generation, of sexuality, of heredity, of growth, and of the chemistry of living matter, and all created out of a wealth of new discoveries unparalleled in any other domain of biology. As a rule, zoölogists and botanists pursue their independent ways; but in the domain of cell phenomena they have worked during the last dozen years in true collaboration, earning thus great rewards.

Treatises on the cell as the unit of vital phenomena have been recently published in German by Oskar Hertwig, and in French by Henneguy, both authorities of the highest rank, who have won reputation by these works. These have a strong impress of their respective authors. That which marks Wilson's book is precisely the absence of the personal element. He gives, not special arguments in favor of his own views, or fuller presentations of his own researches, which have been important, but a well-proportioned and balanced summary, in which his own work is measured fairly with that of others. This mental impartiality has bestowed a special value upon the author's digest of the hundreds of investigations he has epitomized, and is displayed again in the very large number of exact citations which he gives. For these citations he has adopted the system of Mark and Minot, which is simple, concise, and precise, and mars the text very slightly. The list of authorities is imposing, for it covers thirteen closely printed pages, although it includes only the titles of works actually referred to in the text. A noteworthy characteristic of the book is its thoroughness. Prof. Wilson shows an extensive personal familiarity not only with the phenomena which he discusses, but also with the observations and opinions of numerous other investigators.

As regards the forms of presentation and the style, the author excels. His treatise is of course not addressed to the general reader, but to persons having at least some knowledge of cells. To such readers the chapters will be clear, interesting, and instructive. The new technical terms, which are unfortunately rather numerous, are explained as they first occur, and are also gathered in a glossary at the end of the volume. The definitions in the glossary are almost uniformly admirable.

The subject-matter is divided into an introduction and nine chapters, as follows: i., General Sketch of the Cell; ii., Cell-Division; iii., Germ Cells; iv., Fertilization of the Ovum; v., Reduction of the Chromosomes, Oögenesis, and Spermatogenesis; vi., Some Problems of Cell-Organization; vii., Some Aspects of Cell-Chemistry and Cell-Physiology; viii., Cell Division and Development; ix., Theories of Inheritance and Development. Each of these topics is well analyzed, and the often conflicting views are adequately given. It is here that Prof. Wilson's good temper and sound judgment reveal themselves advantageously. In such a book it is important to express the author's estimate of the value of diverging opinions, to assist the reader to decide which view is at the time most plausible, or, when this is impossible, at least clearly to state that the evidence is insufficient. It will be found that Prof. Wilson has met these demands with conspicuous conscientiousness and yet temperately.

The defects which we have found relate to minor points. Thus, Weismann is erroneously quoted as one of the founders of the view that the nucleus is the organ of heredity (p. 5); Purkinje and Oken should be cited in connection with the history of the cell doctrine; the quantitative relations of the protoplasm to the nucleus should be noticed. It is, however, better to leave such petty criticisms, for it is a truer service to the reader to emphasize the very great merits of a work which does the highest credit to American science. The mechanical appearance of the volume is good. The typography is clear and the illustrations, which are numerous, are well printed and they have been well chosen. A large proportion are original. A double index (of authors cited and of subjects), prepared with much care, facilitates looking up any special point. The volume is the fourth of the Columbia University Biological Series, and will certainly go far towards sustaining and increasing the reputation of Columbia as one of the three or four best University centres for biological research in America. In conclusion, we may say that students and investigators of biology, in whatever department they may be working, ought to be familiar with this important work.

John Wellborn Root: A Study of his Life and Work. By Harriet Monroe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1896.

THIS square octavo volume of 290 pages is devoted to the life of an architect of most interesting personality, who had much to do with the furnishing of the great West with considerable buildings. There is no doubt of the originality of conception and vigor of design which Root showed in his work. He was one of the few who designed as a trained instinct bids them in view of the requirements of a structure, and the plan which those requirements have brought into being. Yet it can hardly be said that anything portrayed in these pages is likely to be considered a monument of architecture such as the world will desire to preserve.

The chapter which deals with Root's ideas of modern architecture contains many of the architect's own sayings, extracts from papers, and the like, which are full of sound sense. In one of these extracts he says plainly that whenever in the world there has been "a period or style of architecture worth preserving, its inner spirit was so closely fitted to the age wherein it flourished that the style could not be fully preserved, either by people who immediately succeeded it, or by us after many years." This cogent sentence he elucidates by very intelligible and very persuasive examples. Had it been possible for a large sense of propriety to embody itself at once in architectural results, Root would have been the man to bring about such a change in our architecture as the times required. Indeed, he was in a very large sense that which the West needed most, namely, the man who would persuade intending builders to give up galvanized iron cornices and jig-saw ornament, as the author of this book says, and to demand of them sounder and more serious methods of building.

The succeeding chapter is devoted to Root's work and its results, and in these two chapters lies the value of the book for other readers than those who were his friends and associates. The rest of the volume is an interesting biography of a man who lived a simple and straightforward life of work and thought, but it is of no special value as illustrating the surroundings of the man, either in his boyhood in the South or in his manhood spent in the West. The appendix, written by Mr. Henry Van Brunt, serves at once as a friendly and cordial criticism of the book and an obituary notice of its subject. Mr. Van Brunt refers to a list, which he has by him, of the work done by the firm of Burnham & Root, and sums it up. This final statement is of a certainly surprising number of important buildings: "forty-four structures of a public character, such as office-buildings, hotels, churches, apartment-buildings, schools, railway stations, etc., in Chicago; twenty-five of the same classes elsewhere; eight buildings to cost from $400,000 to $1,000,000 each, in course of erection, and one hundred and twenty residences of the first class." Assuredly this is a

remarkable record for eighteen years, and it is probably true, as Mr. Van Brunt asserts, that "there are fewer indications in this series of the forcing of structure into archæological or academic moulds than can be found in any modern European examples of corresponding buildings" The question which remains unanswered, and which the future only can answer, is how far this serious effort will be crowned with the success which it merits.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

America and the Americans. From a French Point of View. Scribners. $1.25.
Bordeaux, Henry. La Vie et l'Art: Sentiments et Idées de ce Temps. Paris: Perrin & Cie.
Boughton, Prof. Willis. History of Ancient Peoples. Putnams. $2
Buckley, Rev. J. M. A History of Methodism in the United States. Vol. I Christian Literature Co. $2 50.
Carter, A. C. R. The Year's Art. 1897. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentano's.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. 1897. Cassell Publishing Co. $1.50.
Cattaneo, Raffaele. Architecture in Italy from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century. London: Unwin; New York: Truslove & Comba.
Chambers, R. W. With the Band. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Evans, Mrs. Elizabeth E. Ferdinand Lassalle and Helene von Dönniges: A Modern Tragedy. London: Sonnenschein & Co.
Farmer, J. E. Essays on French History. Putnams. $1.25.
Fawcett, Edgar. A Romance of Old New York. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Felts, W. W. Natural Law in the Business World. New York: The Author. 25c.
Florenz, K., and Lloyd, A. Poetical Greetings from the Far East: Japanese Poems. Tokyo: T. Hosegawa.
Gavard, Charles. A Diplomat in London: Letters and Notes, 1871-1877. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Giles, Marie F. The End of the Journey. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Holland, Clive. A Writer of Fiction. Boston: Copeland & Day. $1.
Hoppin, Prof. J. M. Greek Art on Greek Soil. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Johnston, Prof. Alexander, and Woodburn, Prof. J. A. American Orations. Vol. IV. Putnams. $ .25
Knapp, Harriet L. Miriam's Tower. G.W. Dillingham. 50c.
Lanza, Clara Horace Everett. G. W. Dillingham. $1.50.
Litchfield, Grace D. In the Crucible. Putnams. $1 25.
Mach, Prof. Ernst. Contributions to the Analysis of the Sensations. Chicago: *Open Court* Publishing Co. $1.25.
Mercer, H. C. Researches upon the Antiquity of Man in the Delaware Valley and the Eastern United States. Boston: Ginn & Co. $2.
Montgomery, J. Z. Modern Book-keeping. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 80c.
Ozanam, Frédéric. Dante and Catholic Philosophy. New York: Cathedral Library Association. $1.50.
Papers and Speeches at the Seventeenth Church Congress held in Norfolk, Va. Whittaker. $1.
Philpotts, Eden. Lying Prophets. New York: P. F. Collier. 25c.
Philpot, Mrs. J. H. The Sacred Tree; or, The Tree in Religion and Myth. Macmillan. $3.
Pictet, Raoul. Étude Critique du Matérialisme et du Spiritualisme par la Physique Expérimentale. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Prowse, D. W. A History of Newfoundland. 2d ed., revised and corrected. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode; New York: Brentano's.
Russell, Israel C. Glaciers of North America. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1 90.
Sharp, Archibald. Bicycles and Tricycles: An Elementary Treatise on their Design and Construction. Longmans, Green & Co. $4
Smyth, J. P. The Divine Library: Suggestions how to Read the Bible. James Pott & Co.
Standling, Jonas and Reason, Will. In the Land of Tolstoi. Whittaker. $2
Storrs, L. A. Koheleth: A Novel. G. W. Dillingham. $1.
Stump, Rev. Joseph. Life of Philip Melancthon. Reading, Pa.: Pilger Publishing House.
The Coming of Chloe. By the "Duchess." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 11, 1897.

The Week.

UNRESERVED praise must be given to President McKinley's hearty support, in his inaugural address, of the arbitration treaty now pending in the Senate, and his earnest recommendation that it be speedily ratified. In this particular the new President has even surpassed the expectations of the friends of the treaty. It would have been very easy to indulge in commonplaces on this subject, but Mr. McKinley goes much beyond the ordinary language of commendation of the treaty. He holds it up as an example for all nations. "The importance and moral influence of the ratification of such a treaty," he says, "can hardly be overestimated in the cause of advancing civilization. It may well engage the best thought of the statesmen and people of every country, and I cannot but consider it fortunate that it was reserved to the United States to have the leadership in so grand a work." Equally encouraging are the President's utterances on foreign affairs in general. He declares himself for peace in principle, says we want no wars of conquest or foreign aggression, or war for any purpose until every agency of peace has failed. These earnest and emphatic words must have a most beneficial effect upon trade and industry, and it is to be hoped that they may quiet for a time the black-horse cavalry of the Senate. On the subject of civil-service reform Mr. McKinley stands by his avowed principles. He recalls the fact that, as a member of Congress, he spoke and voted for the present law, and says that he means to enforce it in the spirit in which it was enacted. There is every reason to believe that these words are uttered with a sincere purpose, and that they will be followed by corresponding acts.

One paragraph of the address will, we suspect, set Mr. Sherman thinking. "The several forms of our paper money," the new President declares, "offer, in my judgment, a constant embarrassment to the Government and [to] a safe balance in the Treasury. Therefore I believe it necessary to devise a system which . . . will present a remedy for those arrangements which, temporary in their nature, might well in the years of our prosperity have been displaced by wiser provisions." Considering whose fault it was that the "temporary arrangements" for the currency were not in prosperous years "displaced by wiser provisions," we imagine that Mr. Sherman may in the future be somewhat less positive about the virtues of the greenback. This side-thrust from his present executive chief recalls a similar snub received some years ago on the same question—at the very time, in fact, when the "wiser provisions" hinted at by Mr. McKinley might readily have been adopted. In his annual Treasury report of December 6, 1880, at the top wave of the trade revival, Secretary Sherman wrote: "United States notes are now, in form, security, and convenience, the best circulating medium known." In fact, he deprecated any further suggestion that they were a menace to the future. But on the very same day President Hayes, in his annual message to Congress, commented thus on his Secretary's optimism: "The retirement from circulation of United States notes is a step to be taken, in our progress towards a safe and stable currency, which should be accepted as the policy and duty of the Government and the interest and security of the people." The course of events since 1880 has sufficiently proved the wisdom of this position of a conservative Republican President; it has equally proved the futility of Mr. Sherman's theories.

The *Sun* made a very able summary of the President's inaugural, leaving out all the principal points. It omitted his declaration of adherence to the gold standard, his favoring a commission to revise the currency, and his intimation that the greenbacks should be retired. This, of course, was a little too strong doctrine to be given undiluted to *Sun* readers, who have been assured all along that nothing whatever was the matter with the currency, and that no patriot would ever talk of retiring the greenbacks. We observe that the greenback *Tribune* was also silent on this point—as, indeed, it has been ever since Mr. Gage was chosen for the Treasury. Of course the *Sun* cannot muster courage so much as to allude to Mr. McKinley's horrible views on civil-service reform; and as for his love of peace and hearty and unqualified endorsement of the arbitration treaty, the pain which they give the Jingo organ is of the kind which the hymn calls "inward." The only outward sign of anguish as yet betrayed is the remark that there are "some important omissions" in the inaugural, "some points of vagueness, and some signs of what we believe to be mistaken judgment." The howling of the Jingo robbed of its whelps will be heard later.

The Fifty-fourth Congress, which expired on Thursday, leaves, on the whole, a negative impression. No great act, either beneficial or mischievous, will be associated with it. Judged solely on the basis of the evil it might have done and refrained from doing, the verdict would not be so severely unfavorable. It did not, for example, pass the Nicaragua Canal bill or the Hawaiian cable subsidy. But a negative Congress, when the times call for a positive and constructive Congress, is of itself harmful to the public. Take the absolute and humiliating failure of this Congress to grapple with the deplorable condition of the currency and the national revenue. Take its deliberate action in voting appropriations which compel a deficit of $100,000,000. There alone is a confession of legislative imbecility and recklessness. There alone is a crushing condemnation of a body chosen to subserve the public welfare. When we add the wanton willingness of both houses in the first session, and of the Senate in both sessions, to embroil the burdened country in a needless foreign war, we get a record which, though negative as far as achievement is concerned, is positively evil in its demonstration of incapacity and irresponsibility. The worst of it is the general sense of discouragement which the Congress leaves behind it, and of concern, even alarm, over what its successor may do. The Fifty-fourth Congress was ushered in with much acclaim. At last we were to make an end of Democratic bickering and incompetency. The results are now before the country, and we observe a disposition to accept with great reserve the promises again so lavishly made in advance for the Fifty-fifth Congress.

Senatorial courtesy was severely strained during the trying final hours of the session, and remarks were made which seemed to show that the Senators have as low opinions of one another as the general public entertains of the body as a whole. A few days ago Senator Tillman declared that while he did not wish "to say anything harsh," God knew that he believed he was telling the truth when he said that the "Trusts have their hands in our [the Senators'] breeches-pockets." Senator Hawley "branded" this charge as "an unworthy slander, unworthy of any gentleman." During the last night session, Senator Hoar observed that the rules never intended to "put it in the power of one man, who in some conceivable case might be under the influence of liquor, to prevent eighty-nine men from doing business"; whereupon Senator Quay declared that if the Senator from Massachusetts intended to intimate that he (Quay) was under the influence of liquor, he was a "lunatic and a liar," and he would further characterize the intimation as a "filthy one." If Mr. Quay wishes to have it understood that this is his usual debating style when sober, there should be no objection.

Vice-President Stevenson's farewell address shows that the Senate made no mistake when it presented him the other day with a silver service. He deserved even that certificate of character, for he in turn certifies to the greatness, the wisdom, the beneficence of the Senate, which he thinks ought to be enshrined in the loving memory of a grateful people. Almost tearfully he says: "Of those who clamor against the Senate and its methods of procedure, it may truly be said, 'They know not what they do.' In this chamber alone are preserved without restraint two essentials of wise legislation and of good government—the right of amendment and debate." This, we are glad to see, is not the view of Mr. Stevenson's successor. In the midst of the usual perfunctory remarks of an incoming Vice-President, Mr. Hobart has one telling passage in which he plainly intimates that a change of the rules and of the conduct of the Senate is imperatively demanded, and that without it the "just expectations" of the people will not be met. If Mr. Hobart keeps this great truth steadily before the Senate and the country, he may escape both the "silver service" and the general contempt with which Mr. Stevenson leaves office.

Mr. Olney kept the Cuban business in his own hands (where it belonged) to the end, in defiance of the Senate. He leaves the cabinet with a reputation won in it such as is without a parallel since the war—unless Gen. Bristow furnish the parallel. The cabinet has been mainly a place to wreck great reputations rather than to create one. Secretary Olney's direct energy and steady striking at the point have sometimes played him tricks—once, in the Venezuela business, a most flagrant one—but on the whole have been most successfully applied. Especially in one particular has he struck out an original line, in a useful fashion. He has shown how a cabinet officer may defend himself against an intriguing Congress. Without a voice on the floor of Congress, Mr. Olney has shown that he could still get the ear of the people. Twice at least he has simply transfixed the Senate and left it writhing in helpless rage. Once was when he informed the country and the world that the stock-jobbing resolution of Don Cameron, recognizing Cuban belligerency, would be ignored by the Executive even if it was adopted by both houses of Congress. That let out what little brains there was in that business. Again, on Monday week, by simply giving to the press what he had before given to the Senate in confidence, he showed how needless, how wicked, was the agitation of the country and the depression of the stock markets by the Sanguilly clamor. He has thus twice made the Senate furious, but he has made it dumb—in itself a great public blessing. It is to be hoped that Mr. Olney has, in this particular, given the cabinet a hint of the way to do it, which its members in the future will not hesitate to follow when the occasion calls for it.

The Chamber of Commerce last month suggested informally to Mr. Cleveland that it would be glad, if agreeable to him, to give him a public dinner in recognition of his "valuable financial services." To this he replied, in a characteristic letter, that the suggestion afforded him "as complete satisfaction and comfort as any other demonstration of it could do," besides which he could not feel that what he had done or attempted to do for the general welfare deserved any "special manifestations of approval," since it was all within the scope of his duty. The refusal of a "banquet" by a public man on the ground that he has merely done his duty is a novel idea. What a trick the fat-witted Mugwump idol has of doing modest, manly things!

Hart, the Philadelphia filibuster, has been sentenced to two years' imprisonment and $500 fine. His offence was being concerned in the filibustering expedition of the steamer *Laurada* in August last, and of this he was convicted on February 23; Judge Butler, who sentenced him, considered the proof against him clear. Hart sent the *Laurada*, and controlled her movements; he gave an order to send surf-boats from Camden to her below Wilmington; he concealed his identity; he directed the movements of the Cubans concerned, and met them at Atlantic City; the only debatable question was whether he had previous knowledge of the military character of the expedition, and this the jury found against him. The Judge said in imposing sentence that he had had a full and fair trial; that the offence was a grave one, involving the honor and peace of the country; that he went into it with his eyes wide open to the consequences, and for the "unworthy purpose of personal gain"; that it was the duty of the court to punish him severely. This case, and that of the *Three Friends* in the Supreme Court, show that the time has come when the use of the territory of the United States to fit out ships and hire men to go off and murder and rob in foreign countries with which the United States is at peace, must be systematically rooted out. There is no trouble with the courts, and the substantial people of the country now support warmly every enforcement of the law.

The various States keep forty-five Legislatures at work pouring out laws of one kind and another. Does any one realize that they give us every year or two something like 10,000, or that they will in fifty years produce 500,000 laws? In this State alone last year there were a thousand. Most of them, of course, are not laws, in any proper sense of the word, but represent either jobs or interference with the business of corporations, cities, towns, and villages—business which the Legislature usually botches. Paving streets and building bridges and putting up big buildings, for instance, are some of the favorite forms of legislative activity everywhere, yet if sensible men were asked who should decide about building their bridges or paving their streets or erecting their city halls, the very last body in the State that they would call in would be the Legislature. A great deal of their work is of such a nature that it is difficult to tell whether it is not the result of insanity on the part of some one or more of its promoters. A bill has been introduced in the Kansas House, and it is said will probably pass, making violations of the Ten Commandments criminal offences, punishing "having any other God" with a fine of $1,000, and making theft, perjury, and covetousness punishable with fine or imprisonment, at the discretion of the court. This is attributed to "Populism," but think what a rabble must have got into a state-house when such a bill can be introduced and seriously discussed. On the same day the Kansas Senate was thrown into great excitement by two members who said that they had been offered $1,000 for their votes, and there was much feeling on the subject. Bribery is the only natural means of getting laws passed in such a body, and "the path will be trod."

Kansas City some years ago passed an ordinance compelling every one to vote, under a penalty of $2.50. The courts have declared the measure unconstitutional, and have been overruled by the *Harvard Law Review*, which says that the matter was disposed of by Mr. C. E. Shattuck in an article contributed by him to its pages (4 Harv. L R 365). The question whether it is unconstitutional or not is perhaps of less importance than the question whether it is foolish. The reason why the franchise has always been considered a privilege is because people have wanted to vote; and as long as they do want to vote there is no need of making it a penal offence to stay at home. On the other hand, there is in every election, even Presidential elections, a considerable proportion of voters who are compelled by illness, by business, or other causes which concern themselves primarily, to stay at home, or to be absent from home, in other States, or abroad. In a large city like New York there are many thousand such cases; in the whole country in a Presidential election there may be many hundred thousand. In other elections, too, there are sometimes many thousand voters who do not vote because one candidate does not represent their ideas, and the other candidate is unfit for office. In some cases neither candidate is fit for office.

Any law which should undertake to treat all these abstainers as criminals would certainly be very difficult of enforcement, and very barbarous in operation, if the penalty were severe. Hence, perhaps, the low Missouri figure of $2.50. We know a good many people, even in this meek and long-suffering community, who would "clear out" altogether if visited with any substantial punishment because they preferred to stay at home rather than vote for Sheehan on one side or a creature of Platt's on the other. If good nominations are made, there is no trouble about getting out the vote; and if nominations are bad, staying at home is often a useful protest. Whenever voting ceases to be of interest to the bulk of the community, it will be from despair of effecting anything, and driving us up to the polls to exercise a right we don't care to exercise would be a waste of time. On the other hand, let us implore legislators taking the matter up to remember that in many parts of the country $2.50 is still a small sum of money. In some States the danger of losing this sum might bring every man to the polls; but it is not so in all States. If the continuance of free institutions is to rest on compulsion, we should insist on a higher figure. It would give but a poor idea of us abroad if we came to be looked upon as a body of freemen caring so little for liberty and so much for money that we could be kept free only by the danger of losing $2.50.

The insidious nature of political corruption is well shown in the case of the member of the Montana Legislature who has just been expelled. He testified before the investigating committee that at different times in the session he had "found" in his room sums of money ranging as high as $200, and that he had been in the habit of using parts of such sums for or against certain pending bills. He saw nothing wrong in this. There may be nothing wrong, but there certainly is something strange, almost supernatural. Was it a mere chance coincidence, as seems to be suggested, that he should "find" the money just when it was needed? And how could he tell exactly what bills to use it for or against? If his account of the matter is the true one—and we read that he testified to the truth of it "in the most nonchalant manner possible"—we see corruption working with a silent and irresistible power like that of fate. To expel a man for not resisting this seems as unreasonable as to expel him for not resisting gravitation. But perhaps he was expelled for confessing that he used only "parts" of the money to bribe his investigators.

Some surprise is expressed by the legislators at Albany because so few of our citizens take the trouble to go up there to oppose the passage of the proposed new charter, but he must be a very dull legislator who does not know why this is the case. Why should anybody take the trouble to go to Albany on a perfectly useless errand? Why should time and energy be expended in making serious arguments before committees who will not pay the slightest heed to them, but will act in blind obedience to "orders" from an express office in lower Broadway? Everybody at all familiar with our present system of government in this State knows that the fate of the charter hangs entirely upon the will of Mr. Platt; that if he wishes it to become a law and go into effect at the next election, the Legislature will carry out his wishes. Argument or reason has nothing whatever to do with the question. If Mr. Platt thinks it will be "good politics" to pass the charter, it will be passed, otherwise not. He assumes full power over the subject in his public utterances, and declares that it is his wish that the charter shall pass. If that is his real intention, it is a waste of time for anybody to go to Albany to plead with his agents in the Legislature. The only effective use of influence is with him, so far as legislative action is concerned. This is undoubtedly the view of opponents of the charter, of whom there is no lack in this city. They have hopes, which are not without good foundation, that the political unwisdom of passing the charter this year will induce Platt to give "orders" for its defeat or postponement. The signs of the times are all in one direction, and point to a political reaction in the State this fall.

The action taken by the Century Club at its meeting on Saturday evening, excluding from its files and its club-house the *World* and the *Journal*, is another step towards the extirpation of a social pest. The movement has now become a popular one, and may be expected to extend far and wide. It ought to find imitators throughout the nation. There are other filthy publications in other cities that ought to be put under the ban equally with the two which have been excluded by the Century Club. It is possible for the decent people in the several communities to reform these journals and save their children from the moral blight which threatens them, by putting such a stigma upon them that the mass of unthinking people who now support them will drop them, and, when they do so, the reform will come. It is simply a question of dollars and cents with the publishers of these vile sheets. Whenever they find that dirt does not pay, they will stop publishing dirt. Clubs and public libraries can hasten this consummation if they will by making dirty newspapers unfashionable.

Japan's coming abandonment of the silver standard is an *et-tu-Brute* blow to our silverites of the free and independent kind and of the slavishly international sort. Japan, alluded to in a large way as "the Orient," has long been a tower of strength to them. Free silver coinage might have its risks, but how about the Oriental trade? We might ourselves manage to worry along on the gold standard, but could you hope that the Japanese ever would try it? Besides, there was that terrible par of exchange which we must contrive to keep from being dislocated, and doing something for silver was the only way to accomplish this. But this "Asian mystery" of bimetallism is now fast crumbling to dust. First India shut her mints to silver; then Russia, already a great Asiatic power, and destined to be greater, took herself out of the ruck of silver-using nations; now Japan leaves the sinking ship. Yet our humbug Congress chooses this moment to pass without dissent an insincere bill for an international silver conference.

The constitutional change which President Krüger is trying to introduce in the Transvaal is very like a proposition in this country to take away from the Supreme Court the right of passing on the constitutionality of laws enacted by Congress. In the Transvaal the High Court has been in the habit of setting aside laws of the Volksraad not in accordance with the fundamental law of the republic. Krüger wants this stopped, and has now had the Volksraad adopt a declaration that the judges of the High Court shall take an oath renouncing the right to apply a constitutional test to any laws passed. He says that this is necessary in order to overcome the machinations of Cecil Rhodes, and that the Judges must "abide by the voice of the Raad or go." This is good Populist doctrine, and the uproar in the Transvaal over its attempted application hints at the sort of thing it would lead to here.

Greece has replied to the ultimatum of the Powers, if there was an ultimatum, which Mr. Balfour denies. Her reply is a practical refusal, though couched in language of studied courtesy, to withdraw her troops from Crete, and a pretty effective argument against the plan of the Powers to set up an autonomy in Crete under Turkish suzerainty. The reply is adroit, and will doubtless lead to further negotiations before force is resorted to by the Powers. Indeed, the French Minister of Foreign Affairs distinctly stated on Monday that France would undertake no operations against Greece without the consent of the Chamber. The thoroughly artificial character of the present situation is well shown in the fact that upon Italy's admiral in Cretan waters devolves the initiative in proceedings agreed upon by the allied fleet, while the peninsula is, as our correspondent shows on another page, in a fever of popular sympathy with the insurgents.

THE NEW CONGRESS AND ITS TASK.

THE extra session will evidently not be the swift and simple thing that some swift and simple people have imagined. It is already complicated by the failure of four great appropriation bills. One of these, the General Deficiency bill, failed because the strife of the jobbers was so rancorous that they could not agree in time to pass it at all. The others—the Indian Appropriation bill, the Agricultural and the Sundry Civil bills—failed because they were so stuffed with jobs and stealings that Mr. Cleveland would not put his name to them. These bills must all be passed before June 30 in order that the Government service may be carried on. They will therefore have to be considered before the new tariff bill. But it is said that they will speedily be repassed just as they were, and this will take no time to speak of. This, however, is to overlook the nature of a bill like the Sundry Civil. Before it can be reported and passed, two-thirds of the members of the House have to have something "good" in it. It was so with the bill which Mr. Cleveland refused to sign. It was incubated for many months until the necessary two-thirds was secured to suspend the rules and pass the bill—appropriating the bagatelle of $50,000,000—without debate, which was done. But now the work will have to be undertaken afresh. The membership of the House is greatly changed, and the new two-thirds will have to be secured by new balancing of job against job. This will take time. And who knows but President McKinley may veto it when done, on the ground taken in his inaugural address that this is a time for the severest economy? In any case, we think those who are flattering themselves with the thought of a sixty-day or a ninety-day session are reckoning without their host.

As the time draws near for the new tariff bill to be completed and presented to Congress, the difficulties of its framers do not lessen. The case of cotton-ties is typical. American manufacturers are now supplying them at 20 per cent. less than the English price, duty-free. What is the use, then, of a duty on cotton-ties either for revenue or for protection? The only defence for such a duty, as, indeed, for duties all along the list of the iron and steel schedules, is that Americans should be given a chance to combine and put up prices under cover of protection. But, in that case, where will the needed revenue come in? Take the item of wool. During the past month more than 38,000,000 pounds of wool were sold in this country, as against 23,000,000 for the previous largest record for the corresponding period—in 1893. This is only one of many signs that the woollen mills are stocking up with free wool for a year or so in advance. It is, of course, only human nature and hard business sense that they should. This being the case, how is the restored duty on wool either to bring in revenue or to give the farmers higher prices for the first twelve months? It can do neither, to any appreciable degree; and the chief result of the new wool duties will be what the result of the McKinley duties in 1890 was, to throw the woollen manufacture into confusion and to enrage the embattled Ohio wool-growers afresh.

A telegram to the *Herald* says that the tariff committee at Washington intends to adopt measures, the nature of which is not indicated, to prevent persons from importing foreign goods in anticipation of increased duties. Whether the importers are to be sent to jail or whether their goods are to be confiscated after they arrive, is not known. That something hitherto undreamed of is in contemplation, is clearly intimated. This, and other semi-barbarous devices that have been talked of, point to the belief that the high-tariff fanatics think that, as they have silenced the Bryanites, they can do anything they please without criticism or opposition, and that they can do the McKinley Act of 1890 over again, or more, without meeting the unpleasant consequences that followed that Act. If any such opinion prevails, it is a very mistaken one. The elements that hurled the Republicans from power in 1892 are all in readiness to repeat that discipline. The strength of all the forces that united to elect Mr. McKinley will be needed to support his Administration. To pass any tariff bill through the Senate will require very prudent management. To hold a majority of the House to be elected in 1898 will require cool and conservative treatment of all the leading subjects of legislation. Anything like confiscation of private property, or cruel and unusual punishment of persons engaged in foreign trade, will wreck all the high hopes centred on the last campaign.

One of the dangerous schemes in contemplation is the enactment of discriminating duties in favor of American ships, providing that goods carried in foreign bottoms shall pay higher rates—an old relic of barbarism abandoned in our legislation some sixty years ago. This particular scheme is identified with the name of Sewall, who ran as the colleague of Bryan in the last campaign. Sewall was the President of the American Marine Association, which was formed for the purpose of reviving this old, exploded policy. He was nominated at Chicago evidently in the interest of that project, but without any suspicion of the real motives except in a very limited circle. Mr. Sewall was an unknown man. His nomination was a surprise to everybody. The explanation of Sewall came when his connection with the scheme for discriminating duties was revealed. The trouble produced in his own party then became so serious that he felt obliged to resign the presidency of the American Marine Association. Now it is proposed that the Republican party shall help him out by enacting these discriminating duties, the first consequence of which would be a series of similar retaliatory enactments against our ships by foreign countries, all resulting in added burdens on the taxpayers without benefit to the public treasury.

The restoration of the reciprocity features of the McKinley tariff is also going to be a bothersome matter. Senator Burrows has sorrowfully announced that it will not be possible to restore reciprocity. But this was before President McKinley had declared in his inaugural that it must be restored. Still, the question remains, how is it to be done? Free sugar was the corner-stone of reciprocity in 1890. No one supposes that sugar will be free in the new bill. Something might be done with Argentina and Australia if wool were left free, but it cannot be. Will the tax on hides be revived, to comfort the New England Republicans? Truly the way of the reciprocal tariff-maker is a hard one this year. About all that is left him is to fall in with the suggestion of Congressman Dolliver, and give the President power to levy duties at his own sweet will on the imports of all countries that do not treat our exports "right." Treaties and laws and common sense are against this, but reciprocity must be had, no matter how high it comes.

THE "THREE FRIENDS" CASE.

THE laws of this country provide (U. S. R. S., sec. 5283) that every person who, within the limits of the United States, "fits out and arms, or attempts to fit out and arm, or procures to be fitted out and armed, or knowingly is concerned in the furnishing, fitting out, or arming of any vessel," with the intent that she shall be employed in the service of "any foreign prince or state, or of any colony, district, or people, to cruise or commit hostilities against the subjects, citizens, or property of any foreign prince or state, or of any colony, district, or people with whom the United States are at peace," etc., shall be fined not more than $10,000 and imprisoned not more than three years. It is further provided that the vessel shall be forfeited, one-half to the use of the informer and one-half to that of the United States.

The *Three Friends* was libelled in the United States Court for the Southern District of Florida, as a Cuban filibuster, on the ground that she was fitted out and armed to be employed in the service of "a certain people," viz.: "certain people then engaged in armed resistance to the Government of the King of Spain in the island of Cuba, to cruise and commit hostilities against the subjects, citizens, and property of the King of Spain, with whom the United States are and were at that date at peace." Judge Locke, who tried the case, decided that this would not do, because there was no allegation that the vessel had been fitted out to be

employed in the service of any colony, district, or people recognized as such by the political power of the United States. The Supreme Court have now reversed this decision, and remanded the cause to the District Court, with instructions to resume custody of the vessel.

Had any other conclusion been reached the law, which has been in existence since 1818, would have been nullified, and the Cuban insurgents might have equipped *Alabamas* by the dozen in Florida, with the curious result that those fitting them out would in Florida have been engaged in a lawful enterprise, while the vessels, once at sea, would have been pirates. The decision of the Supreme Court has put a stop to this, and explodes the fallacy on which Judge Locke's decision rested. It all comes from a confusion between our obligations as a neutral between two belligerents and our obligation to prevent the use of our territory for acts of war against states with which we are at peace. Our duty to observe neutrality between Spain and Cuba could arise only out of a state of war between them, and this state of war is a fact the existence of which it belongs to the political department of the Government to determine. It cannot well be investigated by the courts, we may add, because they have no machinery for carrying on investigations into the political condition of foreign states, and no means to take proof upon such a question unless it is brought before them incidentally in an ordinary lawsuit, in which case a final decision that belligerency existed might not be reached till the war was over and done with. For these reasons, the fact of belligerency is determined by the other departments of government (and usually the Executive) which have the means of inquiry. Now no state of belligerency has yet been found to exist in Cuba; consequently there is no neutrality on our part, and the only state which we can possibly know in the matter is Spain.

But the fact that we know of no public war between Spain and Cuba does not absolve us from preventing our territory from being used by filibusters to attack Spanish authority in Cuba, and does not prevent a court from taking cognizance of the fact that a filibuster may be fitted out for use by the Cubans against Spain. In such a case the act is an act of private war, which it is our business to put down, like any other deliberate criminal attempt to disturb the peace. In other words, the recognition of belligerency and the obligations of neutrality in the ordinary sense have nothing to do with such cases. The courts are, however, judicially informed, through various executive proclamations, of an actual revolt against Spain in Cuba, and hence must take cognizance of any attempt like that of the *Three Friends* to violate the statute.

This case, and others decided by the Supreme Court, make the whole law on the subject of the relations between the United States and Cuba perfectly plain, and there is nothing abstruse or technical about it either, for it simply grows out of the facts, and applies convenient and indispensable rules the nature of which they determine. There are three different sets of rules, corresponding to three different sets of facts.

(1.) There is the case of a colony like Cuba throwing off the Spanish authority, driving the Spaniards out of the country, and establishing an army and navy and courts of justice, collecting taxes, and making herself in fact an independent state. Independence in fact would be recognized by us as a matter of law, we should send a minister to Cuba, receive one from Cuba, hold Cuba responsible for injury to American citizens in Cuba, etc. Until such a state of facts arises, we cannot recognize the independence of Cuba.

(2.) Short of this, the Cubans may set up a government in part of the island, with an army, navy, and courts, and with a government capable of dealing with other governments, and drive Spain out of that part of the island, and in this case we should have to recognize this part of the island as a belligerent state, and accept the position of a neutral, with our ships subject to the right of search; and if the belligerency collapsed, we should have no one to look to for injuries to American citizens in this part of the island, any more than foreign nations had for injuries to foreigners in the Confederate States when they were recognized as belligerents.

(3.) There may be a rebellion, insurrection, or revolt, as there is, and in this case we are not neutrals, but a nation at peace with Spain, and having Spain to look to for injuries to American citizens, and as fully at liberty to trade with Cuba as with any other country. In this case, all we have got to do is to see that the insurgents do not use our territory to make war, and this obligation is merely an obligation to keep the peace. The fact of this rebellion may be proved by executive proclamation, and the law must always be enforced. Such is the fact and such is the law. Congress will be confronted with both, even though McKinley be President and Sherman Secretary of State.

A GREAT MEASURE.

A BILL has been introduced in the Senate at Albany making it unlawful for any person "to advertise for sale or to sell any article at less than its cost price, or at a price so low as to injure the business of another merchant." It is said to be aimed at "bargain counters," and, for all we know, may be a joke of the introducer or some of his friends who wish to cast ridicule on the anti-combination legislation now so common. Or it may be a job or piece of blackmail. It is one of the misfortunes connected with our present system of government that there is no systematic classification of legislative proposals, such as would give a clear idea of the real nature of the proposition involved. Measures are still merely designated as House Bill No. 1, Senate Bill No. 2, and so on. What they ought to have printed on them is House Joke No. 1, Senate Job No. 2, House Strike No. 3, Senate Blind No. 4; this would make everything plain, and give notice to those interested in the measure what sort of arguments should be used pro and con. If this system of classification were introduced, under what head would this bill fall?

We do not know; but whether joke, or job, or strike, or blind, or mere folly, we wish it could be debated and discussed, because it really puts in a few words the principle underlying the great anti-Trust movement which is now carrying all before it. What is so repulsive about Trusts and department stores, and all similar combinations, is not that a number of people combine to secure an end (for this is, so far as it goes, a democratic thing to do), nor that the articles in which they deal become cheaper and cheaper (there is not a single one that is not much lower than it was ten years ago), but that they make it more difficult for the small individual dealer or producer to make a living than it would be if he could only prevent prices from falling. We are all individual dealers in or producers of something, and what galls us is that some one is always offering it at a price a little lower than our own. Newspapers, for example, are sold for one and two cents, and this interferes distinctly with the strictly constitutional business of selling one for three cents. Obviously there is hardship here, and the same hardship exists wherever anything is produced or sold. What we like about this bill is that it goes to the root of the matter, and declares that any one who sells anything anywhere so low that it injures the business of any one else, shall be punished. Of course, selling below cost is prohibited because it is really no better than giving away. It may be said that giving away is lawful, but ought it to be? Though we hardly believe the author of the bill knew the fact, gifts themselves might be made a penal offence but for a decision of the Court of Appeals rendered a few years ago.

The bill is of a general nature. There is nothing special or private about it (we hear so much nowadays of the evils of special legislation), and it corresponds strictly with Blackstone's description of what a law ought to be—a rule of action prescribed by the supreme power of the State, commanding what is right or prohibiting what is wrong. If there is anything that is wrong, it is interfering with another person's business. If there is anything which is clearly an interference, it is underselling him, whether on a "bargain counter" or anywhere else. The bill is also a highly democratic measure, because it enforces equality where it has never yet

succeeded in obtaining a foothold—in prices; and for the future makes it impossible that the price of an article in one shop should be any higher than in any other.

The great difficulty the enemies of Trusts have always encountered is that an anti-Trust law, though it looks well, is difficult of enforcement. There have been stringent anti-Trust laws on the statute-books at Washington and in the various States for years, but they are not enforced, and the only explanation offered by the newspapers is that all the attorney-generals are corrupt. Even when not corrupt, the court generally finds that the law interferes with some disgusting natural right to make contracts or earn a living or compete. That is, the very laws designed to make competition easy are set aside because they interfere with it! There would be just the same trouble about suppressing the department stores.

But this bill goes down to the very roots of social life. It is based on a rule as old as Bracton, "So use your own as not to injure another's," which applies not to Trusts, department stores, or corporations, but to the individuals who carry them on, who distribute their products, who sell their goods. It says nothing about combination or monopoly, but forbids any one to sell at a price so low that it will injure any one else. The person injured will at once put in an appearance wherever undersold, and simply insist on a restoration of former prices. If not, the right to sell at all will no doubt be at once taken away. Of course prices *would* be restored, for nobody would sacrifice his right to sell altogether merely to keep prices down. Thus prices would never change; and all this without any elaborate machinery or trouble about proof. Of course, objections may be urged against the bill—objections may be urged against any bill; but to our mind it is the most thorough of its kind that we have seen yet, and we have examined a good many.

ITALY AND CRETE.

ITALY, February 20, 1897.

CARDUCCI, invited by its President, Colonel Bedette, to join the Bolognese committee formed for the collection of adhesions to, and subscriptions for, the cause of Crete, answers:

"SIGNOR COLONELLO. I consent.

"Suddenly, to derange the carnival of cowardice whirling high and low in Europe, Greece, lance in hand, severe, serene, secure like her Goddess Pallas, has alighted in its midst. Glory be to her! The grand memories of Themistocles, Thrasybulus, Epaminondas, the great names of Canaris, Byron, Santa Rosa, seem to breathe afresh, stirring like an October wind the marshweeds of this cemetery of Western souls. And Italy? She sent no avengers of her fallen sons in Africa because, it was said, Italian arms must be reserved for quite other causes and enterprises in Europe. Now we are 'present' and expectant.

"GIOSUÈ CARDUCCI."

The poet goes, as ever, straight to the heart of things; points to the deed to follow on the word. However diverse may have been the opinions on Italy in Africa, there is but one on Italy's duty in the East. There she must uphold the principles that informed her own struggles for liberty and independence, affirm the rights of the Cretans to throw off the Moslem yoke and rejoin the mother country, Greece. The importance of the issue is so thoroughly realized that factions and parties are silent on all others. The African question, the bank trials, even the general elections and the unknown "platform" of the Government, excite but secondary interest. The first and third pages of the papers are devoted to news from Crete, the action of the Powers, the varying phases of Russian, Austrian, German opinion, to lists of committees formed in every city headed by Milan, Genoa, Naples, by Bologna, where 1,000 well-known names appear, among them those of the Syndic and all the noted professors of the University; Rovighi offering to go to Crete as volunteer surgeon. There is a quiet, practical spirit underlying the real enthusiasm for Crete that has been steadily growing since insurrection first broke out more than a year ago.

"Crete wants money and arms, not volunteers," say the old Garibaldian chiefs in Genoa, where Stefano Canzio unfurls the flag of the Thousand; in Milan, where Maiocchi, who left his right arm on the Volturno, presides. They know by experience that men are plentiful, money scarce, in revolutionary camps; besides, they have the situation well in view. Crete in arms wanted only what she has now attained—leaders from Greece, the certainty that the mother country would not abandon her. The twenty war-ships riding in the Cretan waters signify for her that Turkish troops will not be allowed to land; the blue-jackets who have landed in Candia and Canea, Retimo and Sitia, *i. e.*, in the chief cities of the island, where alone the Moslem populations are in a majority, will at least prevent them from baking any more Christians in the oven, while Colonel Vassos continues to organize the Christians, peasants, fishermen, and mountaineers who occupy 800 villages, and number 250,000 of the 280,000 total population. All is so like our own old times—the same tactics, the same strategy. Prince George does not pounce down and take possession of the island; it is the inhabitants who, at Retimo, etc., proclaim the downfall of the sovereignty of the Sultan, the union of Crete with Greece. No! Italy need send no fighting men; arms, money, even clothing will be welcome. But what Greece prizes most is the universal expression, by veterans, monarchical clubs, students' associations, of approval and adherence to her cause endorsed by such men as Sydney Sonnino and Cavallotti (what other cause could have, even for an instant, united these old friends turned foes?), Bovio and Carducci, Imbriani and Turati, Moderates and Republicans, Conservatives and Socialists—all Italy, in short, save holy Mother Church, which, from the earliest times, with the Christian Powers that obeyed her, was ever more hostile to the Greeks than to the Turk, and to-day prefers a "faithful" fanatic to an orthodox Greek, especially since his patriarchs have scouted union with Rome till she, the impure perverter of Christian principles and apostolic doctrines, return a penitent wanderer to the fold.

The *Opinione*, special organ of the Premier, while imploring the people of Italy not to attempt to force the hand of the Government or present Italy to the Powers as desirous of war in Europe, says of the ranking naval commander in the East that "Canevaro is worthy of his mission, and will hold aloft the Italian name and prestige in seas where the banner of St. Mark, respected and feared, floated for eight centuries." Hitherto Italy has had no sins of commission against Greece as have all the other Powers of Europe. For five and twenty years (1644-1669) Venice fought for Crete, and Crete for Venice, against the Turks, and in 1715, when the grand army of the Turks attacked Corinth. When the Morea returned, by the peace of Passarowitz (1718), to the Turk, Italy and Greece for half a century became mere geographical names in Europe. In the present century their revolutions have coincided (1821, 1831). Navarino and Adrianople secured to Greece the name of a nation. In 1844 the Bandieras failed just as Russia recalled her ambassador from Athens. 1848 and 1849 were years of noble efforts and disheartening failures for European nationalities. When France and England fought to save the Turk, Italian sentiment and the majority of the Piedmontese were violently opposed to any participation in the war. Mazzini in Italy and England denounced the shame and dishonor that must ensue. When England restored the Ionian Isles to Greece, the joy and gratitude of the Italians were warmly expressed. In 1866 numerous Garibaldians, after the exodus from the Tyrol, went to the assistance of the Cretans during their fiercest revolution, and applauded the joint resolution of the United States in 1868 when they affirmed, "in the name of Christianity, civilization, and humanity, the civilized world ought to bring pressure to bear on Turkey and thus terminate the struggle in Greece," sending their ships to receive the fugitives that were denied refuge on board the English and French vessels.

In 1876 Garibaldi wrote to Celso Cerretti, who commanded the legion of old Garibaldian volunteers in the Turco Serbian war:

"All that is generous in the world ought to contribute to the liberation of Christian slaves from the hideous despotism of the Mussulmans. Assist all the populations, from Crete to the Pruth, to break the accursed yoke. Go on, accept aid wheresoever it is offered until the Turk be thrust beyond the Bosphorus; then form a confederation of free states whose frontiers shall be the Save, the Danube, the Black, the Ægean, and Adriatic Seas."

After the Turco-Russian war in 1877-78, Italy saw in Russia only the champion of nationalities. Conservatives such as Bonghi protested against the sentimental pity shown for Turkey, asking why "hideous cruelties perpetrated by a bad, weak Power should be condoned when the same infamies committed in the hour of its strength had been so strongly censured?" At the Congress of Berlin, Italy's spirit was willing, but her flesh was weak. The Cretans had proclaimed the independence of their island and union with Greece for the fourth time, and sent a memorandum to the Congress, vehemently demanding support. Italy had pledged her word to support them. Lord Salisbury had affirmed that Thessaly, Macedonia, and Crete must be annexed. When he backed out, the Cairoli Ministry merely joined the French Government in demanding that the Porte should be requested to settle the frontiers with Greece "No foreign minister of the Conservative party would have played such a contemptible part," said their partisans. Well, Visconti-Venosta, the last of the old guard, is again at the helm, and now is the time for him to show his *nobiltà*.

The French ministry is in a cleft stick; Phil-Hellenes and Greek creditors are all in favor

of Greece. Germany is playing down to Austria, who, watching Salonica with greedy eyes, of all things dreads an uprising in Macedonia, which, says the folk-lore song, she will surely have when "lions have become lambs"; and surely covetousness blinds her policy, as any coercion of Greece or Crete will result in Greek troops and volunteers and the fugitive Cretans rushing over the borders and away. It is useless to propose "self-government" or autonomy for a people determined on national unity. This was proposed in Tuscany, advised to join with Central Italy and Modena. No, said Ricasoli, we have just renounced our old autonomy of centuries in the name of Italian unity. As for giving Crete a prince to be named by the Sultan, as in Samos, where the 42,000 inhabitants pay an annual tribute of $5,000 to the Porte, the idea is too absurd. What prince named by the Sultan could hold Crete in leash? Neither Prince George nor any member of the royal family of Greece would reign subject to the Sultan; what other prince in Europe would accept and be acceptable? Italy's experience in 1849, when princes were enthroned or restored by force, may save Europe from future errors. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

PRIORITY IN WELL-DOING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I find in the last issue of the *Nation* the statement that "the Newark free public library is the first, as far as the public knows, to take a stand against the degradation of the press by refusing longer to admit to its reading-room two of the worst offenders among the daily newspapers of the country." The directors of the South Norwalk free public library and reading-room took similar action several months ago in dropping the New York *World* from its list of periodicals for the current year. *

South Norwalk, Conn., March 4, 1897.

A GRIEVANCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the January issue of the *Cosmopolitan*, the photographs illustrating my article "German Students and their Absurd Duels" were reproduced without my consent.

These photographs I obtained from a German friend, with the understanding that they could not be reproduced, being genuine, and on the back of each was written "Verboten hervorzubringen." After finding out that they could be used for *sketches*, in August last I sent the article and photographs to the *Century Magazine*, enclosing a letter in which I said that certain designated photographs could be used only for sketches. The article was returned to me, with a courteous letter from the editors, to this effect, that, since they would not be allowed to reproduce the photographs, they did not want to consider it.

Later I sent it to the *Cosmopolitan*. I carefully explained in a letter that certain designated photographs could be used only for sketches. After waiting six weeks, I wrote a letter to the *Cosmopolitan*, asking them, if they did not wish my article, to please return it at once. Almost by return mail I received a letter saying they were considering it for early publication. A week later (November 23) they wrote again: "The *Cosmopolitan* would be pleased to accept your article if an honorarium of $— would be satisfactory." I replied I would accept the honorarium, and also again stated, "I think you understand those photographs with the statement written on the back, 'Forbidden to be reproduced,' can only be used for sketches." To this there was no reply, nor were any proof-sheets sent me for correction; but when the January number of the *Cosmopolitan* appeared, it contained my article and the reproduction of six of the forbidden photographs.

I wrote at once, asking for an explanation. They replied that they had seen no letter of mine, nor any request not to use the pictures, and, as they did not read German, did not know what might have been written on the back of the pictures. In reply, I asked how they knew I would accept that honorarium (which had been paid) if my second letter had not been read. As to their not reading German, for the benefit of the unenlightened I had written on the back of one of the photographs a translation of "Verboten hervorzubringen." I then asked, in justice to my German friend and myself, for a public explanation. The only satisfaction that I received from them was an intimation that it would be entirely satisfactory to them for me to publish my grievance elsewhere. As the February and March numbers have appeared without an explanation or apology, it seems necessary for me to adopt their suggestion, and I ask your space for this purpose.

Katharine Farrand Reighard.

March 2, 1897.

TOADYING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe in yesterday's *Nation* some inquiry as to the origin of the verb "to toady," this verb being equivalent to those other words which represent fawning or flattering for personal advantage. I had always been curious concerning the origin of this word. I could find it in no old English dictionary, and not even in Worcester, and, where I did find it, no attempt was made to account for it.

In the spring of 1853 (if I remember the date correctly) Dr. Daniel Wilson, then Professor of English Literature in Toronto University, went to meet his wife and children, just arrived from Edinburgh in New York. He left me, as his nearest friend, in charge of the house he had taken in Toronto, where I was then living. This house had not been occupied for several years, and the areas in front of the basement windows were solidly packed with sand. It was necessary to watch the Irish laborer who used the spade, and, at the risk of being laughed at by lexicographers, I will tell you what occurred.

When the spade had reached a depth of eighteen inches, its load dropped with a heavy thud, and the sand, parting, disclosed an enormous female toad. It was certainly six inches in length. We at first supposed it to be dead, but, as we disinterred it curiously, ten tiny little toads began to creep out from under her, and to slowly crawl over her back. The weather was still cold, but the thin skin of creatures no bigger than an English shilling soon yielded to the warmth of the hot sun. As soon as they regained a full activity, they began a process of extensive massage, working with their feet for more than half an hour before the thicker epidermis of the adult conveyed the vital warmth. The whole process, so long continued, was so suggestive of fawning or coaxing that I turned to Prof. Chapman, who stood near, and said, "Well, I shall never have occasion again to ask what *toadying* means." "No," he said; "we have here a practical illustration."

When the matter was mentioned to Dr. Watson he thought it very likely that the word had a rustic origin, as it was hardly possible that farmers should not have observed something of the sort. This will interest naturalists, if it only amuses lexicographers.

Caroline H. Dall.

Washington, D. C., March 5, 1897.

THE UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Since my letter of February 11 was forwarded to you, the biennial report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of California for 1895 and 1896 has appeared in print, and I hasten to supplement my recent communication with the following official announcements:

The report states that there were, at the close of last year, 98 State high schools in California—26 schools with one, 23 with two, 23 with three, and 26 with four or more teachers to each school. None of the first class are accredited; 10 of the second, 17 of the third, and all of the fourth class (26) are on the favored list. To these 53 State schools are to be added 14 private schools, and we have then the number of accredited schools (67) as given in the report. Of these schools 50 are accredited in ten and more studies, 24 in twelve and over, and 13 in fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen studies.

These statements will no doubt explain to your readers "the wonderful growth of the University of California and its *peculiar* [the italics are mine] system of accrediting" to which your Eureka correspondent so proudly refers in your issue of February 4 last. *Sapienti sat!* A Californian Teacher.

February 27, 1897.

Notes.

Capt. Mahan's 'Life of Nelson' is set down to appear next month from the press of Little, Brown & Co. It will be illustrated with nineteen portraits and plates in photogravure, and twenty-one maps and battle-plans.

A. S. Barnes & Co. have in preparation 'The Annals of Switzerland,' by Miss Julia M. Colton, and 'The History of the Waldenses,' by Mme. Sophia Bompiani.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. will shortly bring out an unpublished work by the late Capt. Sir Richard Burton, on 'Human Sacrifice among the Sephardim, or Eastern Jews, with a portrait of the author.

Ginn & Co. announce 'A Few Familiar Flowers,' by Margaret W. Morley.

Copeland & Day issue immediately 'The Husband of Poverty: A Drama of the Life of Francis of Assisi,' by Henry Neville Maugham.

A new volume of poems, 'Odes in Ohio,' by John James Piatt, is about to be published by Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will publish 'Beyond the City Gates,' a novel of early New York life, by Augusta Campbell Watson.

Patrick Geddes & Colleagues, Edinburgh, have in hand a new edition of Miss Fiona Macleod's 'Tales,' rearranged and extended,

in three volumes, designated respectively as Spiritual and Barbaric Tales, and Tragic Romances.

By way of celebrating its twenty-fifth anniversary the house of Ulrico Hoepli at Milan will bring out 'La Divina Commedia di Dante Alighieri, illustrata nei luoghi e nelle persone,' by Corrado Ricci, with thirty plates and 400 illustrations (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The collection of these pictures of persons, places, mountains, rivers, castles, statues, tombs, etc., was begun some eighteen years ago, and is largely original and photographic, even to the taking of these views "nel punto rispondente al concetto dantesco." The examples given in the prospectus show that this is no whimsical undertaking, and that the book will be a treasure to the lover of Dante.

Together with the customary 'Annual Catalogues' of American and English publications for 1896 bound in one volume—the American containing both subject and author-indexes—we have from the same office, of the *Publishers' Weekly*, the correspondingly useful 'Annual Literary Index' of 1896, edited by Messrs. Fletcher and Bowker. It embraces, we may remind our readers, both periodicals (American and English) and collective works like volumes of essays, whose contents are thus made immediately available. It takes account, also, of bibliographies and necrology, and chronicles leading events. Not the least noteworthy feature is the author-index, which shows the select activity, at least, of the various writers whose articles and essays have been already alphabetized, and their respective mediums of publication.

A worthy compeer of *Minerva* (which in the nature of things can take but imperfect cognizance of our academic system and personnel) is Mr. Edwin Emerson, jr.'s, *College Year-Book and Athletic Record* for the academic year 1896-97 (New York: Stone & Kimball) To *Minerva* Mr. Emerson properly returns his thanks for the main scheme, and proceeds to give an alphabetical catalogue and description of all American (*i. e.*, United States) universities, colleges, and schools of learning qualified to confer collegiate degrees. He supplements this information with miscellany regarding degrees, college fraternities, colors, yells, publications, politics, together with university extension and statistics of education and illiteracy. An athletic record follows; and an index of all the professors, instructors, and college officers closes the laborious compilation. The typography is most tasteful, the presentation logical and compact. We have seldom seen the initial number of any enterprise more indicative of settled purpose or more prophetic of permanence so far as merit can command it. Doubtless errors could be found by scrutiny, and we have casually encountered them—the mass of names, facts, and figures is too great to permit of perfect accuracy; but the second issue may be expected to be freer from errors than the first, after an exchange of proofs. The index fills 30 pages in triple columns. Many interesting comparisons may be directly made by means of the line of figures as to income, students, instructors, buildings, and books which regularly succeeds the title of the college. Thus, Smith College (for women), founded in 1875, has $17,000 more income than the neighboring Amherst, founded in 1821, and nearly twice as many students and instructors; less than half as many buildings and books.

The third volume of Boston "Old South Leaflets" is freighted with twenty-five more significant documents relating to our history; Sir John Eliot, Pym, Cromwell, Milton, and Sir Harry Vane being side by side with 'New England's First Fruits,' extracts from Cotton Mather's 'Magnalia,' Gov. Hutchinson's account of the Boston tea party, Hamilton's Report on the Coinage, The Monroe Doctrine, etc. Even Columbus's Memorial to Ferdinand and Isabella on his second voyage, and the Dutch Declaration of Independence in 1581, occur here. This inexpensive library of reference having a growing importance, we think it desirable that each volume should contain a complete index to the contents of the series.

The Cambridge Edition of Lowell's Complete Poetical Works (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a welcome adjunct to the Browning and Holmes, the Longfellow and Whittier, of the same series, and has been edited in the same praiseworthy manner, and with exceptional interest, since Lowell's prose-remains afford such full and varied material for the annotator. This single volume, whose price brings it within everybody's reach, contains the posthumous last poems which were edited by Prof. Norton. It concludes with a chronological list of the poems and with indexes of first lines and of titles. The embellishments are a photogravure portrait of the later Lowell and a vignette of Elmwood.

The new two-volume edition of the 'Poems of Henry Vaughan, Silurist,' which is the latest issue in the excellent "Muses' Library" (London: Lawrence & Bullen; New York: Scribners), may be described, in old-fashioned phrase, as "by several hands." The text has been cared for by Mr. E. K. Chambers and Mr. Gordon Goodwin, both favorably known in connection with this series. Mr. H. C. Beeching contributes an introductory essay, brief and judicious. To supplement this, Mr. Chambers furnishes a forty-page "Biographical Note," full of minute and curious information. To the same indefatigable pen we are indebted for the bibliography and the notes. The latter are brief, and give particular attention to the parallels between Vaughan and George Herbert, for some of which the editor is indebted to an essay by our accomplished compatriot Miss Louise Imogen Guiney. Section *d* of the "Biographical Note" is devoted to that strange personage Thomas Vaughan, the poet's brother, who leads Mr. Chambers far afield—as far, indeed, as the whole question of modern French Satanism and the vagaries of "Miss Diana Vaughan." Those of our readers who meet these curious matters for the first time will be diverted; others, who have read the *Procès des Templiers*, will doubtless agree with Mr. Chambers in suspecting that he has taken Miss Diana too seriously. However this may be, it is probably well to have these things on record in a place accessible to literary students.

Prof. Grant, of Yorkshire College, Leeds, has performed a service in editing Canon Rawlinson's translation of Herodotus in two handy and comely volumes (Scribners). He has turned the Roman names of deities back into Grecian, but has otherwise left the text substantially unimpaired; has omitted the appendixes altogether, and has abridged the notes on a sane principle involving no real loss. Some new maps in the letterpress, of Marathon, Thermopylæ, Platæa, and Salamis, explain those battles. The brown cloth bindings are simple and effective.

Something less than a year ago our French correspondent reviewed at length in these columns the Memoirs of Marshal Oudinot, and the work now appears Englished by Alexander Teixeira de Mattos in one volume (D. Appleton & Co.). The version, if not strictly idiomatic, is fluent, the print is large, and there is a good index. There are photogravure portraits of the Duke and Duchess of Reggio.

The two volumes of 'Occasional Papers' of the late Dean Church, which his daughter has collected and the Macmillans publish, consist almost entirely of reviews of books contributed to the *Guardian*, the *Saturday Review*, and the London *Times*. Miss Church has saved little of a merely ephemeral interest—though some of the ecclesiastical questions discussed seem now dead enough—and it is not only the Dean's friends who will find much to interest them in these gleanings from his casual work. Those familiar with his writings will expect to find here the knowledge, the judicial temper, yet the incisive force which mark Dean Church's style, nor will they be disappointed. In addition they will find some interesting bits of personal portraiture. The characterization of Mark Pattison, for example, is powerful, and impresses one as somehow striking nearer to the centre than do Mr. Tollemache's more leisurely notes on the Rector of Lincoln.

Mrs. Bernard Bosanquet's 'Rich and Poor' (Macmillan & Co.) is intended for English readers; but it is so full of wisdom that we can most earnestly commend it to the charitably disposed of this country. One of its merits is that it is written, as Mrs. Bosanquet says, in such a way as to avoid economic controversy, although by no means so as to suppress the "economic conviction" that character "is one amongst other economic causes, and as such cannot fail to have an economic effect. In other words, I maintain that if you can make man or woman more honest, sober, and efficient than before, he will not only be more likely to find an opportunity of rendering services to the community (*i. e.*, to find work), but will also, by his higher range of wants, increase the opportunities of other people (*i. e.*, increase the amount of remunerative employment)." This passage indicates the spirit of the book, and we shall only add that in her sobriety of judgment, intelligent recognition of the lessons of experience, and due estimate of what is both desirable and practicable in attempts to uplift those who are cast down, Mrs. Bosanquet has set an admirable example.

The astonishing differentiation which characterizes modern science is illustrated by Prof. W. Biedermann's (of Jena) 'Electro-Physiology,' translated by Frances A. Welby and published by Macmillan in an octavo of more than 520 pages. This is devoted to the theory of the electrical excitation and to the electro-motive reactions of excitable tissues. Nine-tenths of it is taken up with the structure, the change of form under activity, the excitation and the electro-motive action of muscle, and the other tenth with the electro-motive action of epithelial and gland cells. We can only present it to advanced students as the latest exposition of this segment of physiology, without further comment than that the style is not as simple as one might hope for in English, and that the book will probably remain the standard authority, despite, or perhaps because of, its technicality, for a long time to come.

Dr. S. E. Reynolds's 'Hygiene for Beginners' (Macmillan), which is fairly described by its title, includes an outline of anatomy and physiology, and its statements may be accepted.

Although specially written for the climate and conditions of England, the higher-grade common schools of this country may conveniently use it. The moderate diffuseness of style may not be a disadvantage to pupils who do not care to have their facts packed too closely.

Serious-minded cyclists will find in 'Bicycles and Tricycles,' by Archibald Sharp (Longmans), a sober and intelligent source of instruction in the mechanics of cycle construction and behavior. The book is illustrated with numerous and excellent cuts. The 530 pages are divided into three parts: Part i. is a formal presentation of elementary mechanics, with examples taken from the wheel; Part ii. contains an account of the historical development of the various types of cycles and a discussion of the problems of stability, steering, resistance, etc.; while Part iii. (256 pages) deals with the numerous details of construction.

John Lane (The Bodley Head) announces that, beginning with the present month, the London *Studio* will appear simultaneously with the English edition from the above office in New York, differing in contents only in a special American supplement conducted by Ernest Knaufft.

A remark of Washington Irving apropos of Cooper combines truth and brevity in such a degree as to entitle it to a place in all collections of epigrams on the literary profession. Mr. M. A. D. Howe thus quotes it in the March *Bookman:* "In Irving's diary, a few weeks before his death, he wrote of Cooper, 'In life they judge a writer by his last production; after death by what he has done best.'" Mr. Howe ought to have been either more or less particular in his citation; he should have omitted the quotation-marks or else given the remark as Irving wrote it, which was not in his diary, shortly before his death (that is, in 1859), but soon after Cooper's death, in a letter dated October 6, 1851, addressed to the editor of the *Knickerbocker Magazine*. Here it is as published in November of that year: "When an author is living, he is apt to be judged by his last works, and some of those written by Cooper in recent years have been somewhat cavilled at. When an author is dead, he is judged by his best works, and those of Cooper excited enthusiasm at home and applause throughout the world."

The Chicago monthly illustrated magazine, the *International*, begins in the March number a new feature called an "international register" of first-class passengers leaving American for foreign ports, together with a list of vessels and their sailing dates. The names are classified by State and town, with references to the respective vessels embarked on. It is intended to cover the Pacific Coast exodus in time. Such a record, permanently kept up, may come to have an historic utility.

The most noteworthy article in the last *Bulletin* of the Société de Géographie is M. Cuny's account of the Congo Français, its native races and their distinctive customs, the quality of the soil and its productions, and the commercial value of the country. A sketch map shows the distribution of the tribes and the various articles of commerce. In M. Douliot's journal of his travels on the west coast of Madagascar is an interesting passage describing a region in which, he says, "one may go for two days and not see an inch of uncultivated ground nor a free man." The plantations of rice, maize, sorghum, and bananas were tilled by slaves, people of a different race from the ruling classes, the Sakalava. He adds, however, that "the benefactors of humanity need not seek to abolish slavery here, which is disappearing of itself; the masters are dying and the slaves are conquering the land by their labor." There is also a strong appeal for the construction of a railway from Saigon to Bassac on the Mekong, which, it is argued, would make Saigon the principal commercial port of the far East.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for January opens with an account of the twenty-nine principal volcanoes of Salvador and southern Guatemala. This is followed by Dr. Hassentein's notes on the expedition of Dr. Donaldson Smith in Somaliland and Gallaland, in connection with a new map of this region compiled from the most recent sources. Dr. Hassentein characterizes the results of the expedition as "incontestably among the most significant in modern African discovery." A review of the history of Polar exploration is accompanied by a beautiful map showing the boundary of the unknown region around both poles, together with insets showing the progress of exploration during the present century.

At a banquet recently given by the American students in Paris, and presided over by Mr. Eustis, the United States Minister, M. Lavisse paid this compliment to the teaching of the classics in this country: "The instruction of antiquity is so well provided for in your country that the day will perhaps come when European students, wishing to find all the means for the study of Greece and Rome united, will cross the Atlantic"—a prophetic vision, hyperbolic, no doubt, yet seeming less extravagant if the strongly organized classical instruction in our higher institutions be considered by the side of the steady encroachments of modern studies upon the monopolizing power of the classics in the institutions of Continental Europe. The levelling process now at work may ere long reduce M. Lavisse's fancy to a possible reality.

An *enquête* among the medical organizations in Bavaria, like the one made heretofore in Prussia, goes to show that the majority of German physicians still cling to the existing order of things so far as concerns the preparation of medical students. On the other hand, Prof. Dr. Kewitsch of Freiburg pleads earnestly for the admission of graduates of the real-gymnasia to medical studies, on the ground of the more suitable preparation furnished by these schools, and of the undesirable and costly prolongation of the university course, at present nine semesters, with the near prospect of an additional semester—made necessary by the inadequacy of gymnasial education.

—There are several readable articles in the *Century* this month. Gen. Horace Porter does not make his "Campaigning with Grant" more than barely readable, partly because he does not seem to have very much that is new to tell us. His papers are interesting chiefly as a picture of Grant, and Gen. Porter evidently belongs to the school of historians who object to hero-worship. Some people use the adjective "common" as a term of eulogy, as implying an unexclusiveness, a readiness to mingle and fraternize with the common herd, and Gen. Porter would apparently like to have Gen. Grant painted as a "common" man in this sense. There is danger, however, in the attempt, for it was not this quality which made him a great man. Mr. C. C. Buel's "Our Fellow-Citizen of the White House" is valuable as giving an account of the routine of the President's life at Washington. It throws a lurid light on the cares of office. It seems that the President receives in the busy season upwards of a thousand letters a day, and in the dullest times two hundred. Appeals for charity often mount up to twenty thousand dollars a day. A cognate article is Mr. J. B. Bishop's historical summary of "Inauguration Scenes and Incidents." Among other illustrated articles are W. A. Coffin's on the Decorations in the New Congressional Library, and A. R. Spofford's on the Library itself. Capt. Mahan's "Nelson at Trafalgar" completes his Nelson series. We notice that in the text the celebrated signal is given, as usual, "England expects every man to do his duty." The facsimile signal at p. 741 makes it "*will* do" instead of "to do," and gives the flags supposed to represent it.

—In *Harper's*, among the illustrated articles are Mr. C. F. Lummis's continuation of his "Awakening of a Nation," Mr. J. W. Collins's "Decadence of the New England Deep-Sea Fisheries," and Poultney Bigelow's Part V. of "White Man's Africa." Captain Mahan writes about "Preparedness for Naval War"; and though he does not exactly say so, everything that he does say goes to show that the United States never can be prepared for war in the sense that any other great Power now is prepared. To be prepared for war in the sense of the old maxim—if you wish peace prepare for war—means, either to be armed to the teeth on land and sea, or else, in the case of a Power like England, to have a navy equal to the navy of any two Powers that may attack you. Capt. Mahan insists that the United States is "insular," but he does not insist that we must imitate England; and the fact is, to say that we are "insular" is not true. Having Mexico on the south and Canada on the north does not make an island. The great fact about the United States is that no foreign Power would, in the ordinary course of events, ever care to attack it, and therefore if it were to prepare for war, it could only be a war of aggression, which would be entirely opposed to our own interests. That we ought to have a small but good navy may be true, but has anybody ever objected to it? But we shall never prepare for war in order to secure peace, because we know perfectly well that nobody wants to attack us. That is the reason why the politicians bully and threaten and roar so at Washington.

—Mr. Richard Harding Davis contributes to *Scribner's* an entertaining article on the *Banderium* of Hungary—the millennial celebration of the founding of the Hungarian kingdom held last year in Pesth. For any one who cares for pageantry it must have been a fine show; there is less unreality about pageantry the further east one goes in Europe. An Hungarian magnate, as he appears in Paris or at Monte Carlo, may be a quiet, commonplace "cit." In Hungary, attired in his official costume, resplendent with purple and velvet and jewels, and mounted on a barbed steed, he takes the beholder back several centuries. He is a magnate, and probably a great land-owner to boot, with a dependent peasantry, and herds of horses and cattle and buffaloes, and a resident priest to take care of the peasants' souls, and all the paraphernalia of an antique society. Mr. Davis is clearly Hun in his sympathies, for he asks, "What excuse have the Austrian royalties ever offered for their right to exist?" and suggests that the next King of Hungary

may not be an Austrian. This seems rather harsh on Franz Joseph, who is an estimable man; would it not have been fairer to let him see a proof of the article, and to have given him a chance to abdicate quietly before printing his doom? Lewis Morris Iddings's "Art of Travel," a first paper, contains a good many useful hints.

—John Fiske's article on the Arbitration Treaty is the most noticeable paper in the *Atlantic*. He remarks upon the fact that, in the nature of things, it is not at all impossible that, in time to come, sentiment may play a powerful part in favor of peace, as it has in the past in favor of war, between England and America. He points out that, in the days of Alexander Hamilton, there was very little love for the Federal Union in any part of this country; the Federalists, by creating the Union, and binding to its support a group of important interests, called into existence a sentiment which, two generations later, became an ardent love of country, and made the disruption of the Union out of the question. Mr. Fiske calls this a group of "selfish" interests, but we should rather call them social. There is nothing especially selfish in the desire to be more united, to establisb justice, to ensure tranquillity, to promote the general welfare, to secure the blessings of liberty to the community, or even in the desire for common self defence. People grow attached to arrangements which promote these objects, and so in the end come to love the mere name, like that of the Union, which symbolizes them, and are willing to die for it. Patriotism, as a sentiment, grows chiefly in this way; and, on the other hand, a government which steadily failed to promote these objects would end by producing not patriotism, but dislike of the symbol. Thus, some people dislike the name of New York, because it represents to them failure to promote social interests, and predatory and anti-social barbarism. Mr. T. W. Higginson's "Cheerful Yesterdays" are always worth reading, and the number contains a curious article on "Legislative Shortcomings" by Mr. Francis C. Lowell, who has had a legislative experience of two years in the Massachusetts House. Mr. Lowell does not see that, in defending his legislators against the common charge that they are not generally "men of good standing in their several communities," he throws a light upon their real character which shows them to be unfit for the work they are sent to do. The first object of the individual member, he candidly says, is to secure the passage or defeat of a local measure. Everything else is secondary. *Cadit quæstio.* An assembly made up in this way is composed of men who have not the first qualification for legislating. This is, that local interests shall be in their minds secondary to general interests. The Massachusetts Legislature may be the best there is left; but it consists of very poor stuff, *teste* Mr. Lowell.

—We have received the first two volumes (A to AUE) of an elaborate "Library of the World's Best Literature," to be completed in forty-five volumes (New York: The International Society). The editor-in-chief is Mr. Charles Dudley Warner. He has three "associate editors," and is assisted by a "council" of eleven well-known American scholars and men of letters. The plan of this new enterprise is interesting and should be practicable. The intention is to give rather copious extracts from a very wide range of authors, with biographical and critical introductions. The literature of all nations is to be represented, but everything is to be in English. The arrangement is alphabetical. The authors excerpted are very various indeed: Aeschines, Agassiz, Alfred the Great, Miss Alcott, St. Thomas Aquinas, Almquist, W. H. Ainsworth —these names will illustrate the inclusiveness of the project. Mr. Warner's purpose, as he himself tells us in his preface, is not to confine the extracts to authors severely classical, but to furnish a great mass of miscellaneous reading, all of it worth while from some point of view, and to make the collection as attractive as possible. The introductory notes are of all sorts: some are written by eminent specialists, others have the air of being put together "in the office"; almost all, however, seem well enough suited—and some are remarkably well suited—to the purpose of the book. In addition to these extracts from particular authors, the "Library" will contain, in due order, various articles of a more general character. Such are, in the volumes before us, Prof. Toy's "Babylonian and Assyrian Literature," Dr. Gottheil's "Arabic Literature," Mr. Richard Jones's "Arthurian Legends" (not very well done), and others, all of which give not only discussion, but specimens. As this interesting enterprise goes on, we shall of course acquaint our readers with its progress. If it is editorially as well cared for as we hope, it will tend, distinctly, to the encouragement of reading and the cultivation of a taste for good literature among our people.

—At the February meeting of the Oxford Society of Historical Theology, Mr. Louis Dyer read a paper on "Primitive Animism and the Homeric View of Nature." Messrs. Lang's and Robertson Smith's analyses of the animistic stage of religious consciousness were criticised as involving an initial line, drawn before experience, between man and things, and as making the dawning of religious thought a process of obfuscation. The animistic fancies of primitive man came to him, we know not how, possibly along with his experience in dreams as a crude intuition based upon a felt analogy—felt but not understood. Instead of reasoning out the analogy, the savage may have objectified it, *i. e.*, proved it by taking it for granted. Primitive man had no defined or workable notion of himself as a unit apart from his tribe, sept, or clan. The dawning conception of individualized personality connected itself rather with intimations of that higher power which gave sanction to the peremptory rules of taboo. Homer was far away from crude totemistic conceptions and taboo. There might be, however, some survival of the primitive confusion of mind, and failure to individualize, in the composite nature of the Olympian god. In Homer's day the love, the caution, the wonder, and the fear with which primitive man viewed animals, trees, stones, and all nature, had centred upon clearly individualized gods, detached more or less from the kingdoms of nature, but bearing a birth-mark of primitive thought, impersonating among other things the failure of primitive man to draw a clear line of distinction between himself and the rest of nature. Certainly we should hesitate before accepting as exhaustive the commonly accepted and purely anthropomorphic explanation of the Olympians, if it becomes plain that the idea of the individual man as a unit disentangled itself (so far as Homer can show) chiefly in the heroic nature—in connection, that is, with the growing intensity and clearness with which personality revealed itself in the gods. Under their impulse, since all the kingdoms of nature—man, the elements, and the beasts—met in their composite personality, the line of demarcation between a hero and his surroundings grew indistinct at critical moments. This appears chiefly in the similes of the Homeric poems, whose magical effect depends upon the details scrupulously, religiously added, although not relevant in the eyes of common sense or for the purposes of mere illustration—details which betray the poet's intent and devout absorption in the real life of the living animal, the growing plant, or the towering rock summoned by him to act in his story, and there for the space of a moment flashed in to take the place of Menelaus's softening heart, of the unbending will of Achilles, of the stubborn valor of Ajax, or of the untamed savagery of Polyphemus.

—Prof. Dr. Seiling of the Polytechnic Institute in Helsingfors has just published some interesting statistics concerning the higher education and public position of women in Finland. In 1884 a "Frauenverein" was founded for the elevation and improvement of the condition of women, and in 1891 a second society, called the "Union," to which men were also admitted, was established for the promotion of the same object. For more than a quarter of a century the gymnasia have been attended by both sexes, and the first woman completed the prescribed course of study and passed her examination (the so-called absolutorium) in 1870; at present from forty to sixty girls pass the same ordeal every year. These gymnasia are the best educational institutions in Finland, and have a much larger number of female pupils than the ordinary high schools for girls, although the tuition fees in the former are twice or three times as great as in the latter. The University of Helsingfors has now over two hundred women attending the different courses of lectures as matriculated students. In 1882 the degree of M.A. was conferred for the first time upon a woman; and another woman has been for several years one of the leading physicians of Helsingfors. The women of Finland are not conspicuous for literary talent: the number of authoresses is relatively small, being about thirty. On the other hand, the number of artists is remarkably large. Fully 40 per cent. of the persons represented in the art exhibition held at Helsingfors in the spring of 1896 were women who devote themselves with zeal and success not only to painting, sculpture, and music, but also to architecture.

—The 'Handbuch des Finnländischen Frauenvereins,' recently issued, contains biographical sketches of more than six hundred women who have distinguished themselves or are still prominent in public life. They enjoy the elective franchise in local or communal affairs, and are eligible to office as members of school boards and as councillors and directors in the administration of almshouses and other charitable institutions. About one thousand women are now employed in post offices, railroad and telegraph bureaux, and other departments of the public service; more than nine hundred are engaged as teachers in schools of various grades, and it is not uncommon to see among their pupils young men of eighteen who are preparing for an academical or commercial career. Three thousand at least are in banks or in trade, and more than one-third of these are either owners or independent managers of the business. Of the eighty poorhouses in Finland, fifty-two have female

superintendents; many landed estates and all dairies are directed by women, who, in a few cases, have also founded and carried on important manufactories.

THE ENGLISH DIALECT DICTIONARY.

The English Dialect Dictionary. Edited by Joseph Wright, M.A., Ph.D., Deputy Professor of Comparative Philology in the University of Oxford. London: Henry Frowde; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons. Part I. [July, 1896], *A* to *Ballot;* Part II. [December, 1896], *Ballow-Blare.*

THE scheme and typographical appearance of this invaluable work were briefly set forth in these columns on receipt of the first part. Now that the second part is in hand, we have a goodly portion of the whole Dictionary, and may form a judgment of the manner in which it has been, so far, executed. It may be said at once that Professor Wright is a signally competent editor, and that his work is of enduring excellence.

This Dialect Dictionary deals, of course, with dialect words and uses; but let no one infer that it deals only with words and uses unfamiliar to the literary and colloquial speech. Indeed, its greatest value, to all outside of the small circle of special students of dialect, lies in its abundant and interesting additions to the accessible history of well-known words of the common literary language. Nearly all the words of the old stock of the literary language appear in these pages, with the old senses set forth more fully, or with new examples, in connection with provincial uses. Thus, *acold*, *acorn*, *acquaint*, *acquaintance*, *acquainted*, *acrazed*, *acre*, *across*, *act*, with other well-known words, interspersed with a few unfamiliar terms exclusively provincial, occur within the compass of two pages. So *batch*, in various applications, *bay*, to bark, *beetle*, a mallet, and such words, are fully treated. *Beetle* has a column and a half. The atmosphere is dialectal, but it is also literary. The longest article in these two parts is that on the immortal verb *be*—called in Noachian days "the verb *to be*." The article is nine and a half columns long, but of its kind it is appallingly good. Its kind is tabular. It is a muster of forms. The procession of thought is not conspicuous, but the absence of this feature will not seem to the reader of "dialect stories" an unfamiliar deprivation. The aim is different. For example, any one who wishes to know how the verb *be*, with its supplements *am* (*art*, *is*, *are*) and *was* (*were*), has flowered out along the hedges of rural speech, may find here gathered a nosegay of all the varieties.

The vocabulary is widely inclusive, both of words and of forms. Variant forms having the status of independent words are freely entered; but here a defect must be noticed. Such variants of independent status as *alablaster* for *alabaster*, *ax* for *ask*, *ache* ("written also *aitch*" and pronounced ētsh), the older word for *ake*, which has recently usurped the spelling of *ache*—these are separately entered; but the two dialectal variants of *acorn*, namely *atchern* (*atchorn*, *achurn*, *aitchorn*, *hatch-horn*, etc.) and *aker* (*acker*), are drowned in a lake of quotations under *acorn*. Surely *atchern* should be separated from *acorn*, as *church* is separated from *kirk*, and as *ache* (ētsh) ought to be separated from *ake*. The editor puts under the one form *against* the distinct and older but still existent form *agains* (*agens*, *agins*). Under *among* he mentions the Scotch forms *imangs*, *imangis;* these should go under *amongs*, which is, however, not entered; and *amongs*, if deprived of its own place, should, in the conventional arrangement which the editor follows, go under *amongst*, not under *among*. So *backward* and *backwards*, which the editor properly separates; and so should be entered *beside* and *besides*, which the editor compendiously enters under one head, "*beside(s.*" No doubt these peccadilloes were due to the instigation of the great demon "Space." The reason for the separation of separate forms is clear when stated. The etymology is different. The forms and dates are always different; the uses are very often different; the proofs are different. It is incumbent upon all makers of English dictionaries, and especially of English dialect dictionaries, to rescue these submerged and huddled words, and to give them each its own place (is it not a little one?) and label.

The system of phonetic notation to show pronunciation is clear and good. The editor comes to the conclusion, "after making many experiments," that "an elaborate transcription is useless to people who have not had a practical training in phonetics," and adopts, as all scholars must who have studied the problem and made the experiments, the historical English notation—that is, the system which retains the old English, the so-called "Continental" or "Roman," values of the vowels. This is the system formally recommended by the American Philological Association in 1876, under the leadership of Profs. March and Whitney. It has been introduced by Prof. March into the latest American dictionary, is used, with considerable elaboration, in the Oxford English Dictionary, has been adopted by the American Dialect Society, and is everywhere employed, with unimportant variations, by philologists who have occasion to deal with spoken English. It may now be regarded as established. It is not likely that any scholar will ever again put forth an English dictionary in which the old Webster-Worcester-Ogilvie-Stormonth notation shall be used.

The most original part of a good dictionary is its quotations. In this dictionary the quotations are very numerous. The arrangement of them is not by date (the order of date would be of slight importance when most of the quotations are of the present century), but by "dialect"; and the dialects are determined, not by any phonetic or philologic principle or individual classification, but by the severe simplicity of place. The dialect spoken at the top of the map is placed first, that spoken an inch below next, and so across and down. This is the true "classification" by which to find what you want. The order is illuminating. Geography is no mean classifier. Order may be heaven's first law, but earth's first law is geography—seas, continents, islands, mountains, lakes, rivers, plains. Everything happens in these, or in the circumambient air. By the addition of small superior figures, ^{1}, ^{2}, ^{3}, ^{4}, etc., the abbreviations that express locality and dialect are made to serve as references to the best glossaries of the respective dialects, as given in a "select bibliographical list." This is another sacrifice to the demon "Space," but it works well enough. There are many places, however, where careful attention is required to determine to what quotation a given reference belongs. This trouble could be avoided by a vertical line or a dash between the otherwise unseparated items.

The quotations are often from the only edition of the work cited. When there are several editions no attempt seems to be made to cite the earliest. Thus, there are quotations from "Ash, 1795" (under *barse*, *bash*, *basil*, *bawbee*, etc.). Why not quote the first edition, 1775, where the same entries, some of them fuller than those quoted, appear? There are quotations (under *base*, etc.) from "Grose, 1790," which appear in the first edition, 1787. Under *barnacle* and *beast* there are references to "Robertson, *Phras.* (1693)." The entries are in the first edition of the *Phraseologia*, 1681. But this means that the editor has used the editions at hand, or has accepted the quotations sent to him. This is mere common sense. It were idle to attempt to give the earliest instance in every case.

A dialect dictionary might be expected to take some notice of the "realistic," if not real, "dialect" manufactured for us by the artists in this sort; and here we have some, the best and others—Mr. Hardy, of course, and Mrs. Ward, the kailyard crop, Mr. Barrie, Mr. Crockett, Mr. Watson, and the other crowding immortals of the passing hour. But Mr. Watson is unscientifically called "Ian Maclaren," without the quotation-marks, and without mention of his real name (under *argle-bargle*, *aye*, etc.). To a lexicographer, who should be above all an historian, a teller of the truth, pseudonyms are or should be merely individual whims or pleasantries; and "Ian Maclaren" and "George Eliot" and "Mrs. Harris" and all other masqueraders should be compelled to unmask before they are admitted to the table of lexicographic immortality.

The more important words are in many cases provided with etymologic notes. These are often new or contain new forms, with fresh references. See, for example, *bank*, v., "of clouds, to gather in masses"; *bask*, dry, bitter. The notes err rather on the side of restraint, but they are generally sound. The editor, however, has deemed it wise not to break wholly with etymologic tradition. He permits some infelicities. *Banian*, "a flannel jacket," etc., is not exactly "fr. Port. *banian* (cp. Ar. *banyān*), a Hindoo trader." It is an English formation, by a confusion and detachment from *banian-coat* and *banian-shirt*, where the first element is indeed the Arabic Hindu term indicated. *Backerly* is not from "*backer*, adj, + *-ly*"; it is a reduction of *backwardly*. *Ban-beggar* is not from "*ban* (to proscribe) + *beggar*"; it is a sophistication of *bang-beggar*, which the dictionary exhibits at length. The singular entry, "*Bear 'em*, vbl. sb., wood from fencing carried off at the end of work-time," should begin "*Bearing* (*bearin'*, *bear 'em*)," etc.

The editor's scholarly caution appears conspicuously in the "List of words for the present kept back from the want of further information," which precedes the second part (p. 145). Some of these suspended words are certainly not lucid: "barmigoat," "bellaven," "blair-hawk," will seem new on this side of the water. But "*batch*, a bachelor (Sc.)," is not unfamiliar here. "*Belly-rive*, a great feast, a social gathering (Sc.)," seems to call for no "further information" than a reference. Some of the words tempt conjectural explanation. "*Biler*, the metal handle of a pail (Nrf.)," must go with *bail* in the same sense, entered in the dictionary itself, and well known in the United States. "*Bat and breed*, phr., the ground which a mower covers with one stroke of his scythe (w. Yks.)," suggests an original **batten-breed*, where *batten* would have one of the senses given in the dictionary for *bat*,

namely, "the long handle or staff of a scythe," and *breed* is 'breadth' (A. S. *brædu*). *Banters o' Boby's*, given in the list as a figurative phrase for "destruction, death (Lanc.)," is no doubt our old friend *Tantrabobus*. This is the devil in his character as a nursery Bugaboo. Halliwell has "*Tantarabobs*, the devil, Devon," and Jago, in his 'Glossary of the Cornish Dialect' (1882), gives "*Tantrabobus* or *Tantrum-bobus*," as "a term applied to a noisy, playful child. 'Oh, you tantrabobus!'" Another form of the name is *Tantrabogus*, from which, it has been suggested by an American writer, the word *bogus* has arisen (see the Oxford English Dictionary, under *bogus*). There is a long story about Tantrabobus. It belongs to the boggart and bugaboo lore; but we must close the vista.

The editor's prefatory note declares his intention to deal with American dialects. In many instances the English dialect use is supported or amplified by quotations from American sources. But it is evident that the editor has had little American dialect material to use. Indeed, there is little American dialect material in print. The publications professing to represent "American" use, the compilations of so-called "Americanisms," the wild rakings of alleged "American" slang or of political, commercial, or journalistic cant, are, with few exceptions, thoroughly untrustworthy. They are deficient in learning, wrong in method, indiscriminate in selection, and inaccurate in detail. The best-known of these productions, Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms,' though it has gone through several editions, is open to all these censures. Its representations of American dialect are often inaccurate or wholly wrong. It mixes up real dialect, real local use, real slang, with archaic uses, high literary use, universal English use, and stirs all these up with individual caprices, isolated instances of journalistic humor or vulgarity, and of manufactured "dialect" in now forgotten "humorous" works, into an unhappy chaos of still raw material. De Vere's work is respectable but gossipy. The productions put forth under the names of Farmer and Maitland, the former of which we see quoted with apparent confidence by British writers, including the editor of the Dialect Dictionary before us, are unspeakably crude and deserve no scholarly respect. They are to be regarded literally as raw material. An American scholar who should add to his own study and observation a judicious use of the real or nominal dialect material in Lowell, Mrs. Stowe, Mr. Howells, Mr. Harris, Mr. Harte, Mr. Cable, Miss Wilkins, Mrs. Stuart, could easily provide the world with a trustworthy record of American dialect even before the American Dialect Society shall have accumulated sufficient material, and gained sufficient support, for the projected American Dialect Dictionary. In the meantime, it is but right to warn British (and Scottish) lexicographers against the notion that there is any such thing in existence as a real dictionary of real Americanisms.

The editor concludes his prefatory note to Part II. by saying that "a complete list of subscribers will be printed when Volume I. is completed." We do a service to English scholarship and to English literature when we say that every public and every college library in the United States ought to subscribe for this great international work, and that every scholar who shall refrain from possessing it, or at least using it, will be debarred from the pleasure of holding defensible opinions on half the debated points of English philology.

AMERICAN COALS.

The Story of American Coals. By William Jasper Nicholls. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1897.

To tell the whole story of American Coal, from its genesis in the carboniferous age to its consumption in our stoves and under our boilers, is a large undertaking; and as Mr. Nicholls's book is not bulky, its treatment is of necessity sketchy and imperfect. It is a compromise between a scientific treatise and a popular exposition. Its science is borrowed verbatim from the most incongruous sources, and it does not always fit without a hiatus into the historical and descriptive details. Even the political bearing of the subject is not omitted, for the author never loses an opportunity of emphasizing the necessity of a high tariff to exclude Nova Scotia coal, in order to compensate for the higher cost of our own product when the cheaply mined surface beds have been exhausted. With a dread of Nova Scotia seems to be associated in this author's mind an aversion and jealousy of England. But, despite its defects of method and of taste, the book is a very clear and on the whole correct compendium of information on a subject of great national importance.

The story of coal-mining, whether in this country or elsewhere, is more prolific, not only of interest, but of pathos, than that of any other of our mineral industries. While the occupation of the coal-miner is fraught with exceptional danger, his remuneration is lower than that paid for similar labor. According to our author, the miner in the bituminous pits of Pennsylvania breaks on an average four tons of coal a day, at 35 cents per ton. He therefore receives for his hazardous exertions, carried on often in a cramped posture and in a vitiated atmosphere, $1.40 per day. But as he works on an average only 165 days a year, he has to support his family on $231.00 per annum, or 65 cents per day. These figures are below those of the United States Census report of 1890, which allows to the Pennsylvania anthracite underground laborer an average of $201 for 181 days, or 99 cents per day; and to the underground bituminous-mine laborer $188 for 215 days, or $1.10 per day. In any case, it is a miserable pittance for the work done and large risk incurred; but so unlimited are the coal resources, so cheaply can certain mines be opened and worked, so keen is the competition, and so variable is the demand, that it is impossible for either employer or employee to combine effectually, and thus insure the workman a higher wage or the operators a better price.

The small area within which our precious anthracite resources are confined has enabled eight great railroad corporations to secure by purchase 95 per cent. of all the anthracite land of Pennsylvania, which means more than 90 per cent. of all the discovered anthracite of the United States. These railroad companies, by mutual agreement, regulate the output and the proportion to be mined and marketed by each. Nevertheless, owing to the extravagant price at which much, if not most, of these coal lands were secured, the companies do not make excessive profits on the mining and the carriage of their product; consequently labor in the anthracite regions is even more poorly remunerated than in the bituminous, for though the pay is higher, the employment is less constant. As anthracite is widely used for domestic purposes, a severe winter secures brisk demand and steady work; a mild winter involves the reverse.

Nature has been very lavish in her gift of coal to this country, bestowing on us not only quantity, but every variety and quality; and she has so distributed it that no large section is altogether deprived of mineral fuel. The only boon she has denied us is coal on or near the Atlantic seaboard. A long internal carriage alone handicaps our coal-mines as competitors for foreign trade. This advantage Nova Scotia possesses, by the existence of extensive coal-beds immediately on tidewater, both on the mainland and on the island of Cape Breton. But the advantage is counterbalanced by the inferior quality of the coal and by a higher cost of production than that of the coals of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, with which it has to compete in our Atlantic seaports. The present duty is about sufficient to tilt the balance against Nova Scotia. Without it, her coal would compete on more than equal terms in the New England market with the product of our own mines, to the detriment of the coal interests of our Middle States, but to the corresponding advantage of our Northern manufacturers.

The dimensions of our coal-mining interest may be conceived of from the following figures. According to the census of 1890 there were employed at the mines, the country over, 268,619 hands, and as the production of coal has increased since then about 15 per cent., there must be to-day about 310,000 men and a few boys earning a scanty living from mining and preparing our coal for the market. Allowing that only four mouths are fed from the earnings of each laborer, we have 1,240,000 dependent upon coal-mining alone, or 1¾ per cent. of the total population. Almost as many more must be employed in the transportation of the coal and coke to the market. This large section of the population mined and handled, in 1895, 53,000,000 tons of anthracite (all from Pennsylvania with the exception of about 1,000,000 tons from Arkansas, Colorado, and New Mexico) and 135,000,000 tons of bituminous coal. The value of this great bulk of fuel at the mines was $197,769,043, or about two and a half times the market value of all the gold and silver produced in 1895 in the United States. The anthracite of Pennsylvania alone was sold at the mines for almost exactly the market value of our precious metals in 1895; yet the former never enters as a factor into national politics, while some would predicate the dependence of our very existence on the latter.

While the anthracite is the inheritance of Pennsylvania alone, bituminous coal is mined in all but fourteen States and Territories of the Union. Pennsylvania leads with fifty-two million tons, and Illinois, whose coal area is four times that of Pennsylvania, follows with eighteen million. But between these there is a difference, not only of quantity, but of quality. Vast as is the volume of coal in Illinois, Kansas, and other prairie States, and invaluable as it is locally, the quality (both of coal and of coke) is inferior to that of the product of the great Appalachian Basin, which therefore monopolizes the shipping trade even to interior points. The coal of the Cumberland region, Maryland, finds its way all over the continent for blacksmithing purposes, while the cokes of Connellsville, Pa., and West Virginia are shipped to Arizona and Montana, a distance of more than 2,000 miles, by railroad, though inferior cokes are manufactured with-

in as many hundreds of miles from the furnaces consuming them.

The wonderful growth of our coal industry within a little more than half a century is attributable to influences, some of which are both effect and cause. In 1840 we numbered only 17,000,000 of population, and then our forefathers heated their houses largely with wood. About a million tons of anthracite for all purposes were then mined. Our population now reaches 70,000,000, and if we estimate that only one ton of coal is used for domestic purposes per head of the population, our consumption for that item alone will reach some 70,000,000 tons. But this torrent of population would not, and could not, have flowed into and over the land had it not been for the railroad and the steamboat, which are directly the next largest consumers of our coal. Thirty million tons, at least, are burned annually in our locomotives, and half as much more must be consumed in our lake, river, and ocean steamboats, or about 25 per cent. of the whole. Metallurgists are probably the next largest consumers. In 1840 our forefathers made only some 300,000 tons of pig iron, and this was reduced from the ore in great measure by charcoal. To-day we make 9,500,000 tons of pig iron in furnaces of such size that one alone turns out in one month the whole output of the whole country in 1840. And we consume in these furnaces, of coal converted into coke and of coal under the boilers of our blowing engines and in our rolling-mills, about 20,000,000 tons, or 10 per cent. of the total; for the making of pig iron is only the first of the metallurgical processes that combine to yield us the iron and the steel which every year we are turning to new uses and manufacturing into new shapes.

Nor are iron and steel the only metals which our unlimited command of coal and coke as well as ore has enabled us to produce in quantity already in excess of any of our competitors in the industrial world. We make about two-thirds of the world's crude copper, and one-quarter of the world's production of lead; and when we fully appreciate the manufacturing advantages which our good fuel-supply confers on us, we shall manufacture into specialized compounds and forms all these and other metals, instead of exporting them as crude material to be manufactured abroad. What amount of coal is consumed in our great woollen and cotton mills and in the smaller workshops of the country, it is impossible to calculate; but without such consumption we could not have risen in so short a period into the first rank of the great manufacturing powers, nor kept the wheels of our immense internal and growing foreign commerce in motion.

As we are a country of great distances, this is especially true. If coal were not widely disseminated, and fuel for our locomotives had therefore to be hauled a thousand miles or more, our freight charges could not be, as they are to-day, the lowest in the world. And if coal were confined to a few, and these distant, regions, manufacturing could never have become, as it has, a common occupation of every section of the land, but the West would still be a grain-producer, the South a cotton-grower, and the metal and manufacturing interests would be confined to the Middle and North Atlantic States. As it is, thanks to the abundance of coal in Illinois, Chicago and other towns in that State are as conspicuous for their steel and other manufactures as Pennsylvania itself. The "New South," with its great coal resources in the Virginias, Tennessee, and Alabama, is to-day fixing for the older iron States the price of pig, and is converting into textile fabrics her cotton in her own factories. This interfusion of manufacturing and farming is effectually correcting the once ominous subdivision of the country into communities of opposing interests, and therefore of conflicting political prejudices. Even what was till recently the "far West" is entering the community of manufacturing States, owing to the possession of coal. Colorado has its iron furnaces and its steel-rail mill, and, by virtue of its cheap fuel, is certain to become ere long a manufacturing, and to cease being solely a mining and a ranching, State. When that stage is reached, its people will view and vote on the intricate economical questions which are to-day, and will continue to be, the burning topics of political discussion among us, more dispassionately and with juster regard to the conflicting interests of others than they do at present. Not only, therefore, do coal and prosperity go hand in hand, but coal and politics are close allies.

A consideration of moment is the probable duration of our coal-supply, but it is far less vital to ourselves than the same consideration is to England, for instance. Her coal is mined to a depth of 3,400 feet, and another century, at the rate of present production, will exhaust her coal to a depth that would to-day make its mining unprofitable. But it does not follow that during this next century improvements in methods and machinery will not compensate for and even more than counterbalance the greater cost of deeper mining. Our stores of the most accessible and of the most cheaply mined bituminous coal are being rapidly drained, and therefore the extremely low cost of sixty and seventy cents per ton at which Clearfield and some other Eastern coals are sold on the cars cannot be for ever maintained. But the date is incalculably distant when any one of our great basins of soft coal will be exhausted. The same, however, is not true of the deposits of anthracite. The three main basins, the Schuylkill, Lehigh, and Wyoming, cover an area of only 480 square miles, or less than one-hundredth of the area of our bituminous coal resources. And of these three basins, the Lehigh, which yields the best coal, is so much the smallest that its comparatively short life can be approximately measured. But two conservative causes are coming into play to arrest the rapid exhaustion of our valuable anthracite—more careful and economical mining, by which the excessive waste in extraction, amounting in the past to as high as 60 per cent. of the actual cubic contents of the coal, will be minimized, and, simultaneously, a great reduction in the consumption of coal required to create heat and generate power. The day is not far distant when, instead of thousands of wasteful stoves and open fireplaces in each of our cities, burning an extravagant amount of fuel for the heat actually generated, coal will be gasified, its by-product saved, and the gas conveyed, like illuminating gas, to every household, with an immense addition to human comfort and as immense a saving of fuel and labor. But a still greater economy will result in an improvement in engines and metallurgical methods. Our best boilers and steam-engines to-day generate only one-tenth as much power as the energy actually stored in the coal consumed represents; and the fuel we employ to reduce our ores and to refine and manufacture the metals is almost as wastefully burned in our furnaces. Already gas-engines are manufactured which do the work of the steam-engine of the ordinary type with one-quarter the fuel, and we are promised electricity direct from coal, which electricity can be converted into power with a still nearer approach to theoretical economy. There is no reason to suppose that our demand for power will abate. On the contrary, our love of ease and the scarcity of certain classes of labor will stimulate inventors to devise ever more complete appliances to replace physical exertion by machinery. Thus, though the demands for more power will continue to be imperative, the principal agent in generating it will be consumed so much more economically that its exhaustion will not proceed in proportion to the increased uses to which it will be turned.

MORE FICTION.

The Real Issue. By William Allen White. Chicago: Way & Williams. 1896.

Old Dorset: Chronicles of a New York Country Side. By Robert Cameron Rogers. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

Ring o' Rushes. By Shan F. Bullock. Stone & Kimball. 1896.

Arrested. By Esmè Stuart. Appletons. 1897.

On the Face of the Waters. By Florence Steel. Macmillan. 1897.

Lord Palmerston's contemptuous sniff at the man who "has been there" was never in more need of repetition than to-day, when syndicate writers rush to every cross-roads for local color, expecting to get it in twenty-four hours. Having been there, may they not speak? Accordingly they do speak, and from their shrill, confusing chorus we turn with relief to the words of the man who was born there. Mr. White has this right to speak for Kansas, and his fifteen short stories, dealing mainly with life there, have the accent of truth. In the "Story of Aqua Pura" and the "Story of the Highlands" this truthfulness becomes almost categorical, and one is compelled to the reflection that more art and fewer facts had carried greater conviction. For newspaper reports of actual disaster we have neither tears nor memory, though we lavish both on the unrealities of fiction. And if we remember the years of cruel drought in Kansas, it will not be for the careful accuracy which provided us with dates, but because of the four-year-old child who sat on the warped steps and asked, "What is rain, Mr. Barringer?"

The story chosen for the title-piece is rather a bare bit of realism, but the book discloses better things. In the "Reading of the Riddle" Mr. White displays much sympathetic insight, while the main incident—the midnight drive of a young man and maiden over the prairies—is in itself no bad commentary on a civilization where such things are so frequently and innocently done. In "The King of Boyville," freshness of observation and vigor of expression have produced an effective little picture which will appeal wherever schoolboy sentiment is shown by somersaults. Mr. White's touch is at times not unpoetical: "Heat-lightning winked devilishly in the distance, and the dissolving clouds . . . laughed in derisive thunder at the hopes of the worn old man"; this too nearly paraphrases Shelley's line not to be good. Less happy is the description of a night scene: "The large, sombre quiet, dotted by the tinkle of country cowbells." A praiseworthy desire for fresh combinations has led Mr. White to

'quaint some of his words with strange bedfellows. We read of a "shrivelled tear," of a scene "weirdly dry"—a phrase which may be called reversible, since, like a good rule, it works both ways—and we are told of a silence which "gnaws the glamour from the heart." The success of such forced alliances may be doubted, but Mr. White is seldom overlanguaged, and his direct style often attains to vividness.

If the arbiters of literary modes were as frank as those who dictate in the realm of dress, their latest utterance would be on this wise: Villages are much in vogue; the dialect decorations may be chosen to suit the taste of the writer. Old Dorset is not in the least like Thrums or Drumtochty, for it is in southern New York and the dialect is slightly modified New English. Moreover, in Scottish village annals we do not find the figure—traditional with us since Rip Van Winkle—of the village drunkard, who is always a good sportsman and beloved of children. He flourished in Old Dorset under the name of Ezra Spicer, and his "Expiation" makes the best of the Chronicles. The spirit of Old Dorset is said to be embodied in a certain chivalrous old Major with whose romance the Chronicles are chiefly concerned. The leisurely style of the book conveys harmoniously the author's conception of the placid village life of forty years ago.

The green, shamrock-sprinkled cover prepares one for the presence, in 'The Ring o' Rushes,' of that dialect which was formerly called brogue. The author is evidently more at home with this than in the use of English undefiled, for even when speaking in his own proper person he finds it difficult to rid himself of the poetic inversions, the lapses and licenses that characterize the Irish peasant speech. Strong as he is on his own ground, he has put into the mouth of one of his personages a speech like unto none that is uttered under heaven. His Magnificence returns to his native Gorteen from a sojourn in "Chicago City," where he has acquired wealth and, rather more inconsequently, a "Yankee drawl." A specimen will serve to show a London Irishman's conception of this:

"I reckon in Chicago City I've a fine house and plenty in it. My furniture and fixings I calc'late would work out to a pretty high figure. My pictures and statoos cost me I guess some hundreds of dollars. Two domestics I keep, yaas. . . . I've just come from a little holiday trip, you knaow. . . . My baggage I guess is coming from the station just naow."

The untravelled inhabitants of Gorteen and the vicinity bounded by the Ring o' Rushes are interesting and picturesque enough to make their acquaintance worth while. Among them poor Jane Fallon, whose bridegroom, bargaining for her dowry, broke her heart with his "Make it guineas and I'll take the heifer," stands out, a tragic little figure. The stories are preceded by a prologue, which should, however, be read last if the reader is to share the enthusiasm with which the author here marshals his various characters.

'Arrested' is a story of love, jealousy, pride, poverty, gold, treachery, murder, mystery, and other exciting passions and possessions. There is good English in the dialogue, and some humor in the shape of a notable landlady and her cowed husband, suggestive of a similar couple in 'Sketches by Boz.' If so many novels must be written every year, and among them so many of the old-fashioned kind, where, after many vicissitudes, "Truth prevails and virtue is triumphant," this one has better excuses for existing than many of its contemporaries.

Historical novelists of to-day, like historical novelists of the past, love to choose for the scenes they depict a period abounding in dramatic events and startling incidents which is already generally, if vaguely, known to the majority of their readers. In French history the times of the Fronde and of the French Revolution supply exactly what is needed; in English history, the period of the Great Civil War; and in American history, the era of the War of Independence. Quite modern history affords few more appropriate settings for an historical novel than the trials and struggles of the handful of Englishmen and Englishwomen upon whom fell the brunt of meeting the outburst of the mutiny of the Sepoy army in 1857. Men who lived through that troublous time generally decline to speak much of it, and with rare art Mr. Rudyard Kipling, in one of the finest of his short stories, "On the City Wall," represents a young English subaltern refusing to speak of the Mutiny with the dignified native prisoner whom he has in charge. Mr. Kipling, indeed, had carefully abstained from making more than one or two chance allusions to the events of 1857 throughout the numerous volumes of his tales of Indian life. Others have not imitated his reticence. Mrs. Steel, the author of some graceful studies of Indian native life and of some agreeable novels of Anglo-Indian society, has essayed a higher flight in her latest work, 'On the Face of the Waters,' and has deliberately selected as the theme of an elaborate novel the Indian Mutiny with its culmination in the siege of Delhi. It is impossible to avoid comparing Mrs. Steel's book with other Mutiny novels. Perhaps the best of these is the late Sir George Chesney's 'The Dilemma,' which contains a vivid and accurate account of the famous defence of the judge's house at Arrah by a handful of Englishmen against more than ten thousand natives supplied with artillery; and among others may be noted Colonel Meadows-Taylor's 'Seeta,' and Mr. Forrest's 'Eight Days.'

Mrs. Steel's book is inferior to Col. Chesney's in that she cannot reproduce, as he did, from actual experience, the atmosphere of the days of the Mutiny, but as a mere story her plot is better conceived and her characters more natural and true to life. She has carefully studied the records of the Mutiny and thus acquired a knowledge of its facts, but her very labor gives an air of artificiality to her account of events which contrasts with the simple eloquence of actual observers in contemporary letters and journals and in official reports. This is not the place to criticise her history, though it may be pointed out that she is a little hard upon the gallant leader of the Third Bengal Cavalry, Col. Carmichael-Smyth, and that her account of Mrs. Leeson (or Mrs. Collins as she is called by some authorities), the white—or, rather, half-caste—woman who escaped from Delhi during the siege, is not perfectly accurate. Still more doubtful is her explanation of the causes of the famous outbreak, although in this matter she has been mainly guided by Mr. Forrest's volume of official records. The one historical character whom she brings prominently upon the scene is the heroic John Nicholson, who is indeed a figure more fit for the pages of romance than those of sober history. As a story, 'On the Face of the Waters' shows great constructive skill and brilliant characterization, and places the author quite in the forefront of contemporary Anglo-Indian novelists.

A LIGHT OF UNIVERSALISM.

Life of Alonzo Ames Miner, S.T.D., LL.D. By George H. Emerson, D.D. Boston: Universalist Publishing House. 1896.

If the contents of this volume were equal to its admirable appearance, it would be a better monument to Dr. Miner than he could have in brass or marble. But the biography published so sumptuously and attractively has some serious defects. The least of these are the dubious constructions, here and there suggesting hasty composition or revision, and the lapse of a style habitually florid into metaphors which are sometimes badly mixed. More serious are such vulgarisms as the changes rung on Dr. Miner's name, the full-mouthed "Alonzo Ames Miner" being reserved for passages of elaborate commendation, and for those scenic effects for which Dr. Emerson's predilection is unmistakable. It is this which has proved more injurious to his book than anything else, except possibly the diffuseness natural to one whose daily business is the editing of a denominational paper. But the book might have been more diffuse than it is, and, if Dr. Emerson's eye for the essential had been as sharp as it is for the spectacular, he would have given us a much clearer impression of Dr. Miner's character and the sources of his varied power. Even then we should have had a eulogy, for evidently the idea that a good biographer is something better than a eulogist has never entered Dr. Emerson's head.

Among Universalists Dr. Miner was a leader of the greatest prominence. In the history of their denomination he will always have a place with Murray and Ballou and Whittemore and Chapin; and it will not be the lowest on the list. His time and his abilities assigned to him a different work from theirs. He was much more intellectual than Murray, and he worked his Universalism very differently; Murray's being merely the crudest possible variety of Calvinistic Methodism. As compared with Ballou, Dr. Miner was much less innovating and original; as compared with Whittemore, much more dignified and refined, if much less popular. Drs. Miner and Chapin were born in the same year, and they were for a time rivals in the esteem of Massachusetts Universalists; Dr. Chapin being much the more attractive preacher. When Dr. Chapin came to New York, he made easier Dr. Miner's advancement to the highest place in Boston, but there was room for both of them in the same field, their methods were so unlike. Dr. Chapin was indifferent to denominational organization and doctrinal preaching. He was no controversialist; Dr. Miner nothing if not one, and an inventor and manager of denominational machinery. It is not among Universalists, but among Unitarians, that Dr. Miner finds the leader with purposes and enthusiasms most like his own, Dr. H. W. Bellows, whose life, strangely enough, has never yet been written. The resemblances and differences of these two men would afford a very interesting subject for comparison. For denominational organization and education they had an equal passion. But Dr. Bellows's extra-denominational activity was much healthier than Dr. Miner's, and personally he was much more a man of the world. While strictly temperate, he had little inclination towards Dr. Miner's prohibition politics, or his dictum that the use of wines and liquors is inseparable from their abuse.

Dr. Miner was born in Lempster, N. H., August 17, 1814, and died in Boston June 14,

1895. "Certain particulars" are given "connecting him with the royal family of England," but not by blood: Edward III. gave the name Miner and a coat of arms to a miner who fitted out for him a company of one hundred fighting men. Much that is interesting is related concerning Dr. Miner's ancestry and parentage. The son's strenuous Universalism was an inheritance from the father. A long illness, consequent on a fall from an unruly colt, selected him for the work of the ministry. His only preparation for it was that afforded by such minor academies as those of Franklin and Lebanon, and by his preaching whenever he had opportunity. Ordained in 1839, his first pastorate was in Methuen, Mass., and lasted for three years, when he went to Lowell. Dr. Emerson writes elaborately on the factional Universalism of the time, but fails to indicate which side the young preacher took in the denominational division. An instructive passage is that pertaining to the endeavor of the orthodox Congregationalists to make the Washingtonian temperance reformers subject to their will. Dr. Miner won his spurs in a tilt disputing the rights of this matter. What he said is not set down — hardly could we expect it to be; but it is Dr. Emerson's habit to omit what is most important — the words producing certain memorable effects.

Next to Dr. Miner's interest in temperance, we are told, was his interest in anti-slavery, and we are promised that "in a chapter by itself justice will be done to Dr. Miner's anti-slavery record." But when the chapter comes, it has little more to tell than that Dr. Miner delivered the Boston Fourth of July oration in 1855 and took strong ground against the enforcement of the Fugitive Slave Law. History is somewhat dislocated when the passage of this law is made subsequent to the repeal of the Missouri Compromise, which in fact was later by four years. In Lowell Dr. Miner did much to make himself *persona grata* with the orthodox churches by stoutly defending them against the abolitionists. In this instance his words are given, and it is amusing that Dr. Emerson should think the abolitionists "logically silenced, their only gun spiked." His argument was, if the fornicating Corinthian Church was a church of Christ, why not the slaveholding American? But the abolitionists would have denied without a moment's hesitation that the fornicating Corinthians were Christians.

There is nothing in Dr. Emerson's book more pathetic than the fortunes of Father Ballou's church in Boston. In 1845 the society was so weak that there was a proposition to wind up its affairs and sell the church building over the aged pastor's head. Dr. Chapin came and brought with him a temporary prosperity; he went off to New York, and the situation became more critical than ever. Dr. Miner was summoned to the rescue, and he came, and his pastorate extended from 1848 till 1892. It was successful to a remarkable degree and in many different ways. It filled the last years of Father Ballou's life with happiness. It made the church a centre of denominational activity. The society, instigated by Dr. Miner, raised more than half a million dollars for Tufts College, of which he became President in 1862, holding the office and his parochial charge together until 1874, for some years without an assistant pastor, for some without a salary from the college. His own gifts to the college were most generous, amounting to nearly $50,000. His interest in denominational education was not by any means exhausted by his relations with Tufts. There he was not only President but preacher, and teacher of ethics and political economy. The best glimpses of his teaching are in the appendix, where they are furnished by the Rev. J. C. Adams.

It is astonishing that in an octavo of 550 pages Dr. Emerson furnishes so little evidence of Dr. Miner's intellectual force. There is scanty indication that he had any of the kind which expresses itself in pure thought. What he had was logical acumen, skill in argument, great executive ability, and a commanding personality. In one of his rhetorical flights, Dr. Emerson thinks he might have been a Cromwell in Cromwell's time, a Luther in his century. But he would have been a Cromwell with a difference: he would have hung John Biddle and George Fox, both of whom Cromwell treated kindly. Luther he was most unlike, and he was much like Calvin. No Calvinist of his generation had more the Puritan temper than he. We fail to find in him, as depicted here, any poetry or humor. Little is said of his relation to the great scientific and critical problems of his times, but enough to show that with the new ideas he had no sympathy and for their promulgators no admiration. His theology moved in the old textual circle from which the new Universalism now in all the churches has drawn nothing of its strength.

His Puritan temper found expression in his persistent anti-Romanism and intemperate temperance propaganda. In his anti-Romanism he was a forerunner of the A. P. A., and should have been its acknowledged head. Dr. Emerson's chapters on temperance reform and prohibitory legislation are most unsatisfactory. Apparently he has not learned that evolution may be degeneration. Papal infallibility should have taught him this *ad hominem*. But he exhibits the evolution of both total abstinence and prohibitory legislation as if their evolution were their justification. When we consider that Dr. Miner was better known in Massachusetts as the protagonist of State prohibition than as a Universalist preacher or educator, it is pitiful to find Dr. Emerson's account of him in this aspect of his life narrowed down to a few pages, and these for the most part taken up with a rhetorical picture of the scene in 1867 when he and John A. Andrew argued the case of prohibition before a committee of the Massachusetts House of Representatives. Here, again, while we are told that "he rose to the height of the great occasion with Websterian grandeur," no particulars are vouchsafed, nor do we get the substance of his argument. We are assured that Andrew was completely floored, but some who remember the affair will not so judge it, and they will recall Dr. Miner's extremely characteristic attempt to prove that the wine which Jesus made at Cana was unfermented, and his insistence that if the contrary were true, the last excuse for temperance would be destroyed. The Temperance Alliance expressed its full satisfaction "by the presentation of a costly copy of the Doré Bible."

It is evident that Dr. Miner had great ability as a denominational and educational organizer, and that the Universalist body owes him much for what he did in this two-fold capacity, and also as the pastor of a large and generous congregation. It is further evident that among the thinkers of his time he has no place, that he wrote nothing which has permanent value, and that his influence upon the thought of the Universalist body was distinctly unfavorable to its rational development. That he had personal qualities more engaging than were suspected by those who knew him only in the stress of his forensics on the public stage, is a persuasion that cannot be escaped by any careful reader of Dr. Emerson's valuable and yet disappointing book.

In and Beyond the Himálayas: A Record of Sport and Travel in the Abode of Snow. By S J. Stone. Illustrated by Charles Whymper. New York: Edward Arnold. 1896.

Mr. Stone has by good shooting killed so many large animals that we should forgive him if he began his narrative of sport with the words "arma virumque cano." He has made seven long expeditions to Kashmir and Tibet, in the course of which all the most highly prized varieties of game known to the hill country have been swept within his bag. Whoever is curious about the manner of stalking and "bowling over" and even "haláling" the "blue ribbons" of the Himalayas, will find what he wants to know here, unless his imagination soars beyond márkhor, ibex, bear, nyan, wild yak, and stag. Mr. Stone writes with directness and modesty of lands which are but partially explored, and is consumed by a love of adventure which will go straight to the heart of every hunter.

Mr. Stone does not detain his reader by the oft-rehearsed account of the way from Baramúla to Srinagar, but hurries him at once to the scene of action. He breaks up his experiences into three parts, making Astór and Ladakh, respectively, the centre of the first two, and in the third reaching Tibet by means of the Baspa Valley and the Gúgérang Pass. The last section contains the most interesting chapter of the book, Mr. Stone's intercourse with the Panbóh of Zárang. The Tibetan border is supposed to be hermetically sealed to travellers from India, and this particular Panbóh was very nasty until "her Majesty's silver countenance" had been exposed to view. The description of his gradual thawing out, eventual friendliness, and the Anglo-Tibetan feast which followed is delightful in itself, besides breaking the monotony of game-slaying. The climax of the entertainment was reached when Mr. Stone produced his flask and proceeded to distribute its contents among the uncouth native guests:

"After tea and biscuit, the Panbóh showed his satisfaction by holding up his thumb and saying I was a jolly good fellow. This is the Tibetan mode of returning thanks. Each one held up his thumb in the same way, with the fist closed, and repeated the same words. Now the whiskey came round. It had to be explained first to the Panbóh that it was the same as his chhang, made from barley. He took a few drops in the palm of his hand and tasted it. Approval stole over his face; and a few drops went round in the usual way in the palm of each man's hand. Smacking of lips, wry faces, and grunts of satisfaction resulted. It was evidently too strong neat, and water was called for. Then a little whiskey and water round in the cups again, with universal approval. This, I will make bold to say, was the first time that 'Napier Johnstone' was drunk by highlanders of this ilk; but the smacks, eye-twinklings, and coughs bore strong resemblance to the symptoms noticeable under similar circumstances in the far-off land of the grateful liquor's birth. As a special honor, I mixed a glassful in my own silver travelling-cup, and handed it to the Panbóh for his particular delectation; but the same thing happened—he took a sip and passed my silver cup round to each man as before! It was drained when it came back to the Panbóh, who politely handed it over his shoulder to my servant, and told him to have it cleaned. The spirits warmed their hearts, and I had again the emphatic verdict of their thumbs."

While Mr. Stone managed on the expedition just mentioned to explore a corner of Tibet which had never before been touched by a European, his success in shooting was indifferent. His best big-game record (and this is a big-game rather than a geographical volume) was made in the Keipsang valley above Leh, where he killed three bull yaks in six days. The head of the largest weighed 100 pounds and had massive horns 34 inches in length. Yak-shooting ordinarily involves day after day of stalking at the trying height of 17,000–20,000 feet. "The hunting and stalking are the most exciting in the world; the climbing, the ground and its surroundings the most trying. The chase of the wild dong, therefore, must be classed among the severest tests of a sportsman's quality." We doubt very much, though, whether the perils of yak-shooting equal those incident to the pursuit of the musk-ox in the Barren Lands. If respiration is more difficult, the food-supply is less precarious.

The district of Astór is celebrated for its position on the route to Gilgit, and for its claim to the superb peak of Nanga Parbat, which is among the noblest even of Himalayan mountains. Its valleys abound, or did before Astór became so accessible, in márkhor (*capra megaceros*) and ibex (*capra sibirica*). These animals range in the same regions, but at different altitudes. Their proximity is convenient, for when the sportsman fails to start márkhor on the lower levels, he can mount higher for ibex. The márkhor furnishes Mr. Stone with his chief subject, and stands forth with great dignity in the frontispiece. The nyan (*ovis ammon*) is a close second in its claim on general interest; less sought, perhaps, than the *ovis poli* of the Pamirs, yet so shy that Gen. Kinloch gives it the palm for wariness. "After a lengthened experience, I can unhesitatingly affirm that there is no animal so difficult to stalk as a male nyan." Mr. Stone seems to have found it less elusive than most hunters, killing four in one small district.

The writer's tender-heartedness and frequent compunctions are somewhat out of place in the autobiography of a Nimrod. If a man goes shooting, why should he lament over the fate of his victims? It would be far more logical to let the beasts of the field live. Over a brown bear Mr. Stone moralizes as follows: "An old male mortally wounded and fast dying at your feet, uttering his protest in his own bearish language, seems to say, 'Why have you murdered a harmless creature like me? I keep far away from the human species, and have done them no harm—even the roots and berries that are my food cannot ever be of any use to you and yours.'" And a little later, apropos of the yak he spared: "I have a horror of big bags—an unconquerable disgust at my own butcherliness comes over me when I stand over a noble animal that has been slain by my own hand; this feeling increases with every fresh trophy added to my collection, till it forces me to drop the pursuit of that particular game and follow something else." Truly, the quality of mercy is not strained!

Mr. Stone shows by numerous illustrations the strength of shikári insistence upon the halál or throat-cutting of a wounded animal. In strictness the act should be performed before the victim breathes its last, but, to effect an economy of meat, a subterfuge has been devised by some of the less devout. If the hunter follows up his game without rest, he may halál it when found, even though it be stark dead. If once he sits down, the meat is unlawful and is allowed to rot. A Moslem exact in the performance of his religious duties, like Mr. Stone's shikári, Sharafa, considers the easier form of halál to be irregular and profane.

The devotee of big-game shooting will find it well worth his while to read the story of Mr. Stone's adventures.

The Tale of Thrond of Gate, Commonly Called Færeyinga Saga. Englished by F. York Powell, Regius Professor of Modern History in the University of Oxford, etc., etc. London: David Nutt. 1896.

The Færeyinga Saga was given the name it usually bears by C. C. Rafn, who first published it in 1832, with the Icelandic text and a Færoese and Danish translation. The saga owes to Rafn not only its publication, but its actual identity as a separate work. It is found, namely, in that most comprehensive of Icelandic MSS., the great *Flateybook*, which contains lives of the Norse kings, not as a continuous narrative, but as separate parts imbedded at intervals in the text of which it thus forms a constituent part. Internal evidence shows that it apparently came into the hands of the compilers of the *Flateybook* as a single saga, and by them was dismembered to suit their particular purpose. The new form is, consequently, but a rehabilitation. As a saga, it has the characteristics of the other Icelandic sagas of the classic period, for it plainly arose in Iceland and not in the Færoes. From internal evidence, again, its date as a whole is the early part of the thirteenth century. The text here used follows throughout the Rafn edition. Here, as there, the translator substitutes, in chapter xxvii., a passage from the Olaf Tryggvason Saga for the more elaborate account of the *Flateybook*, in that, to quote him, "it seems (as C. Ch. Rafn thought) to suit the saga better." There are versions of the saga in Danish and German, but this is the first rendition into English.

The Færeyinga Saga, like many of its kind, although set forth as historical fact, is not always genuine history. Some of the apocryphal material in it is not always readily separable from the rest. Other parts of it, however, are but new versions of old tales elsewhere told, and a part of the ancient story-tellers' common stock in trade. Not a few memories of the persons and episodes of the saga are preserved to this day in the ballads of the Færoes, which are still sung and danced to in the islands.

Prof. Powell calls the saga the 'Tale of Thrond' from its principal hero, Thrond of Gata. Its central theme of action is the introduction of Christianity into the Færoes, in 998, in which Thrond and Sigmund Brestisson play the principal parts, the one bitterly opposing it with all his heathen wiles, and the other triumphantly furthering it, though he meets at the end with a pitiful death. The whole story is cleverly and dramatically told. Its two main characters in particular are admirably drawn. Sigmund is plainly the ideal of the saga-teller, who has given us in him a perfect type of the Christian of his own day. The author in his introduction directs attention to "his fidelity, his unselfishness, his mercy, and his marvellous prowess," which is second only to that of Olaf Tryggvason himself, the paragon of the North. Thrond, on the contrary, is made, as Vigfusson pointed out, a Louis XI. However bad he is, he has nevertheless throughout, in his stubborn opposition to the New Faith and its consequences, and in spite of his craft and cruelty, an unfailing share of the reader's sympathy. There is nowhere in the sagas a better piece of character-drawing than this of Thrond's, nor one more skilfully handled for its dramatic effect in the telling of the story.

Prof. Powell is not only the best-known pupil of Vigfusson, from whom he has both his knowledge of Icelandic and his essential points of view in matters Northern, but, since his preceptor's death, is far and away the principal Icelandic scholar in England. His translation is as a matter of course correctly and carefully done, and yet it suffers in more ways than one from faults, or rather blemishes, of rendition, which it seems as if a more critical apprehension of fitness might have obviated. The version, in the first place, is not merely translated, as the process is usually sufficiently well described, but, according to the title-page and elsewhere, is "Englished," a word which need leave no doubt as to the identity of the new medium. This is, however, in spite of the warning, an English that is frequently in need of a footnote. The issue of these important sagas in the sumptuous manner that has of late been in vogue is not an unimportant matter, and it does seem as if this phase of it might be better met.

The problem is not an insoluble one. The given factors are a Germanic language of the thirteenth century, in which there are many words and idioms identical with ours, to render as closely as may be into English—and not what may or might be English—neither too archaic to be unintelligible, either in whole or in part, nor too modern to take away the essential savor of the past which should cling to it like a garment. What Magnusson and Morris, and now Prof. Powell, really do, however, is to solve the problem only partly. Their works are caviare to the general, one and all; and the general public, more's the pity, neither heeds them nor reads them. From early English history we understand such words as *fyrd* and *grith*. *Withershins*, as in the phrase, "He went round the houses *withershins*," is, however, to many an incomprehensible word, and when we meet with *slot*, in "as if he were tracking their slot like a hound," we must look it up or lose it. What Sigmund and the rest really came to when, as the text says, "they came where a *ride* lay before them," only a recourse to the original Icelandic reveals. These are random instances, but they sufficiently illustrate the point. When Sigmund is made to say, "I would fain go a-warring," we think it rather puerile, but it is at least intelligible. Some of the diction is lucid, picturesque, and consistent, all three together; and there's the rub, for the whole of it might be so.

Then there is the matter of the rendition of proper names, whether of persons or places, with which fault may justly be found. Why, for instance, should Olaf Tryggvason, who is perfectly recognizable under his real name, be given an alias like "Olave Tryggwesson," as he appears here, or Nidaros be juggled into "Nithoyce"? Some of the names are translated and some are not, but there is no discoverable principle. Snæulf does not appear as "Snow-wolf," but the euphonious Gata is turned into "Gate"; Raumsdal appears as "Reamsdale," Hrafn Holmgardsfari turns up as "Raven Holmgarthfarer," and Thorbjörn Götuskegg as "Thorbeorn Gatebeard," as if these were an improvement upon the original forms. In the case of the well known names like the Harolds—Fairhair, Bluetooth, or Grayfell—where custom has sanctioned the usage,

or even the viking (Prof. Powell calls him a "Wicking") Harold Ironpate, who part of the time is Harold Ironhead, there can be no reasonable objection to the translation of the descriptive part of the name. The matter is, however, a delicate one, and nothing is gained by making out of good Norse appellations fantastic English ones. This part of the work is full of idiosyncrasies, and they are, furthermore, the idiosyncrasies that abound in Vigfusson's pages. It may be that Prof. Powell was the offending person all the time, since he has been associated with Vigfusson in notable works like the 'Corpus Poeticum Boreale,' where this very feature has ineffably marred the text.

All these points aside, Prof. Powell has given us access in his *Færeyinga Saga* to one of the most intrinsically interesting of all the sagas as literature, and one not without value for its many side-lights on the history of culture. It is a somewhat new direction for a Regius Professor of Modern History at Oxford to take, but it is one that may be readily followed still further with interest and profit.

Pickle the Spy; or, The Incognito of Prince Charles. By Andrew Lang. Longmans, Green & Co. 1897.

THIS very handsome volume, in which Mr. Lang exhibits his usual literary craft and more than his usual research, is a remarkable monument of a still more remarkable cult. The career of Charles Edward Stewart, "Prince Charlie," the Young Chevalier or the Young Pretender, is certainly full of adventure and vicissitude bordering on the marvellous; but surely the greatest marvel about it is the nature of the interest which it continues to excite to this day in Scotland. It is really difficult for any one who looks at Charles's history coolly and compares it with that of other adventurers—his own ancestors, James I. of Scotland, or Edward IV. of England, or even his great-uncle Charles II.—to comprehend the touching loyalty to his person, the pitying regret at his proved defects, which still attend his name. When Fergus McIvor brings Waverley into his presence, it can hardly be supposed that Scott has omitted any historic trait which might justify his hero in leaving the presence chamber with the enthusiastic burst, "A prince to live and die under." Yet if one reads over exactly what the Chevalier is made to say which wins Waverley to his cause, it is surprising how little there is in it all—less, even, than sufficed, about the same time, to bring Scott himself, who had hated the Prince of Wales as a Whig, to his knees in adoration of the Tory Regent; and, indeed, Scott makes his own Colonel Talbot comment on the emptiness of it all. Nevertheless, out of just such gracious phrases, and a refusal to authorize the assassination of the Duke of Cumberland, Mr. Lang endeavors to reinstate the old champion of the White Rose; and, when forced to admit, with the utmost unwillingness, the ingratitude, the meanness, the debauchery of Charles's later years, works up a theory of a gradual change of character produced by misfortunes. A little trouble, however, in recalling the Stewart history would show in almost every one of the line who survived middle age an equally disappointing development. James I. of Scotland, James I. of England, his son Charles, his two grandsons, all showed in later life traits wholly unsuspected by those who knew them as princes.

In the life of the young Pretender, as ordinarily written, there is a gap from his failure in 1746 to his father's death in 1766. He was known to be wandering about the Continent and visited England at least once if not oftener; but the diplomatic agents at the various courts were much mystified as to his whereabouts. Mr. Lang, from careful research in the Stewart papers at Windsor, and other sources, has succeeded in identifying most of his retreats, and especially in fixing him for several years in an apartment adjoining a convent in Paris, whence he was constantly intriguing with male and female conspirators while supposed to be in Berlin or Poland. The story is sufficiently perplexed and romantic; but it is marvellous to note the glamour that makes Mr. Lang dwell on every detail with a devout care which no other adventurer's career ever would elicit.

In the state papers are frequent proofs that Charles Edward was tracked constantly by a spy in the pay of England, who writes to the Pelham Government under various signatures, but especially as "Pickle," one of several proofs of the popularity of Smollett. The reports of this precious character have been for some time before the public, and a recent work has identified him with James Mohr Macgregor, mentioned in 'Rob Roy' as the youngest son of that redoubted chieftain, and portrayed at length by Stevenson as the father of "Catriona." James was a cheap traitor enough, and his identification as "Pickle" was not resented at the time by any child of Clan Alpine. But Mr. Lang's researches acquit him of this disgrace, and transfer it almost beyond question to another Highlander, Alastair Ruadh Macdonell, the "Young Glengarry," and himself the holder of that illustrious name in later years. And here it is that the cold Saxon is fairly puzzled at the deep agony which evidently rends our author's heart to think that a Highland chief—a Glengarry, a claimant for the headship of Clan Conuil and the Lordship of the Isles—could have taken the pay of the Duke of Newcastle to spy on Tearlach Righ Albainn. It is to him as it would be to a South Carolinian if Jack the Painter were identified with a Middleton or a Pinckney. And yet, are Highland chiefs of such elevation of character that they may not be even as Churchill or as Arnold? For a hundred and fifty years the world has borne very complacently the fact that Simon Lord Lovat, "Macshimei," the head of Clan Fraser, was true to no king and to no religion. Must every man, Celt or Teuton, who loves to read 'Waverley,' break down under the burden of discovering that the grand-uncle of Fergus McIvor's prototype was a spy upon an adventurer whom calm history must pronounce not much loftier than himself?

The book, as said above, is very elegant in dress and full of faithful research and spirited writing. But an American cannot help feeling that the expenditure of so much money and intellect on such heroes is better suited to those who consecrate memorial portraits to King Charles the Martyr than to a man of the genius and character of Mr. Andrew Lang.

Europe in the Middle Age. By Oliver J. Thatcher, Ph.D., and Ferdinand Schwill, Ph.D. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896.

DRS. THATCHER and Schwill, teachers of history in the University of Chicago, have added another to the list of books on the Middle Ages intended for the use of college students. The authors attempt in their preface to justify their choice of a definition for the much-abused term "Middle Ages"—or "Middle Age." "This term," they say, "is necessarily vague," and "therefore" there was no reason why they should not employ it in its traditional sense as including roughly the period from 500 to 1500. This, we believe, is the fundamental error of a very well-meant work. To treat the history of Europe during any thousand years, but more especially in this particular thousand, in 650 pages, is not the kind of service now demanded by the conditions of our historical education in America. The excuse that this is the sort of book found to be needed for the practical work of the authors in their teaching at the University of Chicago, is not so much a justification of the book as a condemnation of their teaching methods. It appears to us that, if the "Middle Age" is a vague term, the first duty of the teacher and writer is to give it some precision by limiting it to a period which shall have a distinct character of its own, and then to bring out this character by every possible illustration. The period from 500 to 1500 is not merely too long for comprehensive treatment, but is too widely varied in its character. It includes two great epochs of social and political transformation, and, by fixing the attention on these more dramatic movements, the writer is almost certain to confuse the very impression he ought most carefully to preserve, that of mediævalness. At all events, be the theory of this book right or wrong, the execution leaves very much to be desired, and we are prepared to excuse many of its shortcomings on the ground of an impossible theory to start with.

In a volume of this compass, the division of space is a matter of the first importance; but here we have fifteen pages on the Feudal System and eighteen on Monasticism, while a full hundred, nearly one-sixth of the whole book, are devoted to Mohammed, Mohammedanism, and the Crusades. The necessity of saying something about everything, from German heathenism to the sculptures of Michelangelo, explains, perhaps, a sententiousness of style which has at times almost the effect of a catalogue of ships. Short sentences are, indeed, a good thing, but here they become wearisome and quite destructive of the sense of continuity or development. The same effect of scrappiness is produced by the division into paragraphs. These, too, follow each other, often without any evident reason, so that we can hardly fancy a student reading a chapter with much interest or getting any very distinct impression from it. The choice of language is at times such as makes one question the authors' familiarity with good spoken English.

There are several well-selected chronological tables, a good index, a list of emperors and popes, and some fairly good maps. We miss, however, all but the briefest references to literature. The authors explain this omission by "taking for granted that the teachers who may use the book are acquainted with the best literature on the period." Now, while it is true that the making of bibliographies is the most laborious and most thankless part of an author's work, since a bibliography is no sooner made than it is antiquated, it is also true that no work is more helpful to the teachers, for whom, quite as much as for the students, a text-book must be written. The assumption of our authors—would that it were not so—is not justified by the existing condition of our historical instruction in this country. In short, we have here, under a rather modern form, only another of the old-fashioned gene-

ral text-books of history. Our need is for careful and luminous treatments of shorter and strongly marked periods.

A History of Banking in all the Leading Nations. Vols. III. and IV. New York: *The Journal of Commerce and Commercial Bulletin.* 1896.

THE third volume of this great work is devoted to the history of banking in the Latin nations, and to that of banking in Canada. The fourth and concluding volume contains accounts of banking in Germany and Austria-Hungary, in the Netherlands, in the Scandinavian countries, and in Japan and China. We shall glance hastily over these elaborate treatises, not attempting to characterize them, but merely to indicate the methods that have been pursued by the authors.

M. Pierre Des Essars of the Bank of France has contributed the history of banking in the Latin nations, beginning naturally, if not chronologically, with French banking. We can with difficulty restrain ourselves from speaking with the most enthusiastic admiration of the manner in which he has discharged this part of his task. Necessarily, he has had to summarize the history of French finance; but, while he has sufficiently explained this complicated subject, he has presented a clear view of the constitution and operation of the Bank of France, and of the other great financial establishments of that country. We need hardly say that the Bank of France has from the beginning met with trouble from the interference of the Government, but, in spite of the fact that its governors are appointed by the state, it has managed to conduct its own affairs with such wisdom as to have always retained public confidence even when forced into insolvency. Its most terrible experience was in 1870 71, when Gambetta's Government was restrained from completely gutting the bank only by the warning that if it was ruined no other resource would remain. In spite of the most determined resistance, the Bank had to grant these men 475,000,000 francs. By means of vigor, diplomacy, and good luck it was able to purchase exemption from plunder under the Commune at the price of only 17,000,000 francs.

We need not say that the socialistic element, now rising into such prominence in France, looks with evil eye on this great institution, whose charter is even now expiring. But as the profit on its note circulation, which is of course the grievance of the Socialists, amounts to only about half a million dollars, while its connection with the Government is the cause of numberless vexations, M. Des Essars contemplates the future with composure. "Even in the event that a state bank should take its place," he remarks, "it will remain none the less the oldest credit establishment in France, and will continue, with its deposits and its checks, the work that it has known so well how to perform with its currency during nearly a century, to the great advantage of the country."

No nation learns from the experience of another; yet it is impossible not to wish that some of our well-meaning Populists might read what M. Des Essars has to say of attempts to benefit the farming class by creating institutions for their use. The Crédit Foncier, which was founded for the purpose of curing the "mortgage-leprosy"—a figure of speech deserving the attention of our agitators—has had the effect of drawing capital from the rural districts, and employing it in the improvement of cities. Hence the country population has flocked to the towns, and "the Crédit Foncier has thus contributed, more than any other responsible agency, to the growth of the city proletariat, which affords the most favorable soil for the seeds of Socialism." As the Crédit Foncier did not help the peasants, the Crédit Agricole was instituted, which, as the peasants did not utilize its funds, employed them in speculating in Egyptian securities, and eventually had to go into liquidation. The fact is that the law, having mercifully undertaken to shield the farmer against the exactions of his creditors, has made it impossible for him to borrow upon easy terms. Those who take the risk of lending their money to him make him pay for the risk, and the rural population complains bitterly of the usury which measures intended for their protection have occasioned.

We cannot speak highly of M. Des Essars's treatment of banking in Italy. The subject is one of great antiquarian interest, owing to the early development of financial institutions in the Italian republics. But its present interest is wholly pathological; the system of banking is thoroughly rotten, and, if it does not presently collapse from its own weakness, it will certainly be overthrown by the first war. No hopeful symptoms are to be seen, and the least scrutiny of optimistic claims shows that they have no substantial foundation. As to Spain, Portugal, and Greece, we can spare no time to examine their systems, and merely quote M. Des Essars's remark, that the profits made by the great banks of these countries prove the bad condition of their finances. "A bank whose credit depends absolutely on the State, and which stands responsible while it cannot offer opposition to the Government's prodigality and bad management, has all the drawbacks of a state bank, with hypocrisy added."

We have lingered too long in M. Des Essars's agreeable company, and must forego our intention to refer to certain instructive episodes in the history of the monetary union of the Latin nations as chronicled by him, which show that international bimetallism may not be free from chicanery. Passing on to other subjects, we must limit ourselves to saying of Mr. Walker's account of banking in Canada that it will doubtless be of present service in the regulation of our own currency, and that, strange as it may seem, the progress of Japan toward a sound and permanent system, to judge from the particulars furnished by Mr. Juichi Soyeda of the Imperial Ministry of Finance, is likely to be more rapid than our own. It is not generally understood that Japan has legally the gold standard, although practically the silver one, and that, after prolonged discussion by a committee in which all opinions were represented, the balance turned in favor of adopting the gold standard in practice as well as theory; the scheme apparently being similar to that favored by the Russian Government. Those of our bimetallists, therefore, who are disturbed by the advantages possessed by silver-using countries, may, if they will be patient, see Japan removed from the list of competitors.

Of Mr. Max Wirth's contributions we find that on German banking perfunctory and disappointing, while that on banking in Austria-Hungary is in most respects excellent. Of the other meritorious treatises we can say nothing except that they will be found valuable by those who have occasion to consult them; while of the whole work we can only repeat that it is a splendid monument of the enlightened enterprise of its publishers.

Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth. By Sydney George Fisher. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates & Co. 1897. Pp. xiii, 442.

MR. FISHER has here continued the account of Pennsylvania history begun in his volume entitled 'The Making of Pennsylvania,' noticed in these columns somewhat less than a year ago. The earlier volume was, in the main, a study of the numerous race elements that went to make up the heterogeneous population of the colony; the present volume traces the history of Pennsylvania from its foundation to near the close of the last century. There is an unimportant chapter on Pennsylvania in the Civil War, and another on the "preëminence of Philadelphia"; but, on the whole, "colony" so far overshadows "commonwealth" that the title of the work does not accurately indicate its scope. The treatment is of a popular character, and does not lack a measure of interest; but the style is often inelegant and even "slangy," while the inordinate emphasis and general lack of dignity serve very greatly to mar what might otherwise be a useful and attractive book.

In order, apparently, the better to set off the virtue of Penn in his dealings with the Indians, Mr. Fisher is at pains to combat, on moral grounds, the accepted legal doctrine that uncivilized peoples had no title to land save that of occupancy, and to show how "it remained for the Supreme Pontiff to announce that Christianity was a good excuse for theft" (p. 99); and when, as years went by, the promise of Penn in his famous treaty was still unbroken, he tells us that "in France and on the continent of Europe the great men and writers seized upon it as the most remarkable occurrence of the age" (p. 109). He seems to approve the popular idea, in the colony, of the great wealth of the Proprietors, though he is careful not to endorse Franklin's partisan and exaggerated estimate. In general, Mr. Fisher's prejudices are so strong as to leave him no peace until every enemy is twice dead. Franklin's pamphlet on 'The Nature and Necessity of a Paper Currency' not only was "a very crude performance," but went unanswered because no reply was needed to such "rubbish and nonsense." Parkman's "absurd abuse of Pennsylvania," caused by his "violent prejudice against every colony outside of New England," is not, of course, allowed to go unrebuked. On the other hand, the author can praise as extravagantly as he can blame, as when, in his laudable effort to revive the fame of Bouquet for the latter's brilliant defence of the Pennsylvania frontier in 1764, he asserts that "no single person . . . has ever before or since done [the State] such a service."

In dealing with the important period immediately preceding the declaration of national independence, Mr. Fisher has, we think, exaggerated the disposition of the patriot party to carry things with a high hand, and the disastrous effects, in some directions, of their arbitrary conduct. Moreover, to say that Massachusetts "intended independence from the beginning"; or that the object of the Continental Congress, in its resolution of May 10, 1776, was to weaken the conservatives by breaking up the charter governments, and so make independence easier of attainment; or that in Pennsylvania the resolution "made more Tories than patriots," is to give to facts a forced and even doubtful construction. A

more careful study of Dickinson's career would not be likely to sustain Mr. Fisher's judgment that Dickinson had "a superb moral courage, in which he was equalled by no other character in American history"; while to imply that we ought to celebrate the 2d rather than the 4th of July, because the resolution in favor of independence was adopted on the former date, is to take up the cudgel for an old contention long since forgotten, and, we may add, settled. In short, Mr. Fisher seems to be first a Pennsylvanian and after that an historian; and, from either point of view, his book leaves a great many things to be desired.

The Principles of Sociology. By Herbert Spencer. Vol. III. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

THE completion of an edifice is seldom an occasion of so much public interest as the laying of the corner-stone; and this is conspicuously true of Mr. Spencer's work. When we consider that he began the 'Synthetic Philosophy' six and thirty years ago, and compare the conditions of human thought now and then, we realize that a revolution has been quietly accomplished. To the young student of natural science to-day it must seem astonishing, not that Darwin's theories should have been brought forward, but that the bringing them forward should have occasioned a violent and prolonged tempest. Such students can probably not comprehend the intellectual darkness in which even the educated classes were then groping. Nor can they form any idea of the narrowness of the bigotry then prevailing among the religiously disposed. To the modern mind nothing can seem more absurd than the notion that species must have always existed just as we know them now, except the reason assigned for this notion—that certain statements in the Hebrew Scriptures, of unknown authorship and doubtful date, might be interpreted so as to give it support. Incredible as it may seem, such notions and such reasons formed part of the mental constitution of civilized man at that time; and if this is no longer true, it is largely due to Mr. Spencer's influence.

To have been potent in bringing about such a change might seem enough to gratify ordinary ambition. But the philosophy of Rabbi Ben Ezra,

> "What I aspired to be
> And was not, comforts me,"

is too high for Mr. Spencer, as it is for most mortals. Nor is he exultant over what he aspired to be and was. He has finished his allotted task, but his chief pleasure is in his emancipation. Still, he admits, "there is satisfaction in the consciousness that losses, discouragements, and shattered health" have not prevented him from fulfilling the purpose of his life. Certainly if this is not satisfaction of the highest kind, few there be that shall be satisfied.

Two of the three divisions of this volume have already appeared in print, and have therefore received due notice ere this. The third part, 'Industrial Institutions,' applies the theory of evolution, it must be confessed in a somewhat weary and perfunctory way, to the chief elements of the social system. We do not say that Mr. Spencer's powers have flagged; on the contrary, the phenomena of industrial life—division of labor, specialization of functions, slavery, serfdom, free contract, the gilds, coöperation, trade-unionism, tc.—are of a kind to afford many beautiful instances of evolution, and he is equal to his opportunities. But it is easy to see that Mr. Spencer's natural optimism is grieved by the socialistic tendencies of the day. He tries to comfort himself with the reflection that this is exactly in accordance with his theories. All progress, he explains, is rhythmical, and as we have had in the middle of the century an era of increasing freedom, so we may expect an era of decreasing freedom at its close. It is true that there is a wealth of consolation in being able to say, "I told you so," but, as Mr. Spencer's philosophy is sufficiently elastic to cover the happening of good things as well as bad, he would of course prefer to have the good things happen.

We apprehend that Mr. Spencer, like others of the millenarian school to which he really belongs, has fallen into the natural mistake of putting the date of the "Saturnia regna" too early. It is doubtless true that the process of evolution, in the case of mankind, has been in the latter centuries accelerated. Large numbers of men are, upon any reasonable reckoning, not only more comfortable than their forefathers were, but in specific respects better. Nevertheless, inspection of the human heart reveals the existence of such a considerable residuum of wickedness as to make the attainment of perfection, or equilibrium, as Mr. Spencer would call it, a very remote possibility. Theoretically the race may eventually reach this stage of development, but practically we must leave this contingency altogether out of view in our calculations.

In fact, we are tempted to apply, to Mr. Spencer, Hawthorne's remarks on one of the enthusiasts of his creation. Like the latter, Mr. Spencer had in his youth "that sense, or inward prophecy, . . . that we are not doomed to creep on for ever in the old bad way." His error, like Holbeach's, lay "in supposing that this age, more than any past or future one, is destined to see the tattered garments of antiquity exchanged for a new suit, instead of gradually renewing themselves by patchwork, in applying his own little life-span as the measure of an interminable achievement, and more than all" (although it is scarcely fair to apply this to Mr. Spencer) "in fancying that it mattered anything to the great end in view whether he himself should contend for it or against it." It is clearly true that as the years have settled down more weightily on Mr. Spencer, the "haughty faith" with which he began life has been "modified by inevitable experience." But it has not been extinguished. There must eventually be produced "a kind of man so constituted that, while fulfilling his own desires, he fulfils also the social needs." The days may now be evil. An entire loss of freedom may be the fate of those who do not deserve the freedom they possess. But none of these things causes Mr. Spencer to recede from the belief expressed nearly fifty years ago, that "the ultimate man will be one whose private requirements coincide with public ones. He will be that manner of man who, in spontaneously fulfilling his own nature, incidentally performs the functions of a social unit, and yet is only enabled so to fulfil his own nature by all others doing the like." And so, to the discomfiture of many narrow-minded dogmatists, Mr. Spencer passes from the stage with a belief in the future happiness of mankind as elevating, and perhaps as comforting, as the belief in his own future happiness is to the ordinary Christian.

A Brief History of the Nations and of their Progress in Civilization. By George Park Fisher, D.D., LL.D., Professor in Yale University. New York: American Book Co. 1896.

WE fully appreciate the difficulties by which the author of a short universal history is beset, and we are therefore far from wishing to suggest an unattainable standard of merit. Each new candidate for honors in the field of elementary outlines must be allowed much individual latitude. Freshness of ideas, freshness of style, even freshness of illustration, will be held to accredit any recruit to the dense battalion of compendium-writers. We wish we could welcome Dr. Fisher's manual on one or all of these grounds. If we are unable to do so it is because we find it without distinctive excellence.

Dr. Fisher's chief virtue is clearness and simplicity of style, his chief fault is uniform monotony of narrative. A good introductory sketch ought to resemble a relief map. Dr. Fisher's chapters present the appearance of a plane surface. He loads his pages with the names of persons and events which will be at once forgotten, while he fails to emphasize sufficiently the leading and typical characteristics of the periods he touches. Another failing is paucity of interesting stories and illustrations. A writer of Dr. Fisher's erudition ought to be able to select a better class of anecdotes than is here presented. We are reminded at each step of Smith's 'Shorter History of Greece' and of Collier's 'Great Events,' rather than of any contemporary sources. We do not mean to imply that Dr. Fisher himself has failed to go to the fountain-head. We only state that he does not revive us with copious draughts of water from the rock. The citation of a passage from the funeral oration of Pericles furnishes a rare exception. Dr. Fisher is also unhappy in his attempt to compress the artistic and literary features of a given period.

We shall not attempt to impugn the substantial accuracy of the present volume. Considering the large number of facts adduced, the work of revision has been very careful. On the whole, the classical section is better done than the mediæval and modern sections. Beginning with the German Inroads, a certain number of slips appear. We venture to append some of them in the hope that they may be corrected. On p. 209, Dr. Fisher states that "Rome, in the course of half a century, was the object of four terrible attacks—that of Alaric and the Visigoths; of Radagaisus, with the Suevi, Vandals, and Alani; of Gaiseric (Genseric), with the Vandals; of Attila, with the Huns." But Radagaisus was arrested at Fiesole, and Attila turned back from the Mincio. P. 210, Athaulf, Alaric's successor, was not his brother, but his wife's brother. A misapprehension is conveyed in the statement that, "by the insidious arts of Aetius, the Vandals were led to invade Africa." They passed over from Spain on the invitation of Bonifacius. A serious mistake is made on p. 212: "In 453 he [Attila] died suddenly, and the strength of the Huns was dissipated by the rivalry of his chiefs contending for the crown." The fact is that Attila's sons were overthrown at the battle of the Netad, by a rising of the Ostrogoths and other subject races. P. 320, Joan of Arc was not captured before Paris, but at Compiègne. Dr. Fisher says little about Switzerland, but three errors have crept into his notice of that confederation. The sentence, p. 325, "Switzerland, originally a part of the kingdom of Arles,

had been ceded with this kingdom to the German Empire in 1033," contains at least two mistakes. It is wrong to refer thus early to Switzerland as a unit, and by no means all of mediæval Switzerland was comprised within the kingdom of Arles. On the same page the original league is ascribed to the "three mountain cantons." Dr. Fisher should not say, p. 446, that "on the death of Clive, Warren Hastings was made Governor-General (1772)." Clive died in England in 1774 after retiring from the public service. After the failure of the Hungarian rising of 1848, Kossuth escaped to Turkey, not to Italy. The student is certain to be misled by Dr. Fisher's phrase about the establishment of English government in Canada. "In 1774 the royal government was introduced, which brought in the inhuman criminal code of England." This sentence entirely misrepresents the scope and intent of the Quebec Act, and no further information is vouchsafed. We might extend this list, but the proportion of loose to exact statement is relatively slight.

We pass rapidly over omissions, for a book of this kind must exclude without remorse; yet it does seem strange that Dr. Fisher should touch upon Spartan society without mentioning the helots, should neglect to state that Syracuse received aid from the Lacedæmonians against the Athenian expedition, and should dismiss Etruscan origins with this doubtful phrase: "They were not improbably Aryans, but nothing more is known of their descent." The Armada, the Wagram campaign, the Peninsular War, and Catholic Emancipation are left undated. The existence of Mehemet Ali is not even hinted at. Worse than these omissions is a lack of precision. The three Benedictine vows are brought into the time of Constantine, p. 195. The issue of assignats is described in the same breath with the abolition of privileges and before the march to Versailles, p. 467. The dates of Cato the Censor, 289-149, the execution of Boethius in 424, and the battle of Tours in 720 may be placed upon the Atlantean shoulders of the printer.

Thirty years ago Dr. Fisher's 'Brief History of the Nations' would have been ranked considerably higher than we have put it. Even at present it may, in the hands of a judicious teacher, be of great service. The maps are admirable, and the pictorial reproductions of buildings, armor, and portraits are very fair.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Adeney, Prof. W. F. How to Read the Bible. Whittaker. 50c.
A Popular History of the United States. A. S. Barnes & Co.
Burgess, Prof. J. W. The Middle Period, 1817-1858. [The American History Series.] Scribners. $1.75.
Burrell, Rev. J. B., and Rev. J. D. The Early Church: Studies in the Acts of the Apostles. American Tract Society. $1.25.
Carruth, Hayden. The Voyage of the Rattletrap. Harpers. $1.25.
Church, Rev. R. W. Occasional Papers. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.
Dawson, Emma F. An Itinerant House, and Other Stories. San Francisco: William Doxey. $1.50.
Durrett, R. T. Bryant's Station, and the Memorial Proceedings. [Filson Club Publications.] Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.
Elwood, Rev. T. Lakeland and Iceland: Being a Glossary of Words in the Dialect of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and North Lancashire which seem allied to or identical with Icelandic or Norse. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Fleming, Mrs. J. M. (Alice M. Kipling). A Pinchbeck Goddess. Appletons. 50c.
Fletcher, W. I., and Bowker, R. R. The Annual Literary Index. 1896. New York: *Publishers' Weekly.*
Grant, Prof. A. J. Herodotus: The Text of Canon Rawlinson's Translation, with the Notes Abridged. 2 vols. Scribners. $3.50.
Halcombe, C. J. H. The Mystic Flowery Land: A Personal Narrative. London: Luzac & Co.
Hall, Rev. A. C. A. Christ's Temptation and Ours. Longmans, Green & Co.
Jastrow, Prof. M. A Dictionary of the Targumim, etc. Part IX. Putnams. $1.25.
Jokai, Maurus. The Green Book. Harpers. $1.50.
Kipling, Rudyard. Soldiers Three and Military Tales. Part II. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Kitty the Rag. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Lander, Harry. Weighed in the Balance. John Lane. $1.50.
Merriam, G. S. The Chief End of Man. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Meynell, Alice. The Children. John Lane. $1.25.
Murphy, Rev. E. G. The Larger Life: Sermons and an Essay. Longmans, Green & Co.
New American Supplement to the Encyclopædia Britannica. Vol. II. Chicago: The Werner Co.
Northall, G. F. A Warwickshire Word-Book. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Pegge, Samuel. Two Collections of Derbicisms. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.
Richey, Rev. Thomas. The Proper Gift of the Christian Ministry. New York: Crothers & Korth.
Roberts, C. G. D. The Forge in the Forest. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Rowland, Reginald. An Ambitious Slave. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
Russell, W. C. The Wreck of the Corsaire. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. $1.
Saint-Amand, Imbert de. Louis Napoleon and Mademoiselle de Montijo. Scribners. $1.50.
Salmon, Prof. Lucy M. Domestic Service. Macmillan. $2.
Schreiner, Olive. Trooper Peter Halket of Mashonaland. Boston: Roberts Bros.
Smith, William. A Smaller History of Greece. Revised and enlarged ed. Harpers. $1.
Spielmann, W. Handbuch der Anstalten und Einrichtungen zur Pflege von Wissenschaft und Kunst in Berlin. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Stalker, Rev. James. The Trial and Death of Jesus Christ: A Devotional History of Our Lord's Passion. American Tract Society. $2.
Sweet, Henry. The Students' Dictionary of Anglo-Saxon. Macmillan. $1.75.
The Annual American Catalogue. 1896. New York: *Publishers' Weekly.*
The Descendant: A Novel. Harpers. $1.25.
The Liquor Problem in its Legislative Aspects. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
The Quarto: An Artistic, Literary, and Musical Quarterly for 1896. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.; New York: Brentano's.
The Yellow Book. Vol XII. John Lane. $1.50.
Watson, William. The Year of Shame. John Lane. $1.
Winter, J. S. Grip. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Wrong, Prof. G. M. Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada. Vol. I. Toronto: William Briggs.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 18, 1897.

The Week.

VARIOUS accounts agree that President McKinley thinks he has found the solution of the patronage puzzle in the old system of making Senators and Representatives "get together." If they will only come to a perfect agreement and tell him what they want, he will do it, but there must be no factions, no differences, no splits in the party, no intrigues or grievances; all is to be union and contentment, and the common enemy is to get no comfort out of quarrels over the spoils. Now, if this were true, which we can scarcely credit, it would show that Mr. McKinley had not mastered the rudiments of the doctrine of civil-service reform; he would be yet in his sins, as the apostle says. Was not the "getting-together" theory tried for years, with the result only of the worst factions and quarrels and disgraces and defeats the party has ever known? When spoilsmen get together, it is only to fight the more bitterly at short range. And what sort of nominees are likely to issue from such a system? What style of man must he be who is willing to do the dirty work, not merely of one Senator, but of two? Is the civil-service-reform law likely to be administered, in letter and in spirit, by such a head of department? President McKinley's friends and advisers should hasten to tell him that this alleged system of placating the spoilsmen and harmonizing the party has been proved over and over again a fruitful mother of furious quarrels and of fatal treasons, stratagems and spoils in the party. Never was there a more misleading cry of peace, peace, when there is no peace.

Speaker Reed's reëlection places him in a position of extraordinary power, with what must be extraordinary freedom from pledges limiting that power. The question is what use he will make of it. The Speaker's control over legislation is now, under the rules and practices of the House, almost absolute. Mr. Reed can certainly shape the new tariff bill, for instance, in ways wholly impossible to Mr. McKinley. The people know this now. The time has passed when the Speaker could exercise his vast power unsuspected. Nor can he shirk his responsibility. No bill can pass the House without his passive approval, and that, in effect, is the same thing as active advocacy. It is Speaker Reed, more than any other one man or set of men, who will give us our new tariff. What kind of tariff will he make it? Will he acquiesce again, as he did in 1890, in a bill which he believed, and freely stated in private, to be extreme and certain to lead to a terrible reaction? The next three months will answer this question. Meantime, Mr. Reed should reflect that whatever political ambition he may cherish has a chance of being gratified only by a return to his early manner. He was thought of as a Presidential candidate solely because he had shown himself a bold, strong man, not afraid of initiative and not dreading responsibility. The moment he took up the rôle of dev'lish sly politician, he was lost. He has now another opportunity, and the country will be curious to see how he uses it. We may add that the wish to render true service to his party and to the public would equally demand that Speaker Reed should not abdicate, but should exert his power and give us a tariff which will be neither monstrous nor obsolete.

The objection to having Judges of the Supreme Court act as arbiters under the arbitration treaty is rested on the ground that they may have already formed opinions and expressed them in the shape of judicial decisions. This, according to one leading commentator, would prevent them from "acting untrammelled" for the country's best interests. This idea rests, like so many others expressed about arbitration, on a misapprehension. The mistake lies in a confusion between opinions previously formed and expressed about a controversy itself, and opinions previously formed and expressed on points of law which may become involved in it. The former is a good objection to a judge; the latter is one of his most important qualifications. It is, in fact, merely proof that he has a good knowledge of law. If a Judge of the Supreme Court, for instance, had decided that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty clashed with the Monroe Doctrine and overrode it, it would be absurd to put him on a court to pass upon the matter. On the other hand, the more questions he has investigated and decided with regard to treaties and international law, the more general knowledge he has of the principles applicable to this or any other novel question. In the present arbitration between England and Venezuela, an arbitrator who has repeatedly decided questions as to the effect of actual occupation of territory would be in so far qualified to pass on the boundary question; it would only be in case that he had actually decided that the true boundary was the Schomburgk or some other line, that he would be disqualified.

There are a number of questions pending between the United States and England which might come before the proposed arbitration court. We have just referred to the Clayton-Bulwer dispute; the fisheries question is another. These disputes, as they stand, have never been before the Supreme Court; there is no way of getting them before that body, and its decision, if rendered, would not be binding. No doubt, however, there are a number of legal questions involved, such as the force and effect of treaties, and the *mare clausum* question, which have already been either before the Supreme Court or before particular Judges of the Supreme Court in former arbitrations; and so far as such questions have been examined and considered by them, in so far are they preëminently qualified to act in new cases. The real reason why this qualification is brought up as an objection is because those who make it do not want questions between this and other countries decided by rules of law, but by some other means. Mr. Keasbey, for instance, who wrote a great book the other day on the Nicaragua Canal question, says that, according to international law, the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is binding, but that we must take higher ground. Any one who entertains this view must loathe the idea of the submission of the controversy to a judge.

The Consul-General of the United States at Honolulu has just struck a nefarious blow at Hawaiian annexation. He has given out the results of the census lately taken in Hawaii. This shows the total population of the islands to be 109,020, the native Hawaiians numbering 31,019, the Japanese 24,407, the Chinese 21,616, the Portuguese 15,191, half-breed Hawaiians 8,485, with scattering Americans, British, Germans, etc. Consul Mills may try to shelter himself under the pretence of a love for statistical information in the abstract, but that will hardly pass. Why should he have chosen the very beginning of the McKinley administration to bring out the fact that a proposition to annex Hawaii is a proposition to annex 70,000 Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, and half-breed Hawaiians? Was he aiming to put Annexationist Lodge, with his educational-test immigration bill, in the deepest of holes? The Consul is evidently meddling with things that do not concern him. He should be removed, and a new census should be taken, or else the old one extensively altered.

Twenty-five trade associations met at Young's Hotel, in Boston, on March 8, and decided to petition Congress to pass a bill authorizing the President to appoint a banking and currency commission. They demand the gold standard and the gradual retirement of the legal tenders, and favor the issue of currency by the national banks to the par value of

their bonds, and a reduction of the tax on circulation. They also recommend additional banking currency, based on assets, under national supervision, safe, elastic, and redeemable in gold, and the establishment of banks, with a capital of $25,000 or more, in small towns and villages. The one important thing is that they demand action. The future of the currency question is very dark, but there is one consideration that is encouraging, and that is the appearance of an organized effort for currency reform among the classes directly suffering from the free-silver agitation. That is something new.

The charter was "jammed" through its first stage on Thursday evening in a thoroughly scientific manner. Those members of the Commission who could be depended upon to favor whatever Platt wished, went to Albany to join the members of the Platt city committees of the two houses in "considering" the amendments which had been proposed at the hearings. The result of this solemn consultation is thus announced: "Not one of the amendments of any importance suggested at the hearings was entertained favorably by the Commissioners or accepted by the committees." Why take the trouble to hold a consultation to bring about a foreordained result? Platt announced several weeks ago that the charter was to be passed without amendment, and all his hired men had their minds made up for them when this decision was proclaimed. Hearings and consultations are relics of the old style of government and have no place in the new system. They do not deceive any one, and have about them an air of humbug which is not in keeping with so bluff and bold a ruler as Platt. "Jam 'er through and say nothing," is the genuine Platt method of legislation.

President Low's letter to Mayor Strong gives pretty plain indication that he regards the Platt Government's State police bill as a serious blow to the pretence that the new charter contains a "large measure of home rule." He says "the bill raises the fundamental question of an unusual interference with the local prerogative just at the moment when a charter is pending that aims to give to the greater city larger and not less control of its destinies," and he thinks that the "local prerogative" should be contended for vigorously by the local authorities, whose "trumpet should utter no uncertain sound in summoning the citizens to this controversy." Mr. Low seems to think that defeating Platt's bill will in some way prevent the city from like interference in the future in case the new charter be adopted; but it is difficult to see how he arrives at that opinion. The fundamental defect of the charter is that it not only does not protect us against such interference, but makes it inevitable. It is not final legislation, but initiatory legislation; it is merely the beginning of endless legislation and endless interference. It is upon this point that the trumpets of all advocates of good government for the city should "utter no uncertain sound," and keep on uttering it until the enactment of the charter is prevented and steps are taken to secure for us a real charter in its place. Mr. Low speaks of the police provisions of the new charter as "manifestly dangerous," and so they are, but they are no more so than the Municipal Assembly provisions, and no more so than the charter itself.

Our State Government left this city for Washington on Sunday evening after an unusually busy and fruitful day's work. His most trusted agents were at his hotel early that morning, and the executive session began promptly and continued without interruption till quite late in the afternoon. The results were given out to the reporters in the usual way at the close, and were published in the morning papers. This gracious practice on the part of our Government enabled us to know on Monday just what would be done by his Legislature and other branches during the week. The four great matters considered were the new charter, the State police bill, the amendments to the liquor-tax law, and the Ellsworth newspaper-portrait bill. The Government decided that the charter should be introduced on Wednesday, and be "jammed" forward steadily from that date; all the agents agreed to do their best to carry out this decree. Agent Lauterbach reported to the Government that the newspaper reports of a tendency to insubordination on the part of Agent Black towards the State police bill were entirely unfounded, that Agent Black was in hearty accord with the Government, and that the bill would go forward without obstacle whenever the Government thought best to have it start. The Government decided upon its introduction at once, on Monday night, if Agent Lauterbach could get to Albany with it, and decided also that the Wray power-of-removal bill should be "shunted" when the Lauterbach bill appeared. Agent Raines had a long hearing on his liquor-law amendments, and the Government decided in favor of their introduction, much to the chagrin, it is announced, of Agents Lauterbach, Jake Worth, and Abe Gruber, who question the political expediency of the amendments, but bow humbly to the superior wisdom of the Government. The Ellsworth portrait bill received the Government's prompt approval, it being urged that the religious and moral sentiment of the State was strongly in its favor.

The thoughtful report on Trusts made by the Lexow committee last week offers no remedy, but maintains that the evidence did not show that Trusts lowered prices to the consumer; that it *did* show that they lowered the price of the raw material; that it did not show that the product was more perfect; that it did not show that Trusts gave better wages and more constant employment to laborers; that it did show, however, that Trusts gave greater stability of price to the consumer; that it did show the issue of stock certificates of greatly inflated value, giving rise to much speculation. But we are chagrined to find that, after laying these important discoveries before the public, the committee admitted that "it could not at this time suggest a remedy." The simple bill which the committee reports, that the Attorney-General, when he sees something going on in the commercial world that he does not understand, should have power to summon witnesses to explain it to him, strikes us as, under the circumstances, almost ludicrously inadequate. What we want is a law that will make Trusts really useful to the community, instead of being, as now, harmful or worthless. The facts on which legislation should be based are now, thanks to Mr. Lexow and his able coadjutors, in our hands. Why, then, does the Legislature stand idle and powerless?

The Court of Appeals, in the case of Curran vs. Galen, decided, week before last, a question of growing importance. Curran, in his complaint, charged that the defendants, some of whom were individuals, and one an Assembly of the Knights of Labor in Rochester, had conspired to injure him and take away his livelihood. He said that they threatened him that unless he would join the Assembly, pay the initiation fee, and subject himself to its rules and regulations, they would obtain his discharge from the employment in which he then was, and would make it impossible for him to obtain any employment unless he became a member. In pursuance of this conspiracy, upon his refusing to become a member of the Association, they made complaint to his employers and forced them to discharge him, and, by false and malicious reports in regard to him, sought to bring him into ill repute with members of his trade and employers, and to prevent him from prosecuting his trade and earning a livelihood. The answer set up as a special defence that there existed in Rochester an employers' association, called the Ale-Brewers' Association, and that the ale-brewers had an agreement with the Assembly that all their employees should be members of that body, and "that no employee should work for a longer period than four weeks without becoming a member." Curran, it went on, was so employed for more than four weeks by an Association company after he was notified of the provisions of this agreement requiring him to become a member of the Assembly; he

refused to comply; the Assembly notified the company, and this was the reason of his discharge, and not malice or ill-will.

This answer was demurred to, and the Court of Appeals says it is good for nothing, because it states no legal defence. The Judges might have added, though they do not, that it is in fact nothing but an elaborate description of the very injury of which Curran complains. The court says that the agreement which it sets up cannot be upheld, because it is against public policy; that the interests of society favor the utmost freedom in the citizen to pursue any lawful trade or calling. That employers should enter into such agreements as that described in the Curran case shows, no doubt, the power of the unions, and they are just as dangerous to the employers themselves, all experience testifies, as they are illegal. What employer who cannot give out work to whom he pleases can ever know where he stands? If he submits to one illegal demand, what will be the limit of the demands made upon him? He is no more free in any proper sense than the employee. He is blackmailed, as the employee is enslaved. But even in New York there are people who are ready to stand up for their rights, and, when they do, the courts will uphold them in it.

The New Jersey Legislature has but a few days remaining in which to show the people that there is some excuse for its existence, as it is agreed that final adjournment will not be delayed longer than next week. That the session up to this date has been wholly barren of results is admitted. With only three Democrats in the Senate and four in the Assembly, the responsibility for the character of the session is easily placed. That the political tone in Trenton has been lowered since last winter is evident to any observer. The Governor has "set the pace" for the law-makers in the character of some of his principal nominations, and the detesters of "magazine politics" have rushed after him pell-mell. The chairman of the railroad committee of the House has been rebuked more than once by having bills taken out of his possession, but we do not recall any of these "popular" measures that have reached the Governor. The test of the winter's work will come on the votes on the constitutional amendments. Not many new laws are needed in the State, and the law-makers will be thanked rather than criticised for not swelling the folios of the statute-book. But the changes demanded in the State Constitution promise so much for the good of the people that to defeat them will be a real misfortune. There are more ways than one to bring about this defeat. There is but one way to secure their speedy ratification, and that is, to send them before the people—all of them—just as they were passed by the Legislature last year.

The great Leadville strike which has been declared off after a loss of $4,000,000 to the mine-owners and as much more to the strikers, and the killing of at least a dozen human beings, was begun about the middle of June, 1896. The ceremony of declaring it off was quite as futile as any part of the affair, since the mines have been in full operation for several weeks with hands obtained from other parts of the country. The strike had its origin in a demand that a very limited number of unskilled laborers, working on the dumps at Leadville at $2.50 per day, should receive the same wages as skilled laborers, $3 per day. Even this demand was not made by the Leadville miners in the first instance, but by some walking delegates from the Cœur d'Alene region who were out on a tour of inspection, and who made a visit to Leadville, where they found the anomalous condition prevailing that common laborers were receiving fifty cents per day less than skilled laborers. The Leadville Miners' Union had no idea how infamous this practice was until the Cœur d'Alene men told them. The walking-delegates assured them that the demand for equalization had been conceded at Cœur d'Alene, and hence there could be no doubt that it would be conceded at Leadville. So the demand was made, and when it was refused the strike was ordered, with all the loss of money, all the bloodshed and loss of employment that we know of. The poor men who allowed themselves to be led into this fatal blunder have known for weeks that their places had been taken by new hands, but they kept up a pretence of a strike in the vain expectation of being taken back en masse. When that expectation failed and the contributions from outside began to grow slender and the miners' children began to cry for bread, there was nothing to be done but to surrender.

The tone which the English Conservatives hold towards the Liberals when the latter want to be informed of the Government's plans and intentions respecting Crete and Greece and Turkey, is one of pained and impatient superiority. This is especially Balfour's tone. Why do the Liberals ask about these high matters of foreign policy? Do they not boast themselves Little Englanders? Are they not by choice and training merely parochial statesmen? Then let them leave the Tories to conduct all these international affairs in their own imperial fashion. These cool assumptions were eloquently resented by John Morley in a speech at Oxford on February 20. It was indeed, he confessed, the historic Liberal policy to avoid fussy meddling with foreign nations, but what party ever did more to expose and correct international injustice and oppression than the Liberal party of England? What political leaders ever showed more prescience in questions of foreign policy than the great Liberal leaders? Lord Salisbury has now elegantly confessed that, in the Crimean war, England laid her money on the wrong horse. But Cobden and Bright put their money on the right horse. When half of England bet on the wrong horse again in our civil war, Cobden and Bright once more picked the winner. Yet these are the men, theirs the party, charged with caring nothing for international affairs, and unable to see beyond their own noses. Who but a parochial statesman and Little Englander, Mr. Gladstone, opened the eyes of Great Britain and the world to the tyranny of the Bourbons in Naples, and to the system of rapine and murder practised by the Turk in Bulgaria, and called government? Mr. Morley had good ground for asserting that "some of us whom they call Little Englanders have given a steadier attention to foreign affairs, and are better informed as to movements in foreign lands, than these gentlemen who always remind one of the lines, 'Ignorance delivered brawling judgments unashamed on all things all day long.'"

A case involving copyright in an unusual way was lately before the Paris courts. At the time of Zola's latest candidacy for the Academy, a pamphlet was got up by one M. Laporte, entitled "Zola contre Zola." It consisted of extracts, without a word of comment, from the novelist's writings, the effort being evidently to bring together a rare collection of Zola's choicest ordure. The aim was, of course, to show that Zola, the muck-raking novelist, was the chief opponent of Zola, the would-be Academician. Zola's publisher at once brought suit for infringement of copyright, as the extracts were republished without permission. But the Tribunal of the Seine held that there had been no infringement, inasmuch as M. Laporte's intention was "not to reproduce fraudulently the literary property of another, but to bring out in high relief in the work of the author of the Rougon-Macquart novels its profoundly demoralizing character, and, consequently, the impossibility that the French Academy should admit to its ranks the writer who had produced it." The court saw, however, the need of qualifying its decision so as not to allow any one to produce, for example, the works of Victor Hugo in order to prove that he was a great poet or a good man. Accordingly, the court gave it as one of the reasons for acquitting M. Laporte that his pamphlet did not yield "a complete or even a partial notion" of any given book of Zola's. If it had done so, copyright would have been infringed. But the mélange of extracts, without cohesion or connection, did not exceed the rights of a critic. It will be remembered that a case involving somewhat similar issues is now before the English courts.

CONGRESS AND ITS APPROPRIATIONS.

Now that last session's appropriation bills have been extracted from the chaos of legislation with which the Senate closed its work, it has become possible to figure up how much the session has done for the "economy" so fervently professed at the opening of the Fifty-fourth Congress. The story is told by Chairman Cannon of the appropriations committee, and it is pitiful enough. The Fifty-third Congress, Democratic in both its branches, made sufficiently poor show of reducing public expenditure, but it did accomplish something. Each of the Congresses under Mr. Harrison had run up appropriations exceeding a billion dollars; the Democratic Congress from 1893 to 1895 at least cut down the aggregate to $989,239,205. But the Republican Congress whose final session expired last week managed to raise this total to $1,043,437,018, the largest sum placed to the reckoning of any Congress in our history since the war.

In order to understand the actual character of this draft on the public purse, it should be mentioned that while the annual Government revenue steadily declined, between 1893 and 1896, by $52,241,153, with a further decrease, up to date in the present fiscal year, of nearly $17,000,000, the total annual appropriations have increased, since 1895, by $25,872,762. It should be noticed furthermore that while the Democratic Fifty-third Congress, partly by increased revenue, but largely also by lighter appropriations, had reduced the annual deficit from $69,803,260 in 1894 to $25,203,245 last year, their Republican successors instantly went to work heaping up fresh extravagances, until the deficit for the present fiscal year, with three and a half months still remaining to be heard from, has reached already upwards of $50,000,000. Regarding this reckless dissipation of public funds, with the Treasury continually embarrassed, Mr. Cannon speaks with proper frankness. He admits that the appropriations are "in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service," and openly charges the Senators with "adding many old claims, some of them of questionable and doubtful character." Mr. Sayers, reporting for the minority of the committee on appropriations, notices further that, in the river-and-harbor bill which passed a year ago over President Cleveland's veto, one work involving $1,000,000 expenditure has been rejected since as worthless by the War Department, while another appropriation of $4,500,000 has been subsequently placed for half that sum. All this continuing expenditure was loaded upon the present fiscal year.

Mr. Cannon has two explanations for this growing extravagance: excessive estimates by the executive and defective rules of Congress. He affirms that Mr. Carlisle's original estimate for the session's appropriations was actually reduced by Congress. This may be true. The present practice, which, in our judgment, is wholly wrong, is for the Administration merely to lump together department estimates, to add continuing and permanent appropriations, and then to leave the work of equalizing or reducing to the committees. This practice, as we have said, is wrong. The executive ought to be in constant touch with the committees on appropriation, and ought to be able, even before the bill is reported to the House, to expose such swindles as were incorporated in the river-and-harbor bill of 1896. But, rightly or wrongly, such a plan has not been and is not now the rule of legislation. Congress sufficiently understands the Treasury estimates to be preliminary only. The legislative body cannot absolve itself from blame on the ground that it innocently accepted the department estimates as final. As for the work of Congress on its own account, Mr. Cannon is frank enough. The bills are scattered, he explains, among eight separate committees. They are considered with no attempt at mutual responsibility, without the slightest reference to the revenue-raising plans of the ways and means committee; in the one house expert "log-rolling," and in the other "senatorial courtesy," add successively to the heap. When to this is joined the fact that the President must either approve an appropriation measure as a whole, or throw it out entirely, the course of events might easily be pictured in advance.

Mr. Cannon's remedies are the return of all appropriation bills to one committee for their first consideration, and the establishment of a congressional tribunal to consider all the special claims with which appropriation bills are nowadays loaded down, and which have no proper standing in such measures. With both these propositions we are heartily in accord; but whether either would curb the propensity of Congress to extravagance, we doubt. One committee is better able to construct an economical and reasonable measure than are eight committees; but because this one committee could bar out the spendthrifts and the log-rollers it does not follow that it would do so. Excision of the jobbery of private claims would doubtless reduce the aggregate appropriations; but Congress could in a day tack on a fresh provision to the regular measure which would make the claim appropriations petty by comparison. We believe, in short, that only organized party pressure, applied by the strongest leaders of Congress, will check this foolish waste. The Congressman who wishes to bleed the Treasury must be informed that there are larger interests to be considered than his village court-houses, pension agents, and contractor acquaintances in the lobby. We beg to warn the leaders of the coming session that they cannot too soon begin this work of coercion and suppression. The tariff-builders are busily at work to add, as they expect, some forty or fifty millions to the revenue. Whether the methods they are using will achieve their ends or not, is something of a question. But if they do succeed in making good the present deficit, through increase in the revenue, how long do they imagine Congress will delay in adding another twenty-five millions to the appropriation bills, creating another deficit, as was the case in 1896 and 1897? Is it to be supposed that a greedy congressional spendthrift will grow suddenly economical merely because he sees a larger annual fund on which to draw? If so, he will be a notable exception in the community of spendthrifts. We present these queries, with all due respect, for the leaders of the House to ponder.

WALLOWING IN THE TARIFF MIRE AGAIN.

THE McKinley-Dingley tariff programme is at last before Congress and the country. The President's message and the bill reported are near of kin. They are, in fact, twin "brothers of Satan," as the Koran calls spendthrifts. But it is to the Christian Scriptures that one must turn for an adequate characterization of the action which is now proposed to the Republican party by its leaders, and which is nothing other than the dog returning to his vomit again, and the sow that was washed to her wallowing in the mire.

We are sorely disappointed in President McKinley's message. This is not alone because he omitted to say a word about the great issue on which he was elected, and to which there is the most urgent need of Congress giving speedy attention. That omission may be repaired later, and we acknowledge Mr. McKinley's right to put the question of revenue first. But what he says about revenue is both weak and disingenuous, and the only programme discernible in his message is one of public extravagance mounting higher and higher. What else can be meant by his call for "ample revenues" for "the prompt payment of liberal pensions"? Are we to have still more profligate pension bills? The present pensions have always been paid promptly. No one has proposed to cut them down. It is impossible, therefore, to see in the President's words anything but an invitation to reckless expenditure and to a fresh pension orgy. But Mr. McKinley's use of figures to prove that his own tariff bill of 1890 was a success as a producer of revenue, is a petty juggle of which he should be ashamed. There is no secret about the way Secretary Foster forced a balance. But for his using the $54,000,000 bank-note redemption fund, which had always been held as a trust fund in the Treasury, there would have been a deficit of $52,000,000 in 1893, instead of a

nominal surplus of $2,000,000. In fact, Secretary Foster, in his testimony before the ways and means committee, on February 25, 1893, insisted that an increase of $50,000,000 a year in revenue was absolutely essential to Treasury solvency. The new McKinley bill may produce sufficient revenue, but it is an historical fact that the old one did not. Even a President's message cannot alter the facts.

Of the new bill itself, as reported and expounded by Mr. Dingley, we can to-day speak only of the broad features. As for the agricultural schedules, we may take the word of that good, but now disgusted, Republican authority, the Philadelphia *Ledger*, that they are only a fresh attempt "to hoodwink the farmer." The high duties of the metal schedules, on crockery and glassware, on wood and jute and linen, are a ghastly farce, from the point of view of revenue, and constitute a standing invitation to domestic manufacturers to form a Trust and exact the uttermost farthing from the consumer. But it is the wool schedule which is the most nefarious. It was the original McKinley wool schedule which did more than anything else to wreck the Republican party in 1890. Of the Dingley schedule it is sufficient to say that it is worse than the McKinley schedule. By a trick of classification the rates are made actually higher. How this was brought about is no secret. This schedule was crammed down Mr. Dingley's throat. He is himself a woollen manufacturer. He knows that all the woollen manufacturers are aghast and furious at these outrageous rates. The woollen manufacture is now on a better basis in this country than ever before. Free wool has made possible the production of whole lines of goods never before attempted here. But the high rates on wool threaten to end all that. Why did Mr. Dingley surrender? He was raided by the Westerners. Three or four Populist and free-silver Republican votes in the Senate were to be had for the bribe of high rates on wool, and so reason and decency and the woollen manufacture had to be thrown to the winds.

Mr. Dingley's estimate of the revenue to be derived from his bill will make Congress sympathize with the old exciseman who resigned when Gladstone was Chancellor of the Exchequer, and who said that his head was simply breaking down under the proposals of his chief. First, Mr. Dingley figures out a total increased revenue of $112,000,000. He stands off and admires this for a while, and then regretfully admits that his figures are too large. Then he begins whittling them down at an alarming rate, and finally claims $70,000,000. This sum he hopes to get, provided wicked American manufacturers and consumers do not help themselves to free raw materials and to cheaper goods while they may. Of this lower estimate it is sufficient to say that he figures $11,000,000 increase from the duty on wool the first year. Men in the wool trade say he will be lucky if he gets $1,000,000. Mills have not been borrowing money to stock up with free wool solely for the pleasure of buying dutiable wool in vast quantities. He also estimates an increase of $14,000,000 on woollen goods—this from a bill which is especially designed to shut out woollen goods altogether. The truth is, that this is all the wildest guesswork. As a revenue bill, the Dingley tariff is as truly a leap into the dark as was the McKinley tariff. Senators Aldrich and Allison were $40,000,000 out of the way as to the revenue under the McKinley tariff the first year. Mr. Dingley may easily be as much now. Meanwhile, Congress will jump at the assurance that there is to be money enough for everybody, and will, encouraged by the President, shoot up the appropriations so as to make a deficit even if Mr. Dingley's hopes of revenue are fulfilled.

It is our deliberate judgment that the Dingley bill is a fraud on the party and the country. Already it is clear, from Republican revolt, that the party did not expect and does not want such a bill. Upon the country it comes like the snapping of a trap. The only thing comparable to it is our electing Platt Senator when we thought we were saving the country from Bryanism. The protective-tariff beneficiaries took advantage, just as Platt did, of the nation's absorption in saving its honor, and now come in to exact the pound of flesh for which they bargained. But the bill is not yet passed. The truth about it will be told in Congress by Republicans, if they do not lose all their manhood—at any rate by Democrats. It will certainly be proclaimed in the Republican press. For our part, we shall spare not in exposing tariff iniquities in 1897 any more than we did in 1890.

A GREAT STEP ONWARD.

We have been much pleased with a bill introduced into the House of Representatives at the last session of Congress by Mr. Gillett of Massachusetts. It is evidently part of the great wave of moral reform which is sweeping over the legislatures of our country, and which has led, even in Kansas, to vigorous efforts for the enactment of the Ten Commandments, the open violation of which has long been a great national affliction and disgrace. The present bill is due to the decision of the Supreme Court that Congress has no jurisdiction over Trusts, that they must be dealt with by the States. Mr. Gillett has considered how to get round this decision, and has found a complete remedy in the jurisdiction of Congress over interstate commerce. He has accordingly framed the following important measure, and it has been favorably reported by the learned judiciary committee. We may say here that reports that Mr. Gillett and the judiciary committee are all under age are infamous and probably Mugwump slanders. Here is the bill:

> "Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That any property owned or manufactured under any contract or by any Trust or combination or pursuant to any conspiracy forbidden by the laws of a State, and being in the course of transportation from such State to another State, the District of Columbia, a Territory, or a foreign country, or to such State from another State, the District of Columbia, a Territory, or a foreign country, shall be forfeited to the United States, and may be seized and condemned by like proceedings as are provided by law for the forfeiture, seizure, and condemnation of property imported into the United States contrary to law; and every person who shall, knowing that any property was owned or manufactured in any of the ways above described, transport it, or cause or order or contract for its transportation as above described, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction thereof be punished by a fine not exceeding $20,000, or by imprisonment not exceeding five years, or both: Provided, that nothing herein contained shall be held to interfere with any proceedings in a State court for the violation of the law of such State."

We hate to criticise such a measure at all, but we feel bound to say that this does not go far enough. Why should its provisions be confined to "property" manufactured by a Trust or combination? Why not extend it to *any* property produced by processes, or contracts, or arrangements condemned either by the State law or the still higher law of morality? Why, in fact, is it not made to cover all property produced by bad men, whose motives are low, and whose aims are, in all probability, prejudicial to the public welfare? In our humble opinion, the transmission of such property to another State by any public carrier, or otherwise, should be prohibited, and the property, if necessary, seized *in transitu*.

Suppose a man is manufacturing a product, and paying his workmen and workwomen only sweating wages; suppose it is a notorious fact that his relations with some of his female operatives are illicit; suppose he is producing really an adulterated or shoddy article and is offering it to the public as genuine; suppose his daily language to his work-people is profane, and suppose his home is made a hell by the violence of his temper—should such a man be allowed to make use of the State boats and trains for the filling of his coffers? We think not, and we feel sure that Mr. Gillett will, on consideration, agree with us. Public carriers do not exist for the enrichment of such a man. He has no more right to the advantages of interstate commerce than a wild animal. We would seize his goods as soon as he shipped them, unload them at the first station, under the eye of a pious inspector, who should be sternly prohibited from accepting money for letting them pass, and should be appointed only after a civil-service examination. We should also apply to every express agent and driver, and even to engineers and firemen of locomotives, the penal provisions of the bill directed against those who have guilty

knowledge of the wickedness of the owner of the goods. We would fine them all $20,000 apiece, *and* (not *or*) imprison them for five years. The alternative of fine *or* imprisonment would be much too good for them, and there are few express agents who would feel a fine of $20,000.

One word more. We little thought we should ever see the day when the Legislature of our country would take Mr. Gillett's noble stand for the right. We might well say, Now let us depart in peace. But we will not say it until we make one other suggestion. Should this bill be put in operation and work successfully, why should it not be extended to the passenger traffic? Old cynics will laugh when we propose that the trains or boats of our country should be reserved for the righteous, but we shall not by that be deterred from making the suggestion. Why, then, should the passage of bad men from State to State be permitted? Why should persons who, knowing that men engaged every day of their lives in violating the laws of God and the laws of the State are about to make little trips into the adjoining States, fail to inform the proper authorities of the fact, be allowed to keep it secret, or even to grin over it? Why should our great State machinery of transportation be placed at the service of every rascal who chooses to buy a ticket at the station? Why is not every ticket-office also a moral bureau, and why does not every train which rolls through our smiling fields carry only the pure and good? Consider what an engine of righteousness our railroad system would then become, and how rapidly this confinement of the wicked to their domiciles and the wide diffusion of the good would change the moral aspect of our country! Mr. Gillett is building better than he knows. He is simply a pioneer in a new field. He is preparing to make the material progress of the world moral progress also, and make our greatest inventions the servants of loftier ethics.

CECIL RHODES, PIRATE.

The examination of the Right Hon. Cecil J. Rhodes by the Select Parliamentary Commission, which was brought to a close week before last, was extraordinary in many ways. It was extraordinary for the evidence brought to light; for the cool effrontery with which Rhodes avowed his own baseness; for the sympathy with him, as man and plotter, openly shown by the Prince of Wales and Secretary Chamberlain; for Rhodes's defiant assertion that he would again conspire against a friendly state, only next time he would see to it that his conspiracy turned out successfully; and for his calm expectation, in which the general public seems to share, that no punishment whatever will be visited upon his crimes, but that he will go back to South Africa a greater hero than ever.

The essential parts of the evidence given have been sent by cable to this country, but the significance of the whole can be taken in only by reading the verbatim report of Rhodes's examination. Before it began, the only evidence from him the world had had was his absolute denial, given through Sir Hercules Robinson, of all knowledge of the Jameson raid. Even after Rhodes's hurried trip to England last year, and his conference with Mr. Chamberlain, the latter declared in the Commons: "To the best of my knowledge and belief, everybody, Mr. Rhodes, the Chartered Company, the reform committee of Johannesburg, and the High Commissioner, were all equally ignorant of the intention or action of Dr. Jameson." But now Cecil Rhodes nonchalantly informs the committee that the raid was his own from beginning to end. He planned it, he financed it, he ordered it, he hoped for its success up to the last hour. After Jameson started, he refused to stop him, though he could have done so. When the High Commissioner prepared his proclamation declaring Jameson an outlaw, Rhodes persuaded him to hold it back for one day. In brief, Rhodes, as he now coolly confesses, was all along the real plotter, the real raider; Jameson his tool and victim.

Nor was the piratical raid a sudden burst of anger. It was deliberately organized for at least a year beforehand. The plot was extraordinarily complicated. The building of the railroad to Mafeking and the transfer of the strip of land along the Transvaal border from the Bechuanaland Protectorate to Cape Colony were parts of the scheme. Thus Rhodes made the Colonial Office his unwitting instrument. With similar audacity did he use the Chartered Company. No less than $300,000 of that company's funds was illegally drawn out to buy arms and equipment for the attack on the Transvaal; this sum, however, Mr. Rhodes afterwards repaid out of his own pocket. In fact, the whole movement was his in conception and execution. This he now confesses, or, rather, glories in. That he should have used his position as Prime Minister of the Cape and manager of the Chartered Company (he admits that he practically was "the company") to conspire against a friendly state, does not appear to him wrong. It was not diplomatic, it did not exactly square with all the niceties of international law (these things seem very amusing to him), but it never occured to him that he was doing anything but his duty as an Imperial Englishman. He would do the same thing again in similar circumstances; only, another time, he would make sure of success.

The infinite meanness to which this great-hearted expander of England so often stooped in the course of his plans to make his country great and glorious, was brought out again and again in his examination. His leaving poor Jameson to bear the ignominy and to stand trial, without a word, was a piece of baseness almost unparalleled. He now justifies it by saying that too many people and too large interests were involved for him to be able to speak without imprudence. Then there was that famous letter of the women and children of Johannesburg praying Jameson to come to their rescue. It was this which made the Poet Laureate dithyrambic. It was this which was set up as the only cause and sufficient excuse for the knight-errantry of the raiders. But what are the facts about the letter, as shown on the examination? Why, it was a cooked-up letter to start with, had been in Jameson's pocket for a month and ten days, and was then cabled to England by Cecil Rhodes himself, with a forged date. Sir Hercules Robinson was almost as shamefully used by Rhodes as was Jameson himself, and the Johannesburgers were deceived by him cruelly. All told, this magnificent and swelling Imperialist appears to have played a consistent rôle of petty trickery and betrayal, of deceit and corruption, all through, and to have mixed up personal and pecuniary ends with his plans of conquest most unblushingly.

Cecil Rhodes is, in truth, the perfect type and flowering of a form of statesmanship and so-called patriotism which is too common in our day and met with in too many lands. He is nothing but a pirate in a high hat and patent-leather shoes. Laws and treaties are but jests to him. Anything he covets—be it another's land, mines, or country—is fairly his if he can get it. Rhodes wanted to "take" the Transvaal because he "needs" it. Right and justice, honor and humanity, are things to smile at. These are the sentiments, this the huge imposture, behind the clamor in so many countries for territorial expansion, of empire and colonies and islands, simply for expansion's sake. It is something to have the great exponent of these doctrines of selfishness and lawlessness stripped of his romance, and shown to be the cruel, treacherous, reckless adventurer he is. But his counterpart exists in nearly every powerful nation of the modern world, and, whether known as Jingo, Federationist, Annexationist, or plain filibuster and pirate, is to be fought by all those who place good faith and law above lands and mines and guano beds and sugar plantations, and plenty of ships and offices, and enough for everybody and something left over.

PROF. DICEY ON COMMON CITIZENSHIP FOR AMERICA AND ENGLAND.

London, February 28, 1897.

On Friday last, February 26, in a public lecture delivered at All Souls College by Prof. Dicey, the Vinerian Professor of English Law, "A Proposal for the Common Citizenship of both branches of the English People" was developed and defended before a large and representative gathering of members of Oxford University. After deprecating the off-

hand condemnation of any such proposal as an absurdity, Prof. Dicey surveyed briefly certain noteworthy signs of a widespread desire to recognize the unity and to extend the power of the whole English-speaking race. The sentiment of the unity of the English people was, he said, beginning to take a more concrete and profitable form than questionable declarations as to the superiority and ultimately certain predominance of the Anglo Saxon race. Apart from the stimulation in England of a friendly interest in the well being of English colonies, there had been on both sides of the Atlantic a unanimity, startling to politicians, in condemning war between the United States and England. Arbitration had already decided questions which, a century ago, would have led to war. A permanent tribunal for the decision of disputes between two kindred nations was ultimately sure of establishment, whatever might be the momentary outcome of actual negotiations. Without believing that arbitration could dispose of all international disputes, we might reasonably maintain that the greater number of questions likely to arise between England and the United States could be referred to a law court, by disputants who entertain similar ideas of law and of legal procedure.

Though much current talk of Anglo-Saxon greatness be foolish, though many schemes of unity be Utopian, yet popular catchwords and Utopias are signs of the trend of opinion, and these in question indicate a prevalent sense of national unity which condemns and reprobates as civil war an appeal to the arbitrament of arms by the different branches of the English people. The lecturer's proposal was, he said, an attempt to give practical effect to the widespread and growing belief in the unity of English-speaking peoples. It was that England and the United States should, by concurrent legislation, institute a common citizenship for Englishmen and Americans; that an act of the Imperial Parliament should make every citizen of the United States, during the continuance of peace between England and America, a British subject, and that an act of Congress should make every British subject, during the continuance of peace between America and England, a citizen of the United States. Technically he argued that such acts would suffice; but practically a treaty providing for the passing of such acts would no doubt be necessary. There was no need to dwell on qualifications and limitations in detail, which would certainly be introduced into such acts. After hinting at some of these details, Prof. Dicey insisted that his proposal was not designed to effect anything in the least resembling political unity. His plan simply aimed at making each citizen of the one country also a citizen of the other. Every American citizen, on landing at Liverpool, would, under his proposal, be in the same position as to civil and political rights occupied by an inhabitant of Victoria who might have landed from the same boat at the same time; and an Englishman stepping for the first time on American soil would stand, as to his civil and political rights, in the position of an American citizen who, having been born abroad, had for the first time landed in the United States.

This proposal the lecturer proceeded to defend as (1) a feasible one, (2) one of comparatively small practical effect, but wholly good, so far as it went, (3) greatly beneficial in its indirect and moral effects. It was practicable, because it required no revolutionary change in the Constitution of either country to found a common citizenship for both. Two short acts—one by Congress and the other by Parliament—would accomplish it. The assertion of its practicability rested, of course, on the assumed desire for it on both sides. If the wish were prevalent among a majority in England and America, no substantial difficulty would stand in the way of giving effect to it, because the common law of both countries is the same, making the acquisition of nationality depend, generally speaking, on the place of a person's birth. To the objection that no such wish has yet arisen, the lecturer replied by saying that neither men nor nations desired an end until it was set before them as an object for attainment. And then he added: "I shall have done enough if I have proposed an object which by degrees the best citizens both of England and of America may come to desire, and have shown that, if they wish for it, it is easily attainable."

Perhaps the most striking points in Prof. Dicey's argument were those next given to show that the practical effects of a common citizenship such as he had in mind would be small, revolutionary though the proposal might sound. He began by accentuating the fact that, under his proposal, America and England would in no sense become one country, and would not be entering into partnership or alliance as regards other Powers. As matters now stand in England, and for that matter throughout the British Empire, aliens belonging to a country at peace with England enjoy nearly all the civil rights of British subjects. They can trade in England, are protected by British law, can own land, and cannot, except by a special act, be expelled from England. An alien cannot own a British ship, though he may hold shares in a company which owns ships. An American in England would hardly feel that he had gained a perceptible increase in his civil rights under the proposed common citizenship. In some English colonies this might be somewhat different. On the other hand, the position of aliens in the United States, he said, was, theoretically at least, inferior to their position in the United Kingdom. Common law and the varying laws of the several States governed their right to hold and to inherit real estate, but State legislation had on the whole tended to improve their position. Englishmen in America would thus gain rather greater civil advantages than Americans in England by an interchange of citizenship, but in neither case would the ordinary transactions of life, outside the sphere of politics, be substantially affected. An Englishman in New York undoubtedly feels that he has pretty much the same rights as a citizen.

Not civil, but political, rights would be affected. The political status of the American in England would become precisely that of his grandfather, who before 1776 was a citizen, say of New York or of Massachusetts, but also a subject of the British crown. He would be able to vote for a member of Parliament, to sit in Parliament, and, if fortune favored, to become a Cabinet minister or Premier. He might aspire to the House of Lords, just as a British subject might, under the proposal, aspire to a seat in the Senate. On the other hand, he would be liable to be tried in England for a limited number of criminal offences though committed in the United States, but the common law doctrine that crime is territorial could and would set a strict limit here. The whole question of treason and of political offences would have to be carefully and specially considered with other details easily adjustable, supposing the existence in both countries of a desire for common citizenship. If every American now in England or any of her colonies were, by act of Parliament, made a British subject, he might be long in realizing any change. Suppose we could say that every American in England would, by act of Parliament, become a British subject after the 1st of January, 1901, it would be startling, but surely not alarming. Americans would enter Parliament, but we do not regret the presence there of men who by race, language, and religion are much less closely connected with us. We need not, said Prof. Dicey, be startled at the thought of seeing a citizen of New York, or of Massachusetts, seated at Westminster by the side of a Parsee or a Bengalee. Our liberal laws of naturalization make it impossible to maintain that political life is to be open only to natural-born British subjects. Here, with an unmistakable reference to the recent candidature of Mr. Sinclair (Schlesinger), who was naturalized while standing for Parliament and denouncing aliens, Prof. Dicey said, "Without yielding to any insular prejudice, it is allowable to confess that one would as soon have seen seated in Parliament . . . any of the eminent citizens who have been accredited to the Crown as ministers of the United States, as a gentleman whose zeal for British honor is undoubted, but who sits in Parliament in virtue of a certificate of naturalization on which the ink was scarcely dry on the day of his election."

The direct effects of common citizenship, he continued, might be less for an Englishman in America than for an American in England. Many rights and liabilities in America connected themselves with State citizenship rather than with being a citizen of the United States. An Englishman's civil rights would scarcely, if at all, be altered. He would gain the political rights of voting for a member of Congress, of sitting in Congress or in the Cabinet; he could not aspire to the Presidency. The naturalization laws in America appear, on the face of them, a greater safeguard for the standard of citizenship than the English, and might seem to constitute an argument, from the American point of view, against the present proposal. But the lecturer maintained that they were by no means evenly enforced, and, therefore, largely served to bring newly arrived emigrants of weak character into the undesirable companionship of political managers. The aliens whom these laws chiefly excluded were the very class of foreigners who most deserved to become citizens. This opinion he echoed from the lips of an American of some eminence, who maintained years ago that the abolition of all checks on naturalization would, as things stood when he spoke, be a benefit. Accordingly he argued that restrictions on naturalization which are, in the opinion of Americans themselves, of dubious value, were not worth weighing against any serious advantages to be obtained from the common citizenship of the English-speaking peoples.

Turning now to his third point, that the proposed common citizenship would be greatly beneficial in its indirect and moral effects, Prof. Dicey urged that community of race, of religious and moral beliefs, and of political ideals connected Englishmen and Americans with links which it was impossible to break. Their material interests did not clash. The openly proclaimed fact that neither division of the race could be induced to attack the other by any provocation falling short of the

causes justifying civil war, would increase the material power both of England and of America. And this fact would be made plain by a scheme of common citizenship, as by an Arbitration Treaty. The lecturer now spoke of what individuals in England or America could contribute to the welfare of English-speaking peoples under a scheme of common citizenship.

"Let me take one example," said he, "known to most of us. Whether Mr. Godkin is at this moment a British subject or an American citizen, I am totally ignorant; what I am certain of is, that the writer who, landing, I believe, in America as technically a foreigner, has by talent, energy, and, above all, character, done more than any one man to raise the character of American politics, would, should he ever return to the United Kingdom, be able to give us invaluable aid in the solution of some of the most difficult questions which demand the consideration of English statesmanship. Whoever will read the 'Problems of Democracy' will assuredly admit that its author might in many respects supply in England the place left vacant in the world of speculative politics by the death of Mill and of Maine."

He then spoke of the late Mr. Benjamin as one who, "unless common rumor was mistaken," came near obtaining a seat on the bench, after achieving the very highest eminence at the bar.

An intimate link uniting America and England (including her colonies and dependencies) was the prevalence of English common law. Upon this theme the Professor was most eloquent, and cited with equal admiration the work done by Judge Holmes and by Sir Frederick Pollock and Prof. Maitland, finally dwelling upon the non-political nature of his proposal for common citizenship, and upon the appropriateness of such a non-partisan theme for an Oxford Professor of English Law. After an interesting survey of the possibilities for good latent in the Monroe Doctrine, and a further development of the moral and material advantages indirectly to be compassed through establishing a common citizenship, the lecturer argued that the present time was especially propitious for entertaining and discussing such a proposal.

Having reference to the ticklish question of ratification by the Senate of the Arbitration Treaty, he distinguished between the moment which was accidentally unpropitious and the time which was essentially propitious. The fact of common ties between the English-speaking peoples was in men's thoughts, and a recognition of it might naturally issue in the desire that states closely connected by race, by community of history, or by historical sympathies, should also communicate to each other the rights of citizenship. The notion of a similar union in citizenship of the Latin races should not offend English patriotism. Here followed a lucid and remarkable account of common citizenship in the German fatherland, and of the part which it had played in building up the German power. The present time was propitious for drawing closer ties between England and America because, both countries being strong, it could not be alleged that either is seeking aid or protection. The fancied antagonism between a republic and a constitutional monarchy had vanished. Slavery and the visible imminence of the "irrepressible conflict" had disappeared. The memories of the contest between England and her colonies had passed away. We all knew that George the Third and his supporters were not consciously bent on tyranny, but acted under a conviction that the independence of the colonies involved the ruin of England. Prof. Dicey declared that the national independence of the United States was a benefit to mankind, because it was well that the English people should have developed the English form of republicanism, and said that what he was now advocating was an attempt to preserve the good, while undoing all the evil, which flowed from the contest with the colonies. The lecturer now paid a feeling tribute to the peace-making and reconciling effects of the action of Queen Victoria and her adviser, who made it possible for Lincoln to steer through the *Trent* affair without a war, arguing that her reign was therefore a peculiarly propitious one for close union. He then gave a really powerful picture of the greatness of Lincoln, whose civilian guidance of the American war he strikingly paralleled by the career of Lord Canning in India during the Mutiny. Finally, his discourse ended with the cordial words used by King George in welcoming Mr. Adams as Minister of the United States of America to the court of St. James's.

LOUIS DYER.

THE MOTIVE OF GREEK INTERVENTION.

ROME, February 24, 1897.

THE startling turn which the Cretan affair has taken in the shelling of the Greco-Cretan forces at Canea has reached you in all its details long ere this, but the part of the history which the telegrams cannot tell is indispensable to the understanding of it. The intervention of Greece, after it had become known that the Powers had decided to put an end to the disorders in Crete by compulsory modifications in the government of the island, was not merely useless, but disastrous, and the object of it was, not to secure the independence of Crete, but, on the contrary, to prevent the independence by making the annexation of the island to Greece a foregone conclusion. If Greece had desired to associate herself with the Powers in their effort to reform the Greek provinces of Turkey, in the simple and modest manner befitting the position of a tiny state which owes its existence, and every foot of ground over which its rule is extended, to the protection and sympathy of the great Powers, the way would have been to send a torpedo-boat with six marines to represent the Greek flag in the transaction. This could have done no harm, and would at least have conciliated the Powers. The audacious debarkation of a body of regular Greek troops when the Powers had already taken their positions on the question, was a distinct defiance of Europe, and a declaration on the part of Greece that she intended to contest the right of the great Powers to regulate the Eastern question.

Greece has never shown that she cared for the freedom of Crete, but, on the contrary, that she regarded the island as a means for the aggrandizement of the Hellenic kingdom. In the great insurrection of 1866-9, which many of your readers will remember, the Cretans, after three years of suffering and devastation such as the late history of the Turkish empire does not show the record of elsewhere, had finally worn out the repressive power of the Sultan, his finances and his military resources, and A'ali Pasha, the Grand Vizier, came to Crete to make an effort to conciliate the islanders. He brought these concessions: complete autonomy for the islanders, with the choice of a prince to be appointed for life and of their own unrestricted selection; a legislature of their election; exemption for five years from taxation, with minor privileges. The Cretans, under the advice of Gen. Ignatieff and the Greek committees, refused the concessions and held out for complete independence. A'ali Pasha, with whom I had full and most satisfactory explanations of the concessions to be granted, and who was most reasonable in his attitude towards the Cretans, was obliged to retire without having gained a point. Within three months the Greek Government sent over to the island a band of volunteers, under the command of an old brigand, Petropoulaki, who paraded the streets of Athens with ostentation, insulted the Turkish minister and provoked Turkey to a rupture of relations, openly embarked for Crete, and, on arrival, took command of the insurrectionary forces, and then, without firing a shot, surrendered the island to the Turkish authorities, and so put an end to the insurrection; not even an amnesty being secured for the exiled chiefs of the Cretans.

This infamous treason was deliberately committed by the Greek Prime Minister, Bulgaris, after full understanding with the Turkish diplomatic representative, the rupture being a part of the farce. The real motive was that, as the Powers would not consent to the annexation to Greece, it was considered good statesmanship to keep Crete in servitude as material for another and perhaps more complicated movement in the Turkish dominions. That the Russian Government was an accomplice in this crime does not relieve the King of Greece and the Ministry of Bulgaris from the charge of treachery to the Cretans. The King had, at the instigation of Russia, dismissed the Comoundouros Ministry and summoned Bulgaris, who was more pliant to the Russian scheme, to form a ministry which would consent to stop the insurrection; and the result was, that the Cretans, who had conquered the sympathies of Europe and practically their freedom, were ordered back to their old servitude for twenty-five years more, to suit the plans of Russia and the Russian party in Greece, and because the Powers then, as now, declined to give Crete to Greece. And now, as then, Greece prefers to defy the Powers which are the real friends of Greece, and plunge Crete into another internecine war, to prevent the liberation of Crete in any other form than that of annexation to Greece.

The motive, I repeat, is not the love of Cretan liberty, but the aggrandizement of Greece, and the Powers have taught the Greeks a lesson which has been rehearsed on other occasions with less severity, but which the Greeks would have learned before if they had been the intelligent people they have been supposed to be. In 1886, the present Prime Minister being then in power, the same game was tried for an extension on the northern frontier. The troops were sent to the frontier and fighting was actually carried on for several days between bands of volunteers armed by the Greek Ministry and supported by the regular troops, and hostilities were carried on against the Turkish outposts, without any declaration of war, but with magniloquent proclamations and threats against Turkey if the Powers did not give Greece some more territory. The result was the blockade of the Peiræus, which closed the agitation and permitted the Ministry to resign, with a flaming appeal to the nation, saying what it would have done if the Powers had not stopped it; the fact being that the Turkish general had his orders to cross the frontier if the provocation lasted another day, and march on Athens, which he would have done with no serious difficulty, since the

Greek army lacked organization and even the shadow of discipline. Tricoupi came to power just in time to save Greece from a disaster, but, as the ranters of Athens said, only to prevent Greece from going to Constantinople. The Turks would have been in Athens in less than two weeks, there being on the frontier 40,000 men, many of whom were veterans of the Bulgarian war.

This time the Powers were agreed; for the danger to the peace of Europe, if Greece was permitted to play fast and loose with the elements of discord, was too great to be trifled with. Too great indulgence was shown to Greece, for the first attempt to send troops to Crete, after the Powers had decided to take the affairs of the island in hand, should have been stopped at the Peiræus; but, after the order to withdraw had been given in the name of the six treaty Powers, to have permitted so gross a violation of international law to be continued by Greece would have been to make Europe ridiculous and impotent, to have become the accomplice of Greece in the official filibustering, without even the form of a declaration of war on Turkey, and to let loose the elements of insurrection all over the empire. The success of Greece in seizing Crete would have been the signal for the general grab and the general mêlée which is exactly what the Powers are doing their best to prevent.

The Italian Government has joined the European concert with the conviction that it was the only course which would avoid a general war, and, with all the liberal Powers, has done so with the expressed determination to prevent Turkey from misgoverning the island any longer. It has declared that a real autonomy must be given to Crete, and that no Turkish pasha, under any denomination or cover, shall exercise any power, and that this autonomy shall be protected from intrigues from Athens as well as from Constantinople. The reasons for this absolute separation from Greece are various. In the first place, Crete cannot be governed from Athens, where the pressure of impecunious lawyers in hunt for places is too strong, and the Government too weak, to permit the island to be left at the command of a Government which is unable to maintain order at home. Then, the institutions in which all the turbulent Cretan chieftains have been bred are too widely different from those of the spurious and abortive Latin forms of government in Greece to permit the reconciliation of the system and the men, with the authority of which the Greek monarchy can dispose. The island feuds are savage and bloody, and the authority which can restrain them is not to be found in Athens, where there is not at the present moment a single statesman of even the third order; and with a weak control the local and religious antipathies would break out in worse disorders than ever were known under the Turks. In one of my last visits to Crete, in the régime of Photiades Pasha, a Christian (so-called) governor, with a Cretan diet and a police of Cretans of both religions in proportion to the population of both, there had been, the Governor informed me, 600 assassinations due to local feuds and intrigues, political and growing out of the elections, or out of village quarrels, mainly between men of the same religion, with a destruction of property in malice such as no insurrection had ever developed. Twenty thousand olive-trees had been cut down to injure the interests of opponents, and the gendarmerie, being local, either made no effort to restrain the disturbers of the peace, or took sides in the feuds. Even while I was there, came in every day reports of the ruin of proprietor after proprietor by the destruction of the olive orchards, which are the chief riches of the island.

To stop all this, the Governor must be a man whose authority cannot be attacked by intrigues at Athens, and he must have behind him the force of an international sanction, with a police which will not be the instrument of local quarrels. If, when order has been firmly established, the islanders (contrary to my conviction) should desire annexation to Greece, and the rights of the large minority of the Mussulmans can be conciliated, they must be allowed to have their own way, but not as the result of the Greek defiance of Europe and violation of the common usages of a civilized Power. Greece is an independent Power, though not an inch of territory has ever been won by Greek effort, and though her government has been one of the worst failures of European constitutionalism. If she declares war on Turkey she has only exercised a right, but to invade a possession of Turkey without the pretence of a formality or necessity, and especially when the Powers do not leave Turkey the power of reinforcing her army or retaliating by the invasion of Greece, cannot be permitted while there is the faintest pretext of international law, since Greece is the absolute creature of that law. Public opinion is strongly averse to the application of force to the filibustering army, in Italy as in England, but the lesson is a necessary one, and no one who cares for the chance of keeping the peace more than for the particular increment of Greece will do more than regret the necessity of the lesson. W. J. S.

MME. DE CHASTENAY.—III.

PARIS, February 25, 1897.

THERE has been a long interruption in publication between the first volume of the interesting memoirs of Mme. de Chastenay and the second. The first volume took us through the dramatic times of the Revolution and the troubled period of the Directory. In the second volume we find ourselves in the Empire: Napoleon has crowned himself, he has created the Legion of Honor, he has formed a household. Réal, who, we recall, was the benefactor and the most intimate friend of Mme. de Chastenay, "could not," she says, "show himself to us at first without blushing" with the new insignia of the Legion of Honor. "I found Garat at Fouché's [another friend of Mme. de Chastenay] with his coat tightly buttoned so that one could not perceive on the breast of a philosopher the sign of the vanity of a courtier; the cruel Fouché forced Garat to show it to me. In a few days, people accustomed themselves to it; after a few months, they began to envy it."

Already, as First Consul, Bonaparte had re-established some of the functions of a royal household; as Emperor, he created chamberlains and *dames du palais*. Fouché thought of Mme. de Chastenay for one of these places. She refused at first to entertain the idea; but, at the instance of her mother, she changed her mind. "I returned," she says, "to see Fouché, and told him I had changed my ideas; he spoke to the Emperor, who approved of his advice, and even spoke to him of the conversation with me which seemed to have struck him so much [the conversation at Châtillon in the month of May, 1795]; he spoke, as he did afterwards in several circumstances, of the *esprit* which he was good enough to attribute to me." Mme. de Chastenay had to make a visit to the Empress, in the palace of Saint Cloud.

"She came to me and told me that she had heard from the Prefect of Police that I had consented to accept a place as maid of honor; the Emperor was going away the next day, but I should be appointed on his return. The words gratitude and Majesty came with some difficulty from my lips. What I felt cannot be expressed, and, if I had seen a door open, I think I should have run away. I was going to be the follower of Mme. Bonaparte, of the wife of a man whose actions and character I had held in detestation for three years!"

The Emperor came back, and Mme. de Chastenay again saw the Empress. She was well received, but no further mention was made of the offer and of the half-promise which had been made to her. She had probably been represented by some as too closely allied with the Legitimists, who saw in Napoleon only the usurper, the murderer of the Duke d'Enghien; by others as too intimate with Réal, with Fouché, with the men of the Directory. "The fear of the influence which it was thought I should like to have, because I was imagined to be capable of using it, served as a pretext to put aside a woman who was represented to the Emperor as one of those *femmes d'esprit* whom he always feared, while incessantly annoyed by the insipidity of the others."

It is not to be wondered at if Mme. de Chastenay is slightly ironical in her description of the festivities at the coronation of Napoleon and Josephine.

"The great ceremony took place. I was not present, but I heard that the new Emperor, by assuming without dignity the airs of a conqueror, revolted those who were not won over to the new régime. It is remarkable that, at that time, the greatest opposition was manifested not by the partisans of the monarchy, but by the former friends of liberty. . . . Marshal Lefebvre bore on a cushion the sword of the general who had become an Emperor. The Marshal, during the whole ceremony, boasted vainglorioously of having been grenadier in the Guards when Louis XVI. was consecrated, of having been in the church at Reims and marched with the procession. I really believe that this reminiscence flattered his pride more than his function at the moment."

In the fifth chapter of this second volume, Mme. de Chastenay draws a portrait of Fouché which will be found interesting:

"Fouché was rather tall, thin, pale. In his youth his hair must have been blond. His eyes, very small, very close together, very red, were nevertheless very piercing, and his whole face was not wanting in 'physiognomy' and, when occasion required it, in a certain nobility. He spoke with ease; . . . very natural, with an air of depth, possessing some gayety and sometimes gleaming with intelligence, when he put on with seriousness an air of superiority to all men, all ranks, all opinions, all passions, and made you believe that he moved everything according to his calculations without being moved himself."

Fouché was accustomed to high offices, "to the ministry as a mode of life"; was fond of money and had succeeded in making a great fortune.

"Except on the days of a great and splendid display, his happiness consisted in living like a bourgeois who enjoys perhaps ten or twelve thousand francs income. His wife, who was passionately fond of him, and as jealous as if he were twenty years old, preferred this life of retreat. An aged relative of his wife, his secretary, who was an old Oratorian like himself, the governess of his daughter (a woman of *esprit*), his sons' tutor, some old Oratorians or subalterns—such was his only society, which amused itself the whole evening with the game

of Boston; . . . such was during ten years of ministry the life of the man who frightened Europe and kept France under."

Mme. de Chastenay adds that, with all his talents, there was much of the charlatan in him. Minister of Police after the 18th Brumaire, he retained in his hands the fate of the émigrés; he rendered services to many, and had their names struck from the terrible list; his object was to secure creatures in all parties. He succeeded in becoming intimate with Mme. de Vaudémont, a Princess of Lorraine. He continued, however, to be in relation with the Jacobins; he knew how flexible they were, he employed them in many ways—in secret missions, as journalists; he paid handsomely for the verses of the renegades who sang the praises of the Emperor. He kept a large staff of spies, and he had spies in all ranks of society. Bonaparte never liked him, but always had need of him; he needed him on the 18th Brumaire, and at once made him minister; he never completely confided in him, but was afraid of him, knowing him to be capable of anything to avenge himself.

Mme. de Chastenay describes the salon of Talleyrand with much care. She often went to his house, though the society there was not literary.

"People arrived at 11 o'clock, if they had not dined there. At midnight a sort of supper was served; it was generally at that moment that the Prince of Benevento arrived. After the supper and some moments of conversation, whist was played, and those who did not play could retire. The ordinary whist-players, the old friends, the constant lady friends of Talleyrand, were commonly there. Mme. de Laval and the Duchess de Luynes, when she came to Paris, were among the old friends. The sister of Prince Poniatowski and the Duchess of Courland, who assumed the air of a sovereign, rejuvenated themselves, and were rival objects of devotion and admiration."

Champagny, Duke of Cadore, who became Minister of Foreign Affairs after Talleyrand left the Ministry, had also a salon, of which Mme. de Chastenay became a very assiduous frequenter. She saw the Empress Josephine at the Tuileries and at Malmaison, and has notes on her *soirées intimes*, on her ladies, on the members of the Bonaparte family whom she met there.

Fouché was very ardent in promoting the divorce of Napoleon from Josephine; he fell, however, soon afterwards into disgrace, without any apparent reason. He was replaced in the Ministry by Savary, Duke of Rovigo. "There was general apprehension, I must say. It is impossible to imagine to what a degree Fouché had convinced the public mind of his marvellous capacity, of his immense superiority, of his philosophy of mind, of his aversion to vexatious measures, of his predilections in favor of the higher classes, of his secret aversion to the old Jacobins, from whom he had everything to fear." It seemed to Mme. de Chastenay as if the Minister's reason was the necessary counterpoise of the despotism of the sovereign. Fouché's successor was in her opinion incapable, and had only "the blind devotion of a Mameluke." The precise reason of Fouché's disgrace is not yet known. Did the new Empress object to having relations with a former regicide? It seems certain that Napoleon found it difficult to make Marie Louise play cards at the same table with Cambacérès and the Duke of Otranto. Fouché was appointed Governor of the Roman States. "I am Pope," he said to Mme. de Chastenay. "All roads lead to Rome," said his friends. Before his departure Napoleon asked him to give him back all his letters; Fouché replied that he had burned them. Seals were put on his papers, but the letters were not found when the seals were broken. After a short stay in Rome, Fouché obtained permission to retire to Aix; he remained there, in his *sénatorerie*, for some time, almost forgotten.

Mme. de Chastenay was living quietly in the country, with her family, when she received an order to appear in Paris before the Prefect of Police. Some papers bearing her name had been found among Fouché's. She made the journey to Paris, first saw Réal, her friend and adviser, and afterwards Savary, who reassured her, and even asked her to come to Mme. de Rovigo's soirées. "Perhaps," she says, "if this page ever finds readers, people will be surprised at the fear which seized us; but exile, at that time, could be pronounced on a caprice, on a slight suspicion, and exile offered seldom any chance of return." On her return to Paris, Mme. de Chastenay paid visits to Mme. de Rovigo, who was of a good family. Savary, too, thought himself "born," and liked to say "nous autres," in speaking of people of quality. "I must repeat," says Mme. de Chastenay, "that in all such houses the old society was dominant and was generally immixed only with people holding high offices." It was at Mme. de Rovigo's that Mme. de Chastenay made the acquaintance of the Maréchale Lefebvre, whom Sardou has made famous under the name of *Mme. Sans-gêne*. It was this woman who said to her maid, "C'est moi qui se coiffe." When Napoleon made Marshal Lefebvre Duke of Dantzic, and when a deputation of the Senate went out of compliment to the Maréchale, the porter said to them, "You may go, you may go. Madame cares little for your *bêtises*. Madame is now looking after her hay."

The Emperor was then at the height of his glory. The kings, many of whom had been crowned by his hand, came in person to Paris to bask in the rays of his greatness. Fouché once said to Napoleon, "If I were you, my dynasty would soon be the oldest in Europe," and it really seemed as if the Emperor could dispose of all thrones.

"The King of Bavaria," says Mme. de Chastenay, "and the Queen of Bavaria, who, it was said, believed that she had some claim to the love of the unfortunate Duke d'Enghien, both came to Paris. The daughter of this King was the wife of Eugène; his niece was the Princess of Neuchâtel (Mme. Berthier). I remember that the new Princess of Hohenzollern was a niece of Murat and did not even bear her name. Mme. de Coislin asked the Princess Pia of Bavaria (born D'Arenberg) how she got on with this Princess of Hohenzollern, of such extraordinary creation. 'Very well, Aunt,' said the young woman; 'I assure you she is not proud at all.'"

Correspondence.

READERS FOR THE AMERICAN DIALECT SOCIETY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At a recent meeting of the American Dialect Society a committee was appointed to supervise the reading of American books, for the purpose of collecting all words and uses of words not yet recorded in the dictionaries. This is part of the larger work of the Society in gathering all dialectal material which represents spoken and written usage in America. Such material will be eventually incorporated, it is hoped, in a compendious American Dialect Dictionary, similar to the English Dialect Dictionary now in course of publication.

The reading of American books for this purpose has already begun, but the committee desires to secure more volunteers for this great and important undertaking. The books to be read include especially all dialect novels, as well as dialect stories and sketches in magazines or special volumes. Besides, American books of all sorts, particularly books of early date, may furnish valuable material. Any one who wishes to assist in the reading is invited to address the chairman of the committee, stating the book or books he wishes to undertake, or asking for assignment of reading. Such volunteers will receive a circular of directions, describing a simple and uniform plan of collecting and reporting dialect words.

The committee hopes to secure the coöperation of teachers of English or other languages in colleges and schools, of clergymen, and of people of leisure who are interested in observing peculiarities in language. The assistance of all such, as well as of any others who are willing to undertake the reading, is earnestly solicited.

To most readers of this circular the importance of such an enterprise need not be urged. The undertaking should appeal to all Americans, as contributing to settle the relations of English in Britain and America, and as showing the growth and development of the language upon American soil. Besides, the dictionary which will doubtless grow out of the work of the Dialect Society will be a reliable compendium of American usage, useful not only to this, but to coming generations.

The committee consists of Prof. Benj. I. Wheeler of Cornell University, Mr. E. H. Babbitt of Columbia, and the chairman, whose name appears below.—Very truly yours,

O. F. Emerson.

Western Reserve University, Cleveland, Ohio.

COCKAYNE'S LEXICON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This library has just come into possession of a nearly complete copy of the 'English-Greek Lexicon' compiled by Thomas Cockayne and published in 1661. The 'Dictionary of National Biography,' *s. v.* Cockayne, Thomas, says "no copy [of this book] is in the British Museum," so that it may be supposed to be quite rare. I should like to learn whether any one in this country has a copy from which we might get a collation, with a view to ascertaining how nearly complete our copy is.—Very truly yours,

W. I. Fletcher.

Amherst College Library, March 10, 1897.

SLAVIC STUDIES IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of the Nation:

Sir: As undoubtedly many readers of the *Nation* will turn with deep interest to Dr. Leo Wiener's report on "The Slavic Languages" in the current issue of the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, I take the liberty of calling attention to an unfortunate oversight or misstatement in the closing paragraph. Dr. Wiener, after speaking of the services rendered to Slav studies by the French, Germans, and Swedes, says: "The English can speak with pride of Ralston; America has only Miss

Isabel Hapgood as the representative of Slavic studies, though in a somewhat limited field." I do not wish in the slightest to detract from Miss Hapgood's credit, but surely there were prophets before Deborah! Not to mention the anonymous translator of Nekrásof's 'Moroz Krasnui-Nos' (Mr. J. Sumner Smith of New Haven), who edited the first Russian printed book on the Eastern coast; or Mr. Eugene Schuyler, who, if not the most accurate of scholars, still deserves credit as a pioneer; Mrs. Clara B. Martin, who was prevented only by her untimely death from disputing the field of translation even with Miss Hapgood, I think that among Harvard's own sons the name of the Hon. Jeremiah Curtin shines preëminent, not only as the translator of Russian and Polish classics—a long list, of which every Harvard man ought to be proud—but also as the author of valuable contributions to Slav folk-lore. So far as attainments in linguistics are concerned, Mr. Curtin is unparalleled in American scholarship: he goes among the American Indians and speedily speaks their languages like a native; he spends a few months among the peasants of Ireland, and rescues from forgetfulness hundreds of myths and legends that would in a few years have perished from remembrance; he left the secretaryship of the Russian legation to wander through the Slavic countries, and so caught the various tricks of speech that he could pass himself off as a muzhik; he knows Polish like a native; for him the complicated mosaic of Magyar unfolds its riddle.

The study of Russian is not so new to Americans as Dr. Wiener in his young enthusiasm would have us think: another Harvard graduate, Mr. B. Pickman Mann, son of Horace Mann, now connected with the Patent Office, has for thirty years been a consistent and able advocate of studies which he began under the inspiration of the late Count Osten-Sacken. Mr. Joseph Willard of Boston, a descendant of one of Harvard's early Presidents, has no small knowledge of Slavic languages and literature. Mr. George Kennan could never have accomplished his wonderful journeys without a good working knowledge not only of Russian, but also of various dialects. Mr. Charles Dana, editor of the *Sun*, having mastered a dozen other languages, has emulated the aged Cato and taken up the study of Russian; his translations from Pushkin are a genuine contribution to our knowledge of that great poet. I might mention others, but I will content myself with finally calling to mind the Hon. Joseph S. Ropes, a graduate of a Russian university, and always bound by ties of business and friendship with Russia. Mr. Ropes not only speaks Russian fluently, but has also collected a large number of works in Russian, most of which, on the failure of his eyesight, he presented to the library of the Andover Theological Seminary.

Of course Dr. Wiener, whose services and enthusiasm in the teaching of the Slavic languages and literature deserve the warmest commendation, would not intentionally have slighted his fellow-workers in America, any more than in mentioning Mr. W. R. S. Ralston as the representative of English scholarship he would deprive Morfill and others of their credit in this field. But his use of the word "only" in connection with Miss Hapgood's studies, it seems to me, deserves this correction, and I choose the *Nation* to disseminate it in order that those who read the unfortunate paragraph may not have to wait three months before they are set right. N. H. D.

Boston, Mass., March 6, 1897.

"FOR THE NONES" IN CHAUCER.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A note in your issue of February 11, on "*For the Nonce*, Purposely, and the Like," has led me to look up the use of the phrase "for the nones" in Chaucer, with special reference to the meanings discussed by Mr. Fitzedward Hall. It is to be noticed that Prof. Skeat, who of course gives the now accepted etymology of the phrase, and comments freely on its use in the sense of "for the occasion," seems to recognize in Chaucer very slight variation from that meaning. As a matter of fact, Chaucer's most frequent use of the phrase seems to be in the vague expletive fashion which Mr. Hall calls "syllabic padding." Thus, we have, under the rendering 'for the occasion' in Skeat's Glossary, such lines as—

"The Miller was a stout carl, for the nones,"

where the idea of *occasion* is at best a vague one. The convenience of the rhyme with "bones" seems to have suggested the frequent use of the phrase in such descriptions as that of the Miller; it occurs again in the praise of the "braunes and bones" of the Monk, of Arcite, and (in the *Legend of Good Women*) of Aeneas. Of fifteen cases of "for the nones" cited by Skeat (I exclude for the moment four to be spoken of presently), there seem to me to be but five for which 'for the occasion' is wholly satisfying as a rendering. The others are of greater or less vagueness: 'once upon a time,' 'at the same time,' 'besides,' 'indeed,' are some of the renderings which would suggest themselves for a free paraphrase. Sometimes one would prefer to omit the phrase altogether—a liberty suggested by the fact that in the two cases occurring in the translation of the *Romance of the Rose* (lines 709, 1111) "for the nones" seems to represent nothing in the original.

The matter, however, which I wished especially to speak of is the use of this phrase with a suggestion of purpose, followed by "specification of what is purposed." It is under this head that Mr. Hall quotes the lines from the *Prologue* (379f.):

"A Cook they hadde with them for the nones,
To boille the chiknes with the mary-bones."

He omits the comma between the two verses, however, and implies that they should be more closely connected than has usually been done. The question which suggested itself to me was, whether there are other passages in Chaucer which would seem to justify this interpretation of 'for the nones' as the introduction of a clause of purpose. Two such passages may perhaps be found in *Troilus*. The first is in Book i., l. 561, at the conclusion of one of Pandarus's half-satirical exhortations to Troilus:

"These wordes seyde he for the nones alle,
That with swich thing he mighte him angry maken,"
etc.

In this case Skeat renders "for the nones" 'on the spur of the moment,' but gives no evidence in defence of the interpretation, which appears to be at variance with all common uses of the phrase. It would be much simpler—if we have sufficient justification—to render "for the nones" 'for the purpose,' the purpose being explained in the following line.

The other passage is very similar. It occurs in Book iv., l. 428:

"These wordes seyd he for the nones alle,
To help his freend, lest he for sorwe deyde."

Here the use of the infinitive in the second line is even more suggestive of the rendering suggested above for "for the nones." In both passages, it may be remarked, the use of the word "alle" is seemingly better suited to this interpretation than to the common one, 'for the occasion.' Since, however, the common meaning of the phrase may be adopted here with intelligible results, and since the use of "for the nones" in the sense of 'for the purpose' is at variance with Chaucer's habit, one may hesitate to lay much stress upon these considerations. The passages are at least interesting when compared with those quoted by Mr. Hall from Gawain Douglas, William Stewart, etc.

The absolute use of "for the nones" in the sense of 'purposely' is still more doubtful in Chaucer. I wish only to call attention to a passage that seems to savor of it. In the *Legend of Good Women* (Prologue), when the troop of fair ladies comes in sight of the daisy—

"Ful sodeinly they stinten alle at ones
And kneled doun, as it were for the nones,
And songen with o vois," etc.
(A-text 198; B text 295.)

Here Skeat renders "for the nones" 'for this special occasion,' which of course makes very fair sense. There is a suggestion, however, in the whole passage, of such a rendering as 'by premeditation,' 'by prearrangement,' 'as though by general consent.' The connection is close enough with both 'for the purpose' and (especially) '*purposely*,' to be suggestive of the elastic character of the phrase, and to indicate how shadowy are the border-lines between the various uses.

In conclusion, Mr. Leo Wiener has called my attention to a couple of cases of "for the nones," interesting in this connection, in Palsgrave's *Lesclarcissement de la Langue Francoyse* (1530). In his English-French list of adverbs Palsgrave inserted the phrase twice, once with an added *t*. Under the adverbs answering the question *Pour quoy?* "for the nones" is rendered "a propos; a escient;" and under those answering the question *Comment?* "for the nonest" is rendered "de mesmes," with the example: "Cest ung gallant *de mesmes*" (pp. 865, 835). The first of these cases seems to be like the use of the phrase in the sense of 'purposely, knowingly.' The second is not so easy to be sure of; perhaps one might classify it with the merely intensive or expletive uses.

Raymond Macdonald Alden.

Harvard University, March 10, 1897.

Notes.

Edward Arnold's spring announcements include 'Wild Norway,' by Abel Chapman; 'On Veldt and Farm,' by Frances McNab; 'Soldiering and Surveying in British East Africa,' by Major Macdonald; 'The Sportsman in Ireland,' a reproduction in "The Sportsman's Library"; 'Memories of the Months,' by Sir Herbert Maxwell, Bart.; 'Old English Glasses,' *i. e.*, drinking-vessels, by Albert Hartshorne; 'Treatment of Nature in Dante's Divina Commedia,' by Prof. Oscar Kuhns of Wesleyan University; and 'The Chances of Death, and Other Essays,' by Prof. Karl Pearson.

The New Amsterdam Book Co. will issue during the present month 'Death—and Afterwards,' by Sir Edwin Arnold; 'The Diary of a Resurrectionist, 1811-'12,' by James Blake Bailey; 'Premature Burial, and How It May Be Prevented,' by William Tebb and Col. E. P. Vollum, U. S. A.; 'On the Nile with a Camera,' by Anthony Wilkin, profuse-

ly illustrated; and 'The Devil-Tree of El Dorado,' a novel by Frank Aubrey.

H. S. Stone & Co. have in press 'The Fourth Napoleon,' by Charles Benham.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will shortly publish the last part of 'English and Scottish Popular Ballads,' by the late Prof. Francis J. Child, with a biographical sketch by Prof. George L. Kittredge; 'Memories of Hawthorne,' by Rose Hawthorne Lathrop; 'John Hopkins Morison: A Memoir, by his Children'; 'Reminiscences and Letters of Caroline C. Briggs,' edited by George S. Merriam; the second series of Victor Hugo's Letters, edited by Paul Meurice; 'France under Louis XV.,' by James Breck Perkins; 'The Story of the Pilgrim Fathers, 1602-1624, as told by Themselves, their Friends and their Enemies,' edited from the original sources by Edward Arber; 'The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome,' by Rodolpho Lanciani; 'A Dictionary of American Authors,' by Oscar Fay Adams; 'The Liquor Problem in its Legislative Aspect,' by Frederic H. Wines and John Koren; and 'Nature's Diary,' selections for the round year from Thoreau, Burroughs, and others.

'Nature in a City Yard,' by Charles M. Skinner; 'Talks to Young Men,' and 'Talks to Young Women,' by the Rev. Charles H. Parkhurst; and 'For the Country,' patriotic poems in war-time and in peace, by Richard Watson Gilder, will be published next month by the Century Co.

The Baker & Taylor Co. have in preparation 'The Romance of a Jesuit Mission,' an historical novel by M. Bourchier Sanford.

William Doxey, San Francisco, announces inedited 'Letters of Canova and Madame Récamier,' translated by J. W. Laing, M.A., Oxon., with an introduction by Prof. W. H. Hudson of Stanford University, and illustrations of Canova's sculptures mentioned in the correspondence.

A College Latin Series, under the general editorship of Charles E. Bennett of Cornell University and John C. Rolfe of the University of Michigan, has been undertaken by Allyn & Bacon, Boston.

We do not find Prof. Jesse Macy's 'The English Constitution' (Macmillan) altogether satisfactory. The first nine chapters aim to give such an account of the practical workings of government in England as will help American readers to a better understanding of Bryce's 'American Commonwealth'; but, while this purpose is in some degree accomplished, the information given is of a very general character, and many topics on which a thoughtful reader would wish for light are omitted altogether. Were such a thing permissible, a better and much more useful account could be made by merely weaving together the numerous and lucid explanations of English administrative usage which Mr. Bryce himself gives. The remainder of the volume, dealing with the constitutional history of England, is mainly a restatement of the opinions and conclusions of secondary authorities, and, while readable and not uninforming, contains nothing either new or distinctive. We take it that the volume is designed as a text-book for students who already know something of English history; we are inclined to think, however, that the average college student, save with most skilful guidance, would be likely to gain from it that most fatal of all knowledge—a general idea of things, unsupported by firm grasp of specific facts. We note slight misprints: the name of Mr. James Gairdner, editor of the Paston letters, appears as *Gardner* (p. 193), and that of J. R. Green, the historian, as *Greene* (pp. 193, 254). We are glad to commend the attractive style in which the volume is issued, and the admirable index. The few documents given in the appendix cannot be rendered too accessible.

In her 'Colonial Days in Old New York' (Scribners), Mrs. Alice Morse Earle very patiently reconstructs, for the Society of Colonial Dames and such others as are interested in the subject, the life of their Dutch ancestors here, and gives us a quantity of detail, some of it not new, on how their houses were furnished; what they ate and drank; how they were educated, married, and buried; how they cleaned their city streets and punished their malefactors. As a book of reference it may be more authentic than Mr. Knickerbocker's History, of which, however, it lacks the pictorial quality by reason of its very minuteness.

Capt. John Codman has just published (Bonnell, Silver & Co.) a little book called 'An American Transport in the Crimean War,' which becomes timely upon the revival of the Eastern question. The author's cousin, Mr. John Codman Ropes, writes a preface for him, in which he very justly commends the book for its sprightly narrative and humorous anecdote, rather than for its value as a contribution to the history of what he considers "the last of the picturesque wars of the world." The Turks gave Capt. Codman a thoroughly good time while he was among them, and he remembers them so pleasantly that he does not share in the prevailing cry for their ejection from Europe.

Prof. William Henry Hudson of Leland Stanford Junior University modestly offers us three essays, on Keats, Clough, and Matthew Arnold, originally prepared for lectures, under the title of 'Studies in Interpretation,' in which the contrast between the different characters of the three poets, as well as a certain affinity of each to the other in his attitude to the world and to the spiritual life, are exceedingly well thought out. The essay on Keats is the most notable of them, particularly so for its account of the influence of the French Revolution upon contemporary English literature, first as a stimulus to an ardent radicalism, and next, in the same persons, to a conservatism equally intense. The author's comparative study of the attitude of Coleridge, Wordsworth, and Byron, during this period, which profoundly affected their work, is no less interesting than the picture of Keats as a Hellene, a poet of beauty, not morals, to whom the reality of life was all ugly. The essay on Clough is well worth while, as his fine works are too little read; but while the critical analysis of his view of life is correct, it is a pity that the best of his verse has to go unquoted. An obvious misprint ("godliness" for "godlessness") on page 16 spoils the sense of a sentence.

The first volume of an Italian translation of the writings of the Senator and art critic, Giovanni Morelli, has been published by the Fratelli Treves (Milan). It will probably be followed by two others, completing the work. It contains notes and a biography of Morelli by Dr. Gustavo Frizzoni, Morelli's friend and pupil, and it is abundantly illustrated with process engravings, chiefly of pictures that are comparatively little known, or infrequently copied. These add much to the value of the work, and give the Italian a decided superiority over either the German or the English editions.

G. Hedeler, Leipzig (18 Nürnbergstrasse), sends us the first volume in his world series of Lists of Private Libraries. It deals with the United States and Canada. It is arranged alphabetically by persons, each of whom is given a number, and embraces 601 without exhausting the field. The descriptions range in length from one line to twenty-five, and exhibit varying degrees of explicitness, from the non-informing "good miscellaneous collection" to full-bodied *réclame*. The total number of volumes is only exceptionally mentioned. The largest we have noticed is 28,000. Many omissions are observable. We will instance Prof. Goldwin Smith's library in Toronto, Mr. Daniel Parish, jr.'s, anti-slavery collection in this city, and Mr. W. H. Whitmore's genealogical library in Boston. The two last would have furnished new titles or sub-titles for Mr. Hedeler's index of specialties, which, by the way, is very blind for reference by reason of faulty punctuation. There is also an index by States and towns. The descriptions are in English, German, and French, in parallel columns. Additions to this list will be made in connection with Volume ii., Great Britain. We notice the misprint of "Marquard" for Marquand.

The well-known Semitic scholar and Assistant Librarian of the Bodleian, Dr. Adolf Neubauer, has just edited, in collaboration with Mr. A. E. Cowley of Wadham College, Oxford, a Hebrew text of portions of Ecclesiastes, his recent discovery of which, among a mass of Hebrew and Arabic fragments acquired through Prof. Sayce, has excited much attention. The Bodleian fragments consist of nine consecutive leaves, eighteen pages of Hebrew MS., which (oddly enough) form the continuation of the single leaf, two pages of MS., brought to Cambridge by Mrs. S. S. Lewis, and lately translated in the *Expositor* for July, 1896, by Mr. S. Schechter, Reader in Talmudic at Cambridge. Dr. Neubauer has published the Cambridge and the Bodleian fragments continuously, covering Ecclesiastes xxxix. 15 to xlix. 11, with collotype facsimiles of the first and last pages. A complete set of collotypes covering facsimiles of all the pages may be had by sending six shillings and sixpence to the Controller of the Clarendon Press at Oxford. The importance of this critical publication by Dr. Neubauer (issued by the Clarendon Press at half a guinea) in its bearing on questions of Biblical criticism can hardly be overestimated. Hitherto the original Hebrew text of Ecclesiastes has been regarded as hopelessly lost, and the fortunate discovery of this large portion of it will consequently excite all the more interest. Dr. Neubauer's careful edition of the Hebrew is accompanied by a literal English translation, and by the Greek, Syriac, and Latin versions, and preceded by an introduction containing all that is known of the history of the book and of its author.

The steady progress of the admirable 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Française du commencement du 18e siècle jusqu' à nos jours' (Paris: Ch. Delagrave) is good to behold. The 20th fascicule of this compact and authoritative work of MM. Hatzfeld, Darmesteter, and Thomas carries the vocabulary on to *négrillon*.

The present month witnesses the founding of a *Zeitschrift für Bücherfreunde* (Bielefeld: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), to be edited by F. von Zobeltitz, a novelist of repute.

The March number of the *International Studio* (New York: John Lane) has among its more notable articles one on "Pencil Drawing

at Bushy [under Prof. Herkomer]," with many justificatory illustrations, and another on "Early Scandinavian Wood-Carvings." There is a four-page supplement, as promised, of "American Studio-Talk."

The *American Architect and Building News* Co., Boston, will supply to American subscribers the new monthly *Art et Décoration*, which has the support of such well-known artists as Puvis de Chavannes, Frémiet, J. P. Laurens, Cazin, Grasset, Merson, etc. The initial (January) number strikes a high note in its illustrations. It opens with a paper on Glass (*Vitrail*), which is followed by one, offering no little interest, on Victor Horta, "an innovator" in domestic architecture. Mr. Horta is a Belgian, and the plans, façades, and interiors of his several designs can here be studied with profit. To be remarked are his electric chandeliers unconventionally disposed at the corners of mantels or on the newel of the hall stairway.

The first number of *Municipal Affairs*, to be issued quarterly by the Reform Club of this city at No. 52 William Street, is a stout pamphlet containing, as is fit, a Bibliography of Municipal Administration and City Conditions, arranged by subject and author. Some 6,000 items are thus brought together, and not from English sources only. The aim of the compiler, Mr. Robert C. Brooks, has been to comprehend not merely the United States and Great Britain, but also France, Germany, Austria, Italy, and Spain. A list of the periodicals referred to, and a list of the principal topics of the subject-index, introduce this highly laudable work, of which the price is fifty cents.

There are, we opine, few subscribers to the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* who do not read it backwards for the class news, and who do not feel that they have got their money's worth before the general papers at the front are reached. Pursuing this progression, they will learn, from the March number, of the unrestricted gift of the late George Ticknor's Dante collection to the College Library, by his family; will scan for the first time, we think, a list of "recent musical compositions by Harvard men," mustering seven composers, some eminent; and will note the reorganization of the College Printing-Office, which is now directly controlled by the Publication Agent. They may next read and weigh the plea of Messrs. Bartlett, Francke, and Schilling in favor of establishing a Germanic Museum at Harvard; and wind up with Mr. Moorfield Storey's picture of "Harvard in the Sixties," which points out in a salutary way some of the virtues of the old régime of uniform required instruction. The orator (for this paper formed part of a Sanders Theatre address) also conveyed an idea of the war-time elevation of sentiment at Harvard as in the North at large, but, mindful of the Jingo address from the same rostrum in 1895, closed with an admirable disclaimer of any sympathy with the pretence "that war is in itself desirable or ennobling."

White Mountain tourists in the coming season should bear in mind the map of Mount Washington and vicinity published by the United States Geological Survey, and now reprinted for the New Hampshire Forestry Commission. It is a contour delineation on a scale (practically) of an inch to a mile, colored for the wooded areas. Its scope is from North Conway on the south to Berlin on the north, with Jefferson and Fabyan's for the western limit. With a number of other, smaller and pocket, maps, it accompanies the second annual report of the Forestry Commission, in which we notice the appendix containing a list of trees possessing commercial value that compose the State forests; the White Mountain bibliography; sundry addresses; and statistical tables relating to the local lumber industry.

Prof. A. Baltzer of Bern is the author of the thirtieth volume of the reports on the Geological Map of Switzerland, describing the Diluvial Glacier of the Aar, and its deposits in the neighborhood of Bern. The volume is handsomely prepared; its illustrations are particularly good, one of them being an exceptionally fine reproduction of a photograph, by Sella, showing the confluence of the two main branches of the glacier, far up among the mountains. A long pictorial section exhibits the dimensions of the diluvial glacier when it extended down the valley and overflowed the piedmont plain. The text is chiefly devoted to a detailed account of glacial action in the neighborhood of the outermost terminal moraines and the included amphitheatre of Belp, just above Bern. A special map of this district in two large sheets will prove of much value to the student who wishes quickly to review on the ground the results reached by the Swiss specialists. Regarding the vexed question of glacial erosion, Baltzer says: This problem was in earlier days treated too theoretically, but in later years extreme views have been abandoned in the light of detailed investigations, "indem beide Parteien Wasser in ihren Wein gossen."

Mr. Samuel T. Pickard, the biographer of Whittier, writes to the Boston *Transcript* March 5, protesting that the story which was quoted in our review of Mrs. Fields's 'Authors and Friends' about the burning of a waxen image by Whittier's mother cannot possibly be true. He thinks she may have seen it done, and described it so vividly that Whittier fancied he remembered her doing it herself. Mr. Pickard's argument is ingenious, but not quite convincing. It is not as if the wax-image superstition were merely a survival of Salem witchcraft. But Whittier's mother is entitled to the benefit of a doubt.

Science has not lost its hold on the solid acquisition of the Roentgen rays, albeit public interest in them has waned. We read in the Milan *Perseveranza* of February 14 that silk-culturists are now beginning to use the rays for detecting the female cocoons (whose ova are made discernible), and hence of selecting in due proportion the male cocoons, which produce a much greater quantity of silk. On the other hand, where silk has been overweighted (or charged) in dyeing, the rays detect this also and the extent of it.

An interesting side of the work of the English in Egypt is shown in the report by Mr. J. Scott on the progress of the native tribunals for the past two years. The main facts emphasized are that, through the careful supervision of the different courts, justice is to a great extent impartially administered to all alike and without unnecessary delay. To assure the permanence of this desirable reform, so far as possible, all new magistrates are chosen from the successful graduates of the Khedivial School of Law, now numbering more than one hundred students. A Boys' Reformatory has been established at Alexandria, in which the inmates are taught (besides reading and writing) gardening, carpentering, and other trades.

Exceptional opportunities for training in physiology are held out by the department of physiology in the Harvard Medical School, Boston, which offers positions for four qualified men without charge. The circular cannot readily be epitomized, but may be had of Prof. Henry P. Bowditch at the School. Applicants must possess an elementary knowledge of physiology, and a sufficient training in one or more of the biological sciences. The chosen candidates "will give the mornings of the collegiate year to research, and the afternoons to the direction of undergraduate students in experimental physiology, under the supervision of a professor in the department."

—The English Dialect Society is no more. Like those insects which perish in giving birth to their offspring, it has accumulated in print the material for the great Dialect Dictionary now in progress, and winds up its affairs by making the Dictionary its legatee. It expires with a final output of four volumes (London: Henry Frowde; New York: Macmillan), carrying the total up to 80. One, the thinnest, is a 'Bibliographical List of Works Illustrative of the Dialect of Northumberland,' by R. Oliver Heslop. Another is 'Two Collections of Derbicisms, by Samuel Pegge, A.M.,' laboriously edited from MSS. of the last century by Thomas Hallam and Prof. Skeat, who here signally exemplifies his disinterestedness in the field of the Society of which he has been the President and mainstay. Pegge's biography, by his son, offers some amusing reading, and we have marked some of the proverbs at the close of the glossary: "As lazy as Ludlam's dog, who laid himself down to bark"; "Do nothing rashly but kill fleas"; "They are pulling geese in Scotland; so here it snows." No. 79 is 'A Warwickshire Word-book,' by G. F. Northall, with not a few Shakspere citations, naturally. No. 77 is a glossary for the Lakes region, or "Lakeland," with a special view to comparing the dialect of Cumberland, Westmoreland, and North Lancashire with Icelandic. The compiler, Rev. T. Ellwood, has had the competent assistance of Mr. Magnússon, and makes out a very good case in favor of a Norse settlement. The evidence is most striking in the case of place-names—Rotha, Bratha, Greta, Wisa, where the final *a* is Icelandic for "river," all these being streams; Kirkby, etc., in which -by represents the Scandinavian word for village; Dub, "pool"; Wath, "ford"; Grund, "farm" (Holm Grund, etc.), with others equally or more striking. The -thwaites (Applethwaite, etc.) of Lakeland can all be matched in Norway. These precious volumes will not lose their worth by reason of the synthetical Dictionary. They will be resorted to for an intensive view of the several localities recorded dialectically, and, according as they are more or less discursive and literary, will always furnish a delightful browsing-ground for the student of manners as well as of language.

—Mr. Henry Gannett, in his Slater Fund pamphlet on the "Statistics of the Negroes in the United States," says that the negroes "are moving southward from the border States into those of the South Atlantic and the Gulf." The late Gen. Walker and Mr. Robert P. Porter, Superintendents of the tenth and the eleventh Census respectively, and Mr. Bryce in his 'American Commonwealth,' have made similar statements. The increase of the colored population of the border States has been small, whether considered absolutely or relatively. In the States of the far South, on the other hand, the last census showed that in 1890 there were in round numbers seven hundred thousand more negroes than there were ten years before—a gain of over 18 per cent. dur-

ing the decade. The simplest and seemingly the sufficient explanation of this marked difference in the amount and rate of increase was the one given by Mr. Gannett. No one, therefore, apparently thought it worth while to analyze the tables to be found in the publications of the tenth and eleventh censuses showing the place of birth by States and Territories of the negro inhabitants of each State and Territory. Obviously, if the Maryland negroes, for example, were emigrating southward in numbers large enough to offset the deaths among the natives of that State who had gone in the same direction at an earlier period, there would have been in 1890 among the negroes residing in the South Atlantic and Gulf States more persons born in Maryland than there were in 1880. Mr. Frederick J. Brown, in his fifty-page pamphlet upon "The Northward Movement of the Colored Population," recently published by Cushing & Co. of Baltimore, has given the result of a careful study of these tables. He proves to demonstration that there has been no appreciable southward movement of the negro population from any of the border States, even if we include in this description every State north of the latitude of Southern Tennessee. To this rule North Carolina constitutes the sole exception. From the last-named State there went forth during the decade two streams of negro emigrants. One, containing between one-third and one fourth of the whole number, moved northward; the other, and much the larger, flowed southward and westward. Mr. Brown shows that the increase of the negro population of the border States, which would naturally be much smaller than in the States to the southward, has been still further diminished by an emigration during the decade of about seventy-five thousand from the border States to the North, the negro population of which, between 1880 and 1890, made a gain of over 20 per cent. So far, therefore, from the negro moving, as Mr. Bryce supposes that he does, from the "colder, higher, and drier lands" to "regions more resembling his ancient seat in the Old World," precisely the reverse occurs. Indeed, Mr. Brown shows that even from the Far South there was an appreciable, albeit a feeble, movement to the old Free States, resulting in a net addition during the decade of some 6,000 souls to the negro population of the latter.

—As collateral to the principal theme of his pamphlet, Mr. Brown has studied with great thoroughness and patience the location and movement of the colored population of all the old slave States. He shows that there are, scattered through all these States, counties in which there are on the average nearly one hundred whites to every negro. In these sections the small negro population is on the whole decreasing. There are other regions in which the negroes are five times as numerous as the whites. In these sections, as a rule, to which, however, there are notable exceptions, the negro preponderance is becoming greater. Outside of these two classes of counties, in which the disproportion between the whites and negroes is extreme, there lies the greater portion of the entire area of the Southern States. Mr. Brown detects throughout this area, which may be called the average South, a general tendency towards a more equal diffusion of the colored population. In other words, the black belts of the South are becoming less extensive, but some portions of them, of a comparatively limited area, are becoming still "blacker" than they used to be.

—The *Boletin* of the Geographical Society of Lima, Peru, corresponding to the third trimester of Vol. VI., brings interesting news. In the annual address of the President, Dr. Luis Carranza, it transpires that, despite the financial disturbances in Peru due to the last revolution, funds have been found for continuing the publication of the great map of that country, the material for which was collected by Antonio Raimondi. This enterprise had temporarily ceased with the sixteenth sheet. The 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th, 22d, and 24th are now ready for delivery, and Nos. 21, 23, 25, 26, and 27 have been sent to the lithographer, Erhard of Paris, while Nos. 28 and 29 are drawn, and the able cartographer Baluarte is drawing Nos. 30, 31, and 32, with which the map will be complete. A new edition of this map on a smaller scale is also promised. The prospects for an early completion of Raimondi's *magnum opus*, 'El Perú,' are not encouraging, and President Carranza announces the purpose of the Society to continue the publication of his notes in the *Boletin*. We have in this number the fifth instalment of Raimondi's Itinerary ("De Lima á Morococha"), to be followed in due course by his notes on meteorology, geology, and natural history. Although these are by no means as full and satisfactory as would be the properly edited work, they will prove of such value that scholars who are interested in Peru can ill afford to be without them. Among other interesting papers in this issue is one by Capt. Melitón Carvajal on the latitude of Lima, fixing the position of the southern tower of the cathedral on the parallel 12°, 2′, 58″ S.; Humboldt's determination, 12°, 2′, 45″ S., made in 1802, being one of the closest to this latest result. Dr. Claudio Osambela gives the historical basis of Peru's claim of the Rio Madeira as its eastern frontier, and Dr. Leonardo Villar continues his scholarly and highly interesting discussions of the linguistic affinities of the Keshua with the languages of Polynesia and Asia, which he insists are feeble in the extreme, basing his argument upon word-structure, inflection, and other grammatical relations, as opposed to mere lexical resemblances.

—The minds of the Greeks are thoroughly occupied at present with the Cretan question, but, in the midst of the political turmoils, recent Athenian newspapers bring the news of three interesting archæological discoveries. In his excavations on the northern slope of the Athenian Acropolis, Kabbadias, Ephor-General of Antiquities, found other caves besides those formerly known and assigned to Apollo and to Pan, and determined that which has been called the cave of Pan to be the grotto of Apollo *akraios*. Ten votive inscriptions were there discovered, on small marble tablets which had stood in niches in the rock. These inscriptions are surrounded each by a wreath, which Kabbadias believes to represent myrtle, and each bears the names not only of the chief archon of the city, but also of the archon basileus and the thesmothetæ. The place where the altar of Apollo stood is clearly marked. This grotto is of special literary interest, since it was the birthplace of Ion, according to Euripides's play of that name. The same excavations of Kabbadias brought to light steps cut in the rock which lead to the stairs that were laid bare in the excavations of 1886. Up these steps the Persians may have climbed in their invasion of Greece under Xerxes in 480 B.C.

—At Ambeláki, on the island of Salamis, fragments have been found of an ancient inscription in the Corinthian alphabet. This proves to be the first two verses of the epitaph composed by the poet Simonides of Ceos for the Corinthians who perished in the battle of Salamis: "Once we dwelt in the well-watered city of Corinth, but now Salamis, the island of Ajax, holds us." The dialect is the strict Dorian, doubtless by the choice of the Corinthians, while the literary tradition of Dio Chrysostom and Plutarch gives the epigram of the Ionic poet in an Ionic form. Doubtless the spot where the inscription was found was the burial-place of the Corinthians. Possibly the graves of the others who fought at Salamis lie near. The third discovery was made by the Germans in their excavations near the Areopagus in Athens—a potsherd on which had been scratched in ancient characters the name of Themistocles. This was used, we may believe, either when this statesman was ostracised, about 471 B. C., or a dozen years earlier, when he succeeded in securing the ostracism of his rival, Aristides the Just. Three similar *ostraka* were previously known, one bearing the name of Megacles, uncle of Pericles, and two bearing the name of Xanthippus, the father of Pericles. Two of these were found on the Acropolis, and the other near the Ceramicus. The excavation of the theatre at Delphi by the French has been completed. This is connected with the sacred precinct (peribolos) of Apollo's temple, and is said to be well preserved. It has seven sections (*kerkides*) of seats, with thirty-three rows in each section. The theatre at Athens, scholars will remember, has thirteen sections; that at Epidaurus has fifty-two rows.

—An electrical exhibition will be held in 1899 at Como to celebrate the centenary of the invention of the Voltaic pile—Volta being a son whom Como delights to honor. It happens that Turin is going to have a similar show in 1898, but Como counts upon the prestige of Volta's name, as well as upon such relics of him as it may be possible to gather together, to counterbalance the prejudice resulting from this fact. The exhibition will not be confined to electricity alone, but will include fabrics of silk, Como's greatest actual industry. It will be interesting to see just what she does produce in this line. At present her manufacturers make a secret of it, preferring to sell their fine goods as French, for the sake of the assured market they will command. It seems that they think the time has come for following a different course. At any rate, an open competition with the looms of Lyons ought to serve Italian industry better than this underhand method. It is to the credit of the Comaschi that they follow the example of the Milanese in their last exhibition, and have determined to raise the money wanted among themselves, without asking aid from the Government. They are also about to begin a number of improvements and embellishments of their port, hoping to bring them to an end before 1899. These are, however, on a scale so vast that it may be feared that they will demand for their execution a much longer time. They include a change in the entire waterfront of Como.

RECENT POETRY.

WE have more than once called attention to the fact that the Canadian provinces, after a long period of comparative literary barrenness, are now producing a younger group of poets who are forcing our rhymers in the

United States to look to their laurels. These Northern recruits show, it is true, a tendency to cross the line and to migrate hither; but their works precede them and prepare a welcome. Prof. C. G. D. Roberts's new volume, 'The Book of the Native' (Lamson, Wolffe & Co.), goes far to vindicate the claims we have heretofore made for this author. There is in him a sense of artistic finish—"the perfection and precision of the instantaneous line," in Ruskin's phrase—without which genius leaves its work still undone. Note, for instance, the concentrated passion and power of this little blank-verse poem of only twenty-one lines (p. 65), and the cadence and commanding rhythm in the structure of the verse:

BESIDE THE WINTER SEA.

As one who sleeps, and hears across his dream
The cry of battles ended long ago,
Inland I hear the calling of the sea.
I hear its hollow voices, though between
My wind-worn dwelling and thy wave-worn strand
How many miles, how many mountains are!
And thou beside the winter sea alone
Art walking with thy cloak about thy face.
Bleak, bleak the tide, and evening coming on;
And gray the pale, pale light that wans thy face.
Solemnly breaks the long wave at thy feet;
And sullenly in patches clings the snow
Upon the low, red rocks worn round with years.
I see thine eyes, I see their grave desire,
Unsatisfied and lonely as the sea's;—
Yet how unlike the wintry sea's despair!
For could my feet but follow thine, my hands
But reach for thy warm hands beneath thy cloak,
What summer joy would lighten in thy face,
What sunshine warm thine eyes, and thy sad mouth
Break to a dewy rose, and laugh on mine.

The only criticism we should make on this is the repetition of the terminal words "thy face," and this is a fault so obvious that we must believe it to be founded on some justification in the author's mind which makes it a virtue. Another poem, in more lyric vein, is this (p. 90):

THE LONE WHARF.

The long tides sweep
Around its sleep,
The long red tides of Tantramar.
Around its dream
They hiss and stream,
Sad for the ships that have sailed afar.

How many lips
Have lost their bloom,
How many ships
Gone down to gloom,
Since keel and sail
Have fled out from me
Over the thunder and strain of the sea!

Its kale-dark sides
Throb in the tides;
The long winds over it spin and hum;
Its timbers ache
For memory's sake,
And the throngs that never again will come.

How many lips
Have lost their bloom,
How many ships
Gone down to gloom,
Since keel and sail
Have fled out from me
Over the thunder and strain of the sea!

It is to be noticed, as has already been proved by Mr. Carman, that these Canadian poets have a fine repertory of local names, some of them sonorous enough for Milton, and partly the bequest of the old French explorers—Blomidon, Grand Pré, The Basin of Minas, and Tantramar. But Prof. Roberts is strong even away from the land of which he is a native, as in the fine closing ballad of "The Laughing Sally," a sea-strain which has the vigor now so much praised in Kipling, and without Kipling's tendency to an over-robust heaviness of hand.

It is possible that the many admirers of Mr. Aldrich may feel that his 'Judith and Holofernes' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is hardly a satisfactory climax in his literary career. It is not merely handicapped, one hardly knows why, by its Scriptural name and subject; but it is also limited by the fact that blank verse, the most difficult of all measures, is not one which Mr. Aldrich has ever quite made his own. The dramatic development of the work is strong and fine, as becomes the author of 'Mercedes,' but the melody often halts; and only the varied cadence of Milton or Keats or Tennyson can relieve a long blank-verse poem from fatiguing the ear. It is not merely that there occur such tame lines as

"Fairer than morning in Arabia";

or,

"In no one day had he so drank [*sic*] of wine";

or,

"Nigh unto Dothaim they buried her";

but one has only to read aloud any dozen continuous lines to be made aware of a certain monotony in the work. For an inferior author this would be less important—we might even say that the poem gave great promise; but the perfect beauty of many of Mr. Aldrich's shorter poems has established for him a standard by which he must inevitably be tried. He reaches perhaps his highest point of mere execution in the following passage (p. 75):

As in some breathless wilderness at night
A leopard, pinioned by a falling tree
That takes him unaware curled up in sleep,
Shrieks, and the ghostly echo in her cave
Mimics the cry in every awful key
And sends it flying through her solitudes:
So shrieked Bagoas, so his cry was caught
And voiced from camp to camp, from peak to peak.
Then a great silence fell upon the camps,
And all the people stood like blocks of stone
In a deserted quarry: then a voice,
Blown through a trumpet, clamored: He is dead!
The Prince is dead! The Hebrew witch hath slain
Prince Holofernes! Fly, Assyrians, fly!

Upon the sounding of that baleful voice
A panic seized the silent multitude.
In white dismay from their strong mountain-hold
They broke, and fled. As when the high snows melt,
And down the steep hill-flanks in torrents flow,
Not in one flood, but in a hundred streams:
So to the four winds spread the Asshur hosts,
Leaving their camels tethered at the stake,
Their brave tents standing, and their scattered arms

The curious little volume which certainly presents its worst side in its title, 'Seen and Unseen, or Monologues of a Homeless Snail,' by Yone Noguchi (San Francisco: Burgess), has been received more coldly than one would have supposed by the Whitman Brotherhood, since it is really a reasonable logical deduction from their own cult. If a robust formlessness makes greatness in Whitman, why should not a more fragile and attenuated formlessness prove attractive in the 'Homeless Snail'? The two products differ only as America differs from Japan, and the big or burly from the delicate and slender. The face of the young author is boyish and appealing; and that at which he aims is not wholly beyond his reach, for he defines it as "The Mighty Nothing in No More." Since that hero in Bailey's 'Festus,' whose achievement was to fall "into himself" and to be "missing ever after," there has been no such complete self-surrender; and there are sometimes graceful glimpses of pure and delicate fancies by the way, and a fastidious purity of thought which must to those reared on Whitman appear a little fantastic and indicative of debility. The following stanza, if such it be, sums up as well as any the whole attitude of Yone Noguchi (p. 32):

THE SEAS OF LONELINESS.

Underneath the void-colored shade of the trees, my "self" passed as a drowsy cloud into Somewhere.
I see my soul floating upon the face of the deep, nay, the faceless face of the deepless deep—
Ah, the Seas of Loneliness!
The mute-waving, silence waters, ever shoreless, bottomless, heavenless, colorless, have no shadow of my passing soul.
Alas, I, without wisdom, without foolishness, without goodness, without badness, am like god, a negative god, at least!
Is that a quail? One voice out of the back hill jumped into the ocean of loneliness.
Alas, what sound resounds; what color returns; the bottom, the heaven, too, reappears!
There is no place of muteness! Yea, my paradise is lost in this moment!
I want not pleasure, sadness, love, hatred, success, unsuccess, beauty, ugliness—only the mighty Nothing in No More.

It is often to be noticed that the poetry of a painter is apt to be rich and incongruous, exhibiting odd schemes of color and confused strokes which seem far worse in words than on canvas. This is eminently true of Mr. Lawrence Housman's 'Green Arras' (John Lane), a volume of poems illustrated by himself, the same wealth and exuberance being visible in pictures and verses, but even more in the latter. So careless is the execution that a number of mere grammatical errors have to be corrected in an extra leaf. Most of the poems show power; some, as "The House of Birth," exhibit depth of thought and feeling; but the following is the sweetest and calmest among them all (p 78):

HOMEWARD BOUND.

Face of delight, recall of love,
Sea-frontage of the pleasant isles,
The sunlight strikes our sails above,
And night draws in the leeward miles.

We bring you visions of the south,
Sea-dreams of many a bathing star,
From many a moon-white river's mouth,
We travellers waveworn from afar.

With overhead the light grown grand,
On sails that clutch the homeward breeze:
And lo! the dipping of the land,
And heart's-ease of the harbored seas.

John Davidson, author of 'New Ballads' (John Lane), is a type of those younger English poets who vibrate between primrose paths or soft serenades to Miranda and the grim realities of English lowly life—things which become grimmer still in their somewhat crude utterance. Such honest rudeness of sympathy, apparent in this author's previous works, is more marked than ever here; it shows itself in his very titles, as "A Song of the Road," "A Northern Suburb," "A Ballad of a Workman," and is written out plainly in such strains as this (p. 96):

PIPER, PLAY!

Now the furnaces are out,
And the aching anvils sleep;
Down the road the grimy rout
Tramples homeward twenty deep.
Piper, play! Piper, play!
Though we be o'erlabored men,
Ripe for rest, pipe your best!
Let us foot it once again!

Bridled looms delay their din;
All the humming wheels are spent;
Busy spindles cease to spin.
Warp and woof must rest content.
Piper, play! Piper, play!
For a little we are free.
Foot it, girls, and shake your curls,
Haggard creatures though we be!

Racked and soiled the faded air
Freshens in our holiday;
Clouds and tides our respite share;
Breezes linger by the way.
Piper, rest! Piper, rest!
Now, a carol of the moon!
Piper, piper, play your best!
Melt the sun into your tune!

We are of the humblest grade:
Yet we dare to dance our fill!
Male and female were we made,—
Fathers, mothers, lovers still.
Piper softly; soft and low;
Pipe of love in mellow notes,
Till the tears begin to flow
And our hearts are in our throats.

Yet, well meant as is the intention, it is doubtful whether a strain like this would really touch either the class described, or the class who will read Mr. Davidson's poems. He who can reach both is the true poet of the people.

Another English rhymer whose heart seems always divided between Nellie or Elaine on the one side and the deepest human problems on the other is Mr. F. B. Money-Coutts (John Lane), and he expresses pity, in a sonnet to Matthew Arnold, for all influences which took that poet away from the muse. In his 'Poems' Mr. Money-Coutts gives a pleasing impression of home affections, and some good sketches of travel, as in the following (p. 65):

ALDEBURG.

Once more I watch the pale and writhing lips
Of this old sea that gnaws around the land.
How lonely are the surges and the strand!
The fishermen are gone, and fled the ships;
The billows, that the cruel tempest whips,

Shake their gray manes and plunge along the sand;
Round dying day no stars attendant stand;
Far o'er the foam the floating beacon dips.
When last I wandered here, in childhood's hour,
The sky was blue, the waves were all aglow;
Ah! then my heart unfolded, like a flower
Enisled in innocence; no stormy stower
Of worldly waters, no unfathomed flow
Of passion compassed me with empty woe.

The unusual word "stower" is doubtless the "stour" or "stoor" of the dictionaries; a provincial English word for rushing water.

In looking for a woman's book representing this double striving after the ideal and the actual, one may well select 'The Flower-Seller, and Other Poems' (Longmans), by Lady Lindsay. In various ways she attempts the purely poetic side, and once reaches it in a really strong poem, such as perhaps no other woman now writing poetry in England—except the two mysterious ladies who pose as "Michael Field"—could have excelled (p. 85):

THE STORMY PETREL.

Harbinger of death and danger, o'er the darkling furrowed sea
Rides the Stormy Petrel telling where the gathered whirlwinds be.
Bird of Fate, whom we should welcome, counting thee as truly blest
For thy tidings and thy warnings timely brought from east or west,
Know'st not that an ill-tongued prophet is by all men deemed accurst—
He that soonest cries disaster, he that sees far doom the first?

Thou and thy weird web-footed brethren, sable-featured, tempest-toss'd,
Ye are held for souls of pirates, errant-drifting, sentenced, lost,
Spirits of such crafty Norsemen as in rapine ruled the main,
Shedding blood for very fierceness, lust of treasure and of gain,
Now condemned to wander ever, evermore to dip and lave
Black-stained sins, black deeds of old time, in the crystal-crested wave.

Say, ye wraiths of Viking rovers, grim and dreaded buccaneers,
Whose vindictive quest of white sails still across mid-ocean steers,
Tracking wreck and bringing wreckage—say, in mystic demon form,
Do ye plan and tread, commanding, every footprint of the storm?

Nay, poor Petrel, here's a story writ for thee through gentler lore:
Named wert thou, that walk'st the water, from the impetuous saint of yore—
Peter—who by faith would gladly step with trembling human feet
On the Lord's own shining pathway, there his gracious Lord to greet.
Fear not. He whose touch upheld the apostle's life on Galilee,
Gave thy wings, strong and sustaining, O thou wandering bird, to thee!

Yet when Lady Lindsay turns—evidently with a full heart—to the sorrows of the humbler world around her, she gives the impression of touching it with her finger-tips only and with hands very carefully gloved, as thus (p. 109):

I know a churchyard in the city's core,
And yonder deep in humble grave she lies
And waits for me. The busy people pass
Beside, around, with heedless rapid tread:
The trader who on anxious gain is bent,
Th' apprentice, boyish still and fresh of heart,
The working woman, saddened ere her prime;
And w zened children, playing at tip-cat,
Crouch on the graves, or beggar girls, quite lost
To what's refined, sit sighing, suckling babes
They'd g adly push beneath the close head-stones,
And stretch out greedy palms to garner pence.

This "quite lost to what's refined" gives a fatal impression of a mental remoteness which excludes the author hopelessly from all contact with the real situation. Not thus would Elizabeth Fry or Jane Addams or Mrs. Ballington Booth seek and save the lost; and yet the author's intent is unimpeachable.

Mr. Arthur Thomas Quiller Couch, who publishes under the initial "Q" a volume of 'Poems and Ballads' (London: Methuen), has long since shown a genuine but wayward power, which rises in this volume to the highest point in a really remarkable blank verse poem, "Columbus at Seville," which, although suggesting Browning in its more dramatic portions, yet shows in its conclusion an effectiveness of rhythm that rather recalls the fine versification of Tennyson (pp. 52, 69):

"At Salamanca then they tested us;
Churchmen and schoolmen and cosmogoners
In council. 'Hey!' and 'What?' 'The earth a sphere?
And two ways to Cathaia?' 'Tut and tush!'
'Feared the Cathaians then no blood in the head
From walking upside-down?' 'Pray did I know
Of a ship 'would sail up-hill?' 'Had I not heard
Perchance of latitudes where the wheel of the sun
Kept the sea boiling? Of the tropic point
Where white men turned hop-skip to blackamoors?'
'And hark ye, sir, to what Augustine says
And here is Cosmas' map. "God built the world
As a tabernacle: sky for roof and sides,
And earth for flooring. . . . Made all men to dwell
Upon the face of it"—the face, you hear,
Not several faces—"On foundations laid
The earth abides"—foundations, if you please,
Not mid-air. Soothly, sir, at your conceits
We smile, but warn you that they lie not far
On this side heresy. "Antipodes," hey?
Our Mother Church annuls the Antipodes.'

Fools, fools, Diego! Ay, but folly makes
More orphans than malevolence.
There I stood
Rejected, and the good queen looked on me.
She did not smile. Thank God she did not smile.
She did not speak. I saw the mute lips move
Compassionate, and took defeat, went forth.
. . . . . .
Further than I have travelled she hath fared:
But I shall follow. Soon will come the call:
And I shall grip the tiller once again.
The purple night shall heave upon the floor
Mile after mile; the dawn invade the stars,
The stars the dawn—how long? And following down
The moon's long ripple, I shall hear again
The frigate-bird go wh'stling—see the flash——
The light on Guanahani! Salvador!
Let thy Cross flame upon me in that star,
And from that Cross outstretch *her* sainted hands!"

In 'Verses and Sonnets,' by Hilaire Belloc (London: Ward), the jesting is rather flat, and the more serious part of the little volume is chiefly valuable for the combination of French landscape with English descriptions of nature, as in the following (p. 57):

MAY.

This is the laughing-eyed amongst them all:
My lady's month. A season of young things.
She rules the light with harmony, and brings
The year's first green upon the beeches tall.
How often, where long creepers wind and fall
Through the deep woods in noonday wanderings,
I've heard the month, when she to echo sings,
I've heard the month make merry madrigal.

How often, bosomed in the breathing strong
Of mosses and young flowerets, have I lain
And watched the clouds, and caught the sheltered song—
Which it were more than life to hear again—
Of those small birds that pipe it all day long
Not far from Marly by the memoried Seine.

The modest volume called 'An Opal: Verses,' by Ednah Proctor Clarke (Lamson), recalls in more ways than one the volume equally small and also called 'Verses' in which Helen Hunt (Mrs. Jackson) first made it evident that another woman's voice, full of passion and penetration, had made itself heard. There is a more positive dramatic march in some of the present author's narrative sketches; and her new delineation of Circe has a profounder moral meaning, if less of superb passion, than the "Ariadne" of her predecessor; but there is a quality and execution which "H. H." might have envied in the title-poem of the book (p. 11):

AN OPAL.

A rose of fire shut in a veil of snow;
An April gleam athwart a misted sky:
A jewel—a soul! gaze deep if thou wouldst know
The flame-wrought spell of its pale witchery
And now each tremulous beauty lies revealed,
And now the drifted snow doth beauty shield.

So my shy love, aneath her kerchief white,
Holdeth the glamour of the East in fee;
Warm Puritan—who fears her own delight,
Who trembleth over that she yieldeth me.
And now her lips her heart's rich flame have told;
And now they pale that they have been so bold.

The hymns of Eliza Scudder are so thoroughly established in the hymn-books of all denominations that the reprint, slightly enlarged, of her 'Hymns and Sonnets' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) needed nothing to make it attractive except the admirable and candid sketch of her brief career by Mr. Horace E. Scudder. He has shown simply and clearly how she passed from her Calvinistic training into liberal Unitarianism, and then, under the strong influence of Bishop Brooks, into the Episcopal Church. He says, and perhaps justly, that her later hymns, such as "Lines for Music" and "Vesper Hymn," breathe more of the air of divine content than those written in her unchurched days; but he does not point out the noticeable fact that these later ones have taken, at least as yet, no such strong hold upon the hymn-books. No one has yet fully explained why it is that, in this country especially, so large a portion of the hymns actually used by evangelical churches were composed by Unitarians or Quakers; insomuch that the two hymns generally recognized as carrying the spiritual life to its highest and tenderest point—"Nearer, My God, to Thee" and "While Thee I Seek"—both came from exceedingly heretical sources. The hymn most widely sung, no doubt, among those contributed by Miss Scudder is the following (p. 3):

THE LOVE OF GOD.

Thou Grace Divine encircling all,
A soundless, shoreless sea,
Wherein at last our souls must fall,
O Love of God most free!

When over dizzy heights we go,
One soft hand blinds our eyes;
The other leads us safe and slow,
O Love of God most wise!

And though we turn us from Thy face
And wander wide and long,
Thou hold'st us still in thine embrace,
O Love of God most strong!

The saddened heart, the restless soul,
The toil-worn frame and mind,
Alike confess Thy sweet control,
O Love of God most kind!

But not alone Thy care we claim,
Our wayward steps to win;
We know Thee by a dearer name,
O Love of God within!

And, filled and quickened by Thy breath,
Our souls are strong and free
To rise o'er sin and fear and death,
O Love of God, to Thee!

Mr. Telford Groesbeck's 'The Incas, the Children of the Sun' (Putnams), has the sufficient endorsement of Mr. Clements R. Markham as to its historic truthfulness. He adds also his verdict as to its poetic character; this, however, being less clearly within his domain. We should say that the value of the handsomely printed volume must be sought rather in the prose historical appendix and glossary than in the rhymed portion, which has no peculiar charm, or in the illustrations, which are florid and melodramatic. Mr. Francis Sherman, in his 'Matins' (Boston: Copeland), shows thoughtfulness, serious purpose, facility in versification, and occasionally very bad taste. His outdoor poems, however, seldom fail of a sympathetic appreciation of the finer aspects of nature, as in the following (p. 23):

THE LAST FLOWER.

O Golden-rod, well worshipped of the sun!
Where else hath Summer tarried save in thee?
This meadow is a barren thing to see,
For here the reapers' toil is over and done.
Of all her many birds there is but one
Left to assail the last wild raspberry;
The buttercups and daisies withered be,
And yet thy reign hath only now begun.
O sign of power and sway imperial!
O sceptre thrust into the hands of Fall
By Summer ere Earth forgot her soft foot's tread
O woman-flower, for love of thee, alas,
Even the trees have let their glory pass,
And now with their gold hair are garlanded.

An author has not really made his mark until he begins to have imitators, and Mr. Robert W. Chambers has furnished Mr. Kipling with this tribute in his 'With the Band' (Stone & Kimball). The familiar properties are all here—the Irish dialect, the troop-ship, and at necessary intervals "Gawd." Lest there should be a doubt about it, one poem is expressly inscribed to Mr. Kipling, with some wholesome hints as to the mission and limitations of the English Tommy Atkins. It is also to be said to the author's credit that he has added some poems having a touch of tenderness which Mr. Kipling keeps to himself if he carries it about him—a touch which is at his best in "Eily Considine," the ballad of the regimental belle and beauty of other days,

now an old woman selling apples at the barrack gate (p. 9):

At the barrack-gate she sits,
Elly Considine;
Now she dozes, now she knits,
While the sunshine, through the slits
In the trellised trumpet-vine,
Warms old Elly Considine,—
Warms her heart that long ago
Set the Regiment aglow!
Sweeter colleen ne'er was seen
Than Eileen,
Lips that flamed like scarlet wine,
Eyes of azure smile divine,—
Is that you
Selling apples
Where the gilded sunlight dapples,
Elly Considine?

'The Tearless Land: A Collection of Poems on Heaven,' compiled by M. C. Hazard, Ph.D. (Congregational Sunday-School Society), has as a compilation the defect, hardly separable from such a work on such a subject, that it inevitably includes a large proportion of the commonplace, and makes the reader doubt whether, after all, it would not have been better to cancel all the pages except those which include Edwin Arnold's "He who died at Azan" or Longfellow's "Into the Silent Land." Goethe describes himself as having been, in youth, among a circle of good people to whom all the details of the next world were so familiar that, when they met you in that abode, they would undoubtedly crowd around you exclaiming, "There, I told you so!" Yet he does not describe this over-familiar handling as having had a very good effect on his own mind, but rather as having created a slight antagonism, so that he rather hoped that immortality might not be a real fact. On the other hand, it is true that such books as this will be most eagerly sought by those who are already convinced; and for these the compilation is well and carefully made, being subject only to the criticism based upon a slight sense of excess. A collection on a quite different theme, but liable in some degree to the same charge of undiscriminating quantity, is 'Love's Demesne: A Garland of Contemporary Love Poems' (Dodd, Mead & Co.). It has been edited in two volumes by George H. Ellwanger, with some labor, obviously, and contains many good things, but also much that is mediocre, while omitting love-poems so remarkable as Helen Hunt's "Burnt Ships" and Saxe Holm's "Three Kisses of Farewell."

Mr. Owen Seaman's 'The Battle of the Bays' (John Lane) is a series of amusing skits on Swinburne, Edwin Arnold, Davidson, Le Gallienne, and the rest. Nothing so good of the kind has been published since Sir Frederick Pollock's 'Leading Cases' in that vein wherein Englishmen, for some reason, surpass Americans; it being, indeed, the only direction, except perhaps dinner-table talk, in which their lightness of touch surpasses ours. There is not the slightest comparison to be made, for instance, in this respect between Mr. Seaman's little book and 'The Acrobatic Muse,' by Mr. R. K. Munkittrick (Chicago: Way & Williams). Among American subjects, the Englishman finds naturally his best game in Whitman, always so easy to mimic in all but his merits; and in the present case the especial theme of the imaginary discourse makes it a palpable hit (p. 71):

SWORDS AND PLOUGHSHARES.

Part I. Presto Furioso.

Spontaneous Us!
O my Camarados! I have no delicatesse as a diplomat,
but I go blind on Libertad!
Give me the flap-flap of the soaring Eagle's pinions!
Give me the tail of the British lion tied in a knot,
inextricable, not to be solved anyhow!
Give me a standing army (I say "give me," because
just at present we want one badly, armies being
often useful in the time of war).

I see a superb fleet (I take it that we are to have a
superb fleet built almost immediately).
I observe the crews prospectively, they are constituted
of various nationalities, not necessarily American;
I see them sling the slug and chew the plug:
I hear the drum begin to hum;

Both the above rhymes are purely accidental and contrary to my principles.
We shall wipe the floor of the mill-pond with the scalps
of able-bodied British tars!
I see Professor Edison about to arrange for us a torpedo-hose on wheels, likewise an infernal electro-
semaphore;
I see Henry Irving dead-sick and declining to play
Corporal Brewster;
Cornell, I yell! I yell Cornell!

I note the Manhattan boss leaving his dry-goods store
and investing in a small Gatling gun and a ten-
cent banner;
I further note the Identity evolved out of forty-four
spacious and thoughtful States:
I note Canada as shortly to be merged in that Identity;
similarly Van Dieman's Land, Gibraltar, and
Stratford-on-Avon;
Briefly, I see Creation whipped!

. . . . . .

Part II. Intermezzo Doloroso.

(Allowing time for the fall of American securities to the extent of some odd hundred millions sterling; also for the Day of Rest.)

Part III. Andante Amabile.

Who breathed a word of war?
Why, surely we are men and Plymouth brothers!
Pray, what in thunder should we cut each other's
Carotids for?

Merciful powers forefend!
For we by gold-edged bonds are bound alway,
Besides a lot of things that never pay
A dividend!

. . . . . .

Say, sirs, and shall we sever?
And mar the fair exchange of fatted steers,
Chicago pig, and eligible peers?
No! never, never!

Shall gore be made to flow?
Like kindred Sohrabs shall we knock our Rustums,
And blast our beautiful McKinley customs?
Lord love us! no!

Then, burst the sundering bar!
Our punctured pockets yearn across the ocean;
Till now we never had the faintest notion
How dear you are!

O love of other years!
Wall Street, aweary from her broken bliss,
Waits like a loving crocodile to kiss
Again with tears!

An Essay on the Present Distribution of Wealth in the United States. By Charles B. Spahr. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1896.

THIS work professes to be written to illustrate the proposition that, upon matters within its field, the common observation of common people is more trustworthy than the statistical investigations of the most unprejudiced experts. Indeed, the author has come to believe that social statistics are to be trusted only when they confirm common observation. It is hard to say whether the boldness or the convenience of this proposition is more admirable. It is certainly most comfortable to be assured that we may dispense with all laborious investigation and trust to our general impressions. One of Gen. Grant's secretaries of the treasury, we recollect, reached the conclusion that the farmers of the country were prosperous by looking out of the car window on his way from Massachusetts to Washington and observing some flourishing crops; but, for obvious reasons, a conclusion so reached may be erroneous. Moreover, as the "common observation" of some people directly contradicts that of others, those who hold to Mr. Spahr's doctrine must content themselves with the conviction that their own impressions are correct, without being able to offer any reason why other people should accept them. But we need not say that it is no great luxury to hold opinions which the world is at perfect liberty to reject; particularly when we hold them only on condition that we admit that the opinions contrary to our own are as valid as those which we entertain.

By way of illustrating his proposition that social statistics are of no value, Mr. Spahr proceeds to employ them to demonstrate his theories. We search in vain in this book for any definite propositions established by "common observation." Some vague statements, it is true, are offered as the result of this process, but they are very few. On the other hand, the book is full of statistical tables and numerical returns and estimates, which are accepted as conclusive when they support the author's prejudices, and condemned when they do not. He is confronted with the fact that in New York city the number of savings-bank accounts is nearly twice as great as the number of families, and dismisses this evidence with the comment that two-thirds of the families possess no savings-bank account at all. This assertion appears to be based wholly on the ground that a comparison for a short period of the probate records of the city with the returns of mortality indicated that only 600 males, out of 2,500 who died, left estates that were administered through the Surrogate's Court. This is a fair specimen of the author's methods as a statistician. His general conclusions are that, in this country as a whole, one family out of a hundred owns as much property as the other ninety-nine; that two fifths of the product of industry goes as the share of capital; that "one-tenth of the families have the same aggregate income as the remaining nine-tenths, while the one per cent. at the top have as much as the fifty per cent. at the bottom," and that our taxes place "upon the property of those struggling for independence burdens fourfold heavier than upon the property of those already rich."

The slightest examination of the author's reasoning shows that these conclusions are not worth the paper they are written on, and it would be easy to pulverize his argument in detail, were the game worth the candle. We must confine ourselves to remarking that Mr. Spahr wholly ignores the distribution of our pension largess of $140,000,000 a year, the existence of a horde of recipients of the public revenue, and the provision of free education, free libraries, free medical service, etc., at the expense of the public—to say nothing of the wealthy—whereby, according to his theories, the money raised by taxes is beneficially diffused. He assumes on the one hand that customs and excise duties, licenses, etc., are paid by consumers, and on the other hand that taxes on real estate are not paid by tenants, nor income taxes by any persons except those who receive the income. In other words, an importer or a liquor-seller charges to his customers what the Government exacts from him in duties or licenses, but if the exaction is called an income tax he pays it out of his own profits. No wonder that Mr. Spahr cries out for an income tax; but it must be a progressive one, or, if the Supreme Court will not allow it, let us have what more nearly approaches confiscation, a progressive property tax. He wants to have incomes which he thinks "in excess of the demands of comfort or culture or character" reduced; but his own figures show that no average family, if equality is justice, ought to have an income of more than $1,000 a year, if indeed it ought to have half that. If a scheme of confiscation is to be adopted in this country, it is safe to say that it will not be regulated by Mr. Spahr's views of justice, but by those of the majority of the people; and if he supposes that they are going to exempt a rich man who pleads character or culture in extenuation of his income, he is altogether mistaken as to the nature of the passions that he is trying to stir up. It is perhaps hardly necessary to add that Mr. Spahr attributes most of our recent miseries to "the con-

traction of the currency that has followed the legislation against silver in 1873 and 1893."

In the Land of Tolstoi. By Jonas Stadling and Will Reason. New York: Thomas Whittaker.

THE sub-title of this volume, "Experiences of Famine and Misrule in Russia," will not only afford a suggestion as to its contents, but, no doubt, prove a strong attraction for the people who have already made up their minds on the subject of Russia in general, and the delights of reading an arraignment of their neighbors in particular. Evil-speaking and a pessimistic view of things are tacitly admitted to be more entertaining than kind words and a charitable view of the circumstances connected with the reprehensible deeds to which we object on our neighbor's part. No doubt, the Russian Government may have been remiss in not turning its attention to the wide-spread failure of the crops in the grain-raising districts sufficiently early in the day, and may, thereby, have laid itself open to the accusation of being, in some degree, responsible for the great famine of 1891-'92. But it certainly is not fair to throw the whole blame upon the "bureaucratic system." Let the assistant author, Mr. Reason, who would appear to be an Englishman, apply the same course of argument to the British Government in connection with the present famine and plague in India, and he will speedily find himself able to draw the line of blame with more accuracy. We feel safe in assuming that he will not indulge in wholesale condemnation of the "system," independent of natural causes and the circumstances which fetter the natives as in a grasp of iron.

The necessity for saying this much by way of preface to our consideration of the contents of the volume is forced upon us by the presence of a great mass of matter which, though extremely interesting in itself, does not come from personal knowledge of the chief author, Mr. Stadling, and has been culled from various printed sources, wherever he found the material suited to his object. Some of this material had already been presented to the public by previous writers, with more or less fulness. But it is far from being out of place here, since it amplifies and renders interesting what might have seemed too slight without it, and it possesses the advantage of affording a better view of several sides of one or two matters than Mr. Stadling would have been able to offer without such assistance. One decided disadvantage—to his own case—which Mr. Stadling does not seem to have detected, is also attached thereto, as we shall point out later on.

We may say, at the outset, that the book is well planned to give as complete a history as possible of Count L. N. Tolstoi from the social, not the literary, point of view, by dint of a summary biography, translations of short stories from his pen, and the like. The pictures, chiefly from photographs taken on the spot by the author (apparently), add greatly to the effect of lifelikeness. But the principal interest lies in the accounts, too scanty by comparison, of Mr. Stadling's acquaintance with the Count, his relatives and helpers, at the scenes of suffering, whither he went to carry certain contributions from England and the United States, gathered among Baptists whose sympathies went out to the Stundists, some of whom call themselves Baptists. Of such there were none where Count Tolstoi himself was working, though Mr. Stadling found a few in the Samara government, where the Count's third son was in charge. For the Count himself Mr. Stadling seems to cherish an almost unbounded admiration, though it is pleasant to see that he retains sufficient independence to indulge in this mild protest: "It is true that, in his 'Kingdom of Heaven is within You,' he uses arguments that seem to many of us to be invalid, and draws inferences from Christ's words that strike us as unwarranted, and that in his books generally he expresses opinions that are no more certainly true than other men's opinions; and of course he believes in them, as we all believe in our own, and very rightly, so long as we really think them, and do not merely reflect the opinions of those about us."

The true aim of the book, however, to which the greater part of it is devoted, and for which the visit to the Tolstoi fields of famine-work and the sufferers serves only as the introduction, is the status of the Stundists and Nonconformists in Russia. This subject Mr. Stadling begins to deal with as soon as he reaches Samara, and, leaving the reader to enjoy the other part for himself, we will take up the subject at that point, with the preliminary comment that it would have been well had our author been able to preserve the admirably unprejudiced note which he had already struck in the paragraph we have quoted, and applied his clear judgment to certain of the anecdotes and incidents which he cites with rather too gentle a credulity. It certainly is effective to say of a chant which he heard, that, "like all Russian songs, it was in a minor strain. . . . These simple, wailing tunes have been shaped during centuries of remorseless persecution, and express the striving after light and freedom of many thousands of souls." That is his keynote—remorseless persecution—for the greater part of the volume. Anything which confirms that view he quotes, as the statement that "several public spirited and wealthy gentlemen had offered to establish practical schools of different kinds, at their own cost, but had not been permitted to do so." No doubt that may have happened, under some circumstances; but what were the circumstances (for many such schools exist, and the Russian newspapers are constantly recording the establishment of others)?

One extremely interesting chapter treats of Prince Dmitri Khilkoff (not the famous present Minister of Public Ways), and the intolerant manner in which the authorities dealt with him. Yet the very last paragraph in the preceding chapter furnishes an exhibition of equal, though impotent, intolerance on the part of the author. Speaking of the ceremony of Blessing the Waters of the Volga, he says that he took some pictures of it—"one of which has been reproduced by the artist, showing the 'holy pavilion' and other details of the Orthodox tomfoolery." It is not possible to do justice to the case of Prince Khilkoff here, and we recommend our readers to investigate it for themselves. While we would not rashly question or doubt any of the author's assertions, or his choice of extracts from the testimony of others upon which he depends, our confidence in his judgment receives a severe shock in the following chapter, entitled "A Ruined Family." This contains another tale of woe, which is founded chiefly upon the statements of a member of it; wherein, precisely, lies the difficulty. The young woman in question furnished Mr. Stadling with her own autobiography, which he and she evidently regard as unusual and verging on martyrdom. Yet that young woman asserts that, while only sixteen years old, and still a school-girl, she was often invited to Court; and at the age of eighteen, while her family was (according to the dates given) still wealthy, she went directly from school to take the place of a teacher, at a handsome salary, in South Russia. These facts are not to be reconciled by any one who is at all cognizant of social matters. Then the young woman goes through the period of unrest common to all young people, and ends by thinking that the eyes of the whole country are upon her. It is almost as harrowing as Mr. Stadling's one exciting adventure, when, after addressing a Stundist meeting, in very cautious language, he was informed that "a gentleman had been inquiring" for him at his lodgings. This he immediately interpreted into a thrilling encounter with the police, though he never heard anything about "the gentleman" afterwards, and the incident had no sequel.

The inevitable inference, on the part of any unprejudiced person, is, that many of the "persecutions" and "oppressions" are exaggerated, though that there is a foundation for the assertion that dissent from the Orthodox Church is discouraged, is not in the least doubtful. And precisely here appears the disadvantage, for his own case, of Mr. Stadling's very interesting and copious quotations on that subject, from Russian authorities, which constitute the last third of his book. Had he possessed any sense of humor, he would have omitted them, and thereby deprived the reader of one of the finest opportunities which any bookmaker has yet furnished us, of comparing the spirit of both parties to this religious conflict, and of perceiving the solid foundation in common sense of the Government's and the Church's objections to dissent in general. We advise our readers carefully to peruse for themselves this quoted (and duly credited) portion of the book, beginning with Chapter XIV. We are much mistaken if their verdict does not turn out to be that, by Mr. Stadling's own showing, there are certain very dreadful excesses to which dissent, in general, is peculiarly liable—not in Russia alone, for the cases could be matched in many other lands—from the Russian temperament, combined of mysticism and logic, and to which members of the Established Church do not yield; and that the campaign, on the part of Government and Church, against these Stundists, and others of like dissenting views, is less as heretics than as offenders against commonly accepted moral standards, which have to do with the common weal. Mr. Stadling has succeeded in pleading the cause of Government and Church in a very able and convincing, if, also, in a perfectly unintentional and unconscious, manner; and they should feel under obligations to him for this fair juxtaposition of the golden and the silver sides of the shield.

The Contest over the Ratification of the Federal Constitution in the State of Massachusetts. By Samuel Bannister Harding. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

MR. HARDING'S paper, of some 116 pages, with several appendices, is the result, he tells us, of work done in connection with the Seminary of American History and Institutions of Harvard University. His study of the original sources has brought out or distinctly emphasized one or two points. One is that the struggle over the Constitution was really decided by Massachusetts. The forces for and against were so nearly divided that, had not

many anti-Federalist towns been unrepresented in the convention, the Constitution might have been defeated. Besides this, it was in Massachusetts that the most serious obstacles to the Federal plan were obviated by the device of ratification accompanied by amendments.

Another is the character of the opposition to the Constitution. Democracy against Aristocracy, and Local Self-Government against Centralization, were the cries of which it took advantage; but nothing is more certain than that the main social forces which underlay it were ignorance and dishonesty and dislike of government of any kind. Different as the country is to-day from what it was a hundred years ago, there is hardly an anarchistic cry or Populist slogan which cannot be matched in these pages from the anti-Federalist literature. Among those who did their utmost to defeat the Constitution, there was just the same hatred of lawyers (they were shrewd enough to personify their enemy in this way), the same suspicion and dislike of creditors, the same love of legal tender and dislike of a fixed standard, the same belief that every one opposed to them was English in sympathy or else corrupt, the same idea that they were all being oppressed by some one. Shays, with his Rebellion, plays the part of an eighteenth-century Debs or Altgeld; some eighteen or twenty of the delegates to the Constitutional Convention had been in his "army" the year before (p. 59). There was the same opposition, too, between city and country, and between the commercial classes (*i. e.*, those having connection with the world at large) and the local agricultural interests. The Ashfield Resolves of 1776 reveal, according to the author, an extraordinary self-confidence among ignorant men, but this has always been and is to-day a marked American trait. "We do not want any Goviner but the Goviner of the Univarse" was their way of putting it; the machinery of government was inherently tyrannical because it was compulsory. In Pittsfield in the same year we find an inquiry made of the General Court: "We have heard much of Government being founded in Compact: what compact has been formed as the foundation of Government in this Province?" Ten years later, people holding these views were easily filled with hostility to the proposals for a stronger government.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aristotle and the Earlier Peripatetics: Being a Translation from Zeller's 'Philosophy of the Greeks.' 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $7.

Arnold, Sir Edwin. Death—and Afterwards. New Amsterdam Book Co. 60c.

Baildon, W. P. Select Cases in Chancery. 1364–1471. London: Bernard Quaritch.

Balzac, H de. About Catherine de' Medici. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan $1.50.

Clark, W. L. Handbook of the Law of Private Corporations. St Paul: West Publishing Co. $3 75.

Craddock, Ida C. The Heaven of the Bible. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50c.

Crouse, M. Elizabeth. Vigiliæ. Putnams. $1.

Eaton, A. W. The Heart of the Creeds. 3d ed. Whittaker. $1.

Emerson, Edwin, jr. The College Year-Book and Athletic Record 1896–'97. Stone & Kimball.

Field, Edward The Colonial Tavern: A Glimpse of New England Town Life in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries. Providence: Preston & Rounds. $2.

Fitzgerald, P F. The Rational, or Scientific, Ideal of Morality. London: Sonnenschein & Co.

Fletcher, J. S. Ballads of Revolt. John Lane. $1.

Fraser, Prof. A. C. Philosophy of Theism. Gifford Lectures. Scribners $2.

Gallon, T. Tatterley: The Story of a Dead Man. Appletons. $1.

Hayes, Dr. J. R. How to Live Longer. Philadelphia: J. B Lippincott Co. $1.

Heslop, R. O. A Bibliographical List of Works Illustrative of the Dialect of Northumberland. London: English Dialect Society; New York: Macmillan.

Higginson, T. W. Book and Heart: Essays on Literature and Life. Harpers. $1 50.

Housman, A. E. A Shropshire Lad. John Lane. $1.25.

Hutton, Laurence. Literary Landmarks of Rome. Harpers. $1.

Huysmans, J.-K En Route. 2d ed. London: Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. $1 50.

James, Prof. William. The Will to Believe, and Other Essays in Popular Philosophy. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.

Lowell, J. R. Complete Poetical Works. Cambridge Edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.

Lowry, H. D. Make-Believe. John Lane. $1 50

Magie, Prof. W. F Anthony and Brackett's Elementary Text-Book of Physics. Revised eighth ed. John Wiley & Sons. $4.

Maxwell, Sir Herbert. Robert the Bruce. [Heroes of the Nations.] Putnams $1.50.

Manual of Statistics. 1897. New York: Charles H. Nicoll. $3.

McLintock, R. Goethe's Faust. In English with Introduction and Notes London: David Nutt.

Memoirs of Marshal Oudinot, Duc de Reggio. Appletons. $2.

Pressensé, F. de. Purcell's "Manning" Refuted: Life of Cardinal Manning with a Critical Examination of E. S. Purcell's Mistakes. Philadelphia: J. J. McVey. $1.

Regnault, Félix. Hypnotisme, Religion. Paris: Schleicher Frères; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.

Reynolds, Sir J. R. Essays and Addresses. Macmillan. $4.

Richardson, Prof. O. H. The National Movement in the Reign of Henry III. Macmillan. $1 50.

Risley, R. V. The Sentimental Vikings. John Lane $1.

Toutée, Commandant. Dahomé, Niger, Touareg. Notes et Récits de Voyage. Paris: Colin & Cie.

Trent, Prof. W. P. Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $2

Verly, Hippolyte. Le Triomphe du Socialisme: Journal d'un Ouvrier Révolutionnaire. Paris: Le Soudier; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.

Veysey, A. H. A Cheque for Three Thousand. G W. Dillingham Co. $1.

Villard, O G. The Early History of Wall St, 1653–1789. Putnams.

Vogüé, E. M. de. Jean d' Agrève. Paris: Colin & Cie.

Williams, Prof. S. W. A History of China. Being the Historical Chapters from 'The Middle Kingdom.' Scribners. $2.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 25, 1897.

The Week.

THE House may not give President McKinley the "ample revenues" which he requests, but there is no doubt about its willingness to send him ample appropriations. It has already passed, practically without debate, the four appropriation bills, aggregating $75,000,000, which Mr. Cleveland refused to sign on account of their gross extravagance. Chairman Cannon stated, when these bills were first passed, that they were "in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service"; more, that they contained "many old claims, some of them of questionable and doubtful character"—in fact, "claims that are based upon fraud." But now he helps rush these inflated bills through again. Why? The bills are bad, that is confessed; but if we stopped to make new ones, they would be worse. As it is, the Senate can be trusted to make them worse. They will undoubtedly reach President McKinley in a shape still more indefensible than that which encountered Mr. Cleveland's veto. We shall then see in what sense Mr. McKinley meant the words uttered by him on March 4: "The severest economy must be observed in all public expenditures, and extravagance stopped wherever it is found, and prevented wherever in the future it may be developed."

Mr. Dingley has some hard things to say, in his report on the tariff bill, about "speculators importing wool," into whose pockets, he alleges, the money will be turned that should go into the Treasury. In this connection we have a fair question to ask of the chairman of the ways and means committee, who is himself interested in woollen manufacture. He is said, by Washington correspondents, to be "touchy" about this fact, but it is a fact. Through his family, if not directly, he is interested in a woollen mill at Lewiston. Has that mill been speculating in imported wool? Has that mill been stocking up with a year's supply of free wool, and will it buy every pound of free wool it can get hold of before the Dingley tax goes into effect? Will it, in Mr. Dingley's words, turn into its own pockets and those of the Dingley family the money which, he says, ought to go into the Treasury? On this we have to say that, if the Dingley mill is not doing this, it is not doing what all the other mills are doing.

In the new tariff bill an attempt is made to get over the difficulty created by the decision in the case of the United States vs. Burr (159 U. S. 78). The enacting clause, like the act of 1894, provides that on and after May 1, 1897, there shall be levied on imported articles the duties prescribed in the act. But it is provided in section 26 that the repeal of the old law is to "take effect on May 1, 1897"; the idea of the framers of the measure apparently being that this will clinch the matter, surmount the difficulties caused by the unwillingness of the Supreme Court to hold the intention of Congress in passing a tariff to be retrospective, and bring the new rates into play from May 1 even if the law is not actually signed till October. But they have at the same time added this clause to guard existing rights: "But the repeal of existing laws or modifications thereof embraced in this act shall not affect any act done, or any right accruing or accrued, or any suit or proceeding had or begun in any civil cause before the said repeal or modifications; but all rights and liabilities under said laws shall continue and may be enforced in the same manner as if said repeal or modifications had not been made." The effect of such provisions, in advance of judicial decision, cannot be predicted. The bill, whenever passed, repeals the old tariff as of May 1, and puts its own duties in force on the same day, yet rights and acts done under the present act are not affected at all. On the face of the bill, a very strong argument might be made that, should the date of passage be, say, October 1st, the result would be, under U. S. vs. Burr, that the new tariff would go into effect October 1st, while the old tariff would have come to an end May 1st, and that all duties collected in the interim would have been illegal. No court, however, will sustain such a conclusion if it can be escaped. It will probably take a good deal of what we may call horse-law to get at the bottom of this; but there is one point that is clear now, and that is that the bill is a loud threat that, however long the tariff may take in passing, it will be made to look as retroactive as possible. The rush to take goods out of bond began even before it was reported.

The present tariff allows travellers to bring in clothing and personal effects, provided they are "actually in use," and "necessary and appropriate" for "the purposes of their journey and present comfort and convenience." Under this clause it is estimated by careful students that 100,000 depraved persons who pass the summer in Europe have brought in about $500 worth apiece of clothing and personal effects, dutiable say at an average of 40 per cent. This has meant a loss of $20,000,000 a year. The Dingley bill guards against this for the future by providing that the articles must be for the "immediate" purposes of the journey, and, in case of citizens or residents of the United States, no more than $100 worth a head shall be allowed. The exemption is not to apply at all to residents of other countries entering the United States "more than once a year." This is a severe blow at a practice similar to that which was vigorously dealt with in the immigration bill. But the Dingley bill is not intended to be hard on the innocent. Mr. Dingley foresaw that the traveller who went abroad for the summer would have just cause for complaint if he were not allowed to bring back the shirt, drawers, shoes and stockings, and trousers, and even the coat and vest, in which he went to Europe, without paying duties on them; and this is permitted. He may bring back any articles of wearing apparel "provided they have not been advanced in value or improved in condition" by foreign "labor or manufacture," without paying a cent, "upon their identity being established under appropriate rules and regulations to be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury." Anybody can see that there is nothing unfair in this. Such articles are seldom improved by foreign labor or even manufacture, and, moreover, it is comparatively easy of execution, because there is practically no way of "identifying" the underclothing which any one brings back in October as the same that he took away in May, except by his own statement or oath. Oath it should be, for nobody but the person himself knows what he took abroad with him.

Among the barbarous provisions of the Dingley tariff bill is one which repeals the drawback on tin plate when reëxported in the form of cans or other packages for petroleum, cotton-seed oil, lard, meats, vegetables, fruits, fish, oysters, condensed milk, etc. This drawback enables our packers to compete with foreigners in these trades. The material of which the package is composed is an essential part of the exported article, and whatever burden we impose on it is a tax on exports. It was considered a great merit of the McKinley tariff that this drawback was allowed. Now it is proposed to cut it off, and thus put a tax of 1½ cents per pound on all the tin cans which are used for these purposes. This is proposed merely to give an additional bounty to the small number of tin-plate manufacturers in the United States, whose industry is not the hundredth part in magnitude of the canning industry which it is intended to smite with this new and monstrous provision. It is a common practice of tariff lunacy to sacrifice large interests for the benefit of small ones. This has been done hundreds of times before, but never, we think, to such a disastrous and fatal extent as is proposed

in this measure. There was imported into the United States for the fiscal year 1896, 385,139,183 pounds of foreign tin plate, of which it is estimated that 200,000,000 was reëxported in the form of tin packages filled with the products of our farms, orchards, fisheries, and oil refineries. The blow, if it falls, will strike the farmers and fruit-growers more severely than any other classes, because it will curtail the foreign market for their products. Such large corporations as the Standard Oil Company and the Cotton-Seed Oil Company can manufacture their tin packages in bonded warehouses without paying duty on the tin plate at all. This provision of the existing law is not disturbed by the Dingley bill. But the small packer cannot avail himself of this provision, because the machinery would be too expensive for the moderate business he conducts.

There is as much confusion about the sugar duties in the Dingley bill as there was about the same duties in the Wilson or Gorman bill of 1894, the point of interest relating to the amount of protection awarded to the sugar-refining company. One thing, however, is certain, viz., that whatever protection is given in this way is an outright gratuity to the richest monopoly in the United States, at the expense of the consumers of a necessary article of food. It is a fact well known to the trade in this country, and in Europe as well, that the product of the American refineries is the best in the world. It must be set down to their credit that their sugar is worth one-fourth cent per pound more than that of any other country. In other words, they have an advantage, due to their superior skill or better machinery, equal to one-fourth cent per pound. They have an advantage in the home market of another one-fourth cent in the cost of freight, insurance, interest, loss in weight, landing charges, and selling commission. In other words, they have one-half cent per pound protection before the tariff protection begins. In addition to this they will profit on all the sugar they can bring in before the increased duty takes effect. There is no way to avoid this, and it is not a thing to be complained of any more than the profit due to their superior business capacity. But these things will necessarily be taken into account in estimating any gratuities added by the Dingley bill.

It seems that reciprocity in tariffs is not a game of solitaire. Two or more can play it at the same time. So they think in France, at all events. The tariff of that country is framed so as to allow considerable discretion on the part of the Executive in the arrangement of duties according as they are treated fairly or unfairly by other nations. There is a general tariff which may be called a Chinese wall (something like our McKinley tariff). Then there is authority to relax it in favor of one country or another with which France has commercial treaties. Despatches from Washington say that the French Government has already taken notice of the Dingley bill, and has anticipated it by increasing the duty on American pork products about 50 per cent. The advantage of this prompt action is that France can ask us to a feast of reciprocity before we can get our invitations printed. Of course Germany will not be much behind, and probably Belgium and the lesser countries of Europe (not to mention Canada, Argentina, and Australia) will imitate the action of their big neighbors in this particular. We hope that they may. Nothing can be more beneficial in the long run than the universal adoption of the McKinley idea of getting rich by beggaring one's neighbors. The ideal system would be prohibition of imports, bounties on exports, and trade carried on exclusively by smugglers.

The arbitration treaty was reported, with the amendments agreed upon, on Thursday. Mr. Morgan at once attacked it, on the ground that Great Britain was the "general enemy of all nations," that it was ever striving for territorial aggrandizement and "the valuable possessions of the world," that there was a "hidden pitfall" for the United States in the treaty, and that it had been negotiated in response to a sentiment "that ought not to exercise the slightest control in the management of the affairs of a great nation," to wit, we take it, the desire for peace. At about the same time, a pamphlet was submitted to the Senate, containing the petition of a thousand of the most influential and representative men in the country that the treaty be ratified without amendments. This petition was made up in such a way that it was necessarily representative, as it was sent by the national arbitration committee to well-known men in all callings without reference to their opinions, or to anything but their distinction and eminence. The result was 932 for, to 12 against, ratification. The amendments, though not of such importance as to make the treaty, even with them, anything but a distinct gain to civilization, are silly; it is childish to leave out the Supreme Court Judges; it is childish to leave out King Oscar because he is a King; it is merely playing into the hands of the Jingoes to agree to arbitrate on certain terms and at the same time reserve the right to refuse to carry out the agreement in any specific instance. Especially is this so if, as is contended, the right exists in any case, whether it be reserved or not. Besides this, all the Jingoes really desire is that England shall know that we will go to war, if we want to, over the Monroe Doctrine. The right to do that no agreement can take away from us, because Congress still has the power to declare war.

One of the best statutes that have been prepared this winter is one introduced in Illinois by Mr. Sutton, a member of what is elegantly called the "lower house" at Springfield. It is at the vile business of carrying on a department store, by means of capital organized in the form of a corporation, that the sturdy Illinois commoner aims. Violations of the act are punished by heavy fines, and provision is made that one-half the fine shall go to the complainant. Foreign corporations are prohibited from carrying on any retail mercantile business in the State. It is difficult to see how this act can be evaded. It may be said that a department store may be carried on in the name of a firm, or individual, or even a Trust, but that is not a crime. The crime consists in low prices established by a corporation, and this it is which will be broken up. The idea of dividing the fine is a good one; the great thing in these statutes is to insure prosecution. The Attorney-General, left to himself, might connive at the crime and let the case be pigeonholed; but under Mr. Sutton's bill the complainant will simply say: "Now, Mr. Attorney-General, whose suit is this, anyway? If you don't prosecute and let me get half the fine, I'll tell what I know about you." Thus, at one blow, are crime in the department store and corruption in the Attorney-General's office brought to an end.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the case of the United States against the Trans-Missouri Freight Association, brought to dissolve the association, is of importance for more than one reason. It is, in the first place, very important that it should have been decided, even by a divided court, that the Anti-Trust act of 1890 prohibits railroad contracts made "in restraint of trade." This was one of the points made in the Traffic Association case recently argued before Judge Lacombe and two other Judges in the Circuit Court of Appeals in this city, and by them unanimously decided the other way. The interpretation of the statute by the Supreme Court is final, and we know now that the act applies to railroads. The next point dwelt upon with characteristic vigor by Justice Peckham, in delivering the majority opinion, is, that under the act an agreement to maintain rates is illegal if "in restraint of trade," whether the contract is reasonable or unreasonable, and whether the intention of the companies was to restrain trade or not. The idea underlying this is that the object of traffic agreements relating to interstate commerce may be to keep rates above what they would be if the railroads were left to themselves. It is at this point that law and fact in Justice Peckham's opinion seem to part company. The law, as declared by him, says that an agreement to maintain rates "restrains trade," when it is a matter of common knowledge that

the object of such agreements is to promote trade. It cannot be seriously maintained that an agreement restrains trade, in fact, unless it appears that there is reason to believe that without it trade would increase. On this head Justice Peckham says nothing except that some persons think it would, and others that it would not, but declares that this makes no difference, for the question is one "of law"; *i. e.*, any contract by which a railroad's control over its rates is temporarily parted with restrains trade, because it restrains the railroad.

Any one can see that this argument, if it applies to railroads, applies to any contract made by man. A contract is an agreement by which corporations or individuals agree for a certain time to do or refrain from doing certain acts — to make, for instance, certain goods for a certain price, or to perform certain services for a certain remuneration. While the agreement is enforced, the right of the corporation or the individual to dispose of his time or materials at other rates or on other terms is restrained. It is in fact taken away. What takes it away? Nothing but the law. What lawyers call the *vinculum* or bond of a contract is some species of restraint which induces people to keep their contracts. So that when Justice Peckham denounces a traffic agreement as being in restraint of trade, without any proof that it restrains trade in fact, he denounces every contract in the country, and lays down principles which would enable Congress to declare all contracts illegal. This decision must be added to the long line of deplorable decisions, beginning with the legal-tender cases, in which the court has revealed its weak grasp of the fundamental principles of law and government by dividing almost evenly upon them. The dissenting opinions of Judges Field, Gray, Shiras, and White, when they are printed, will no doubt demonstrate with an incisiveness quite equal to the energy of Judge Peckham (on whose side were the Chief Justice and Judges Brewer, Harlan, and Brown) that the case ought to have been decided the other way, that the Anti-Trust law did not apply, or else that, if it did, a case had not been made out under it.

The nomination of Mr. John Hay as Ambassador to England, accompanied as it is by that of Mr. Henry White as first secretary, will be received with satisfaction by everybody who knows the requirements of the position and the difficulty in the way of making good selections. Mr. Hay is in the prime of life, has had some diplomatic experience in lower positions, is well known as a literary man, and, finally (a fact which cannot be treated as of slight importance), is possessed of ample means. Mr. White was first secretary for years, knows everything that there is to know of London, has had a delightful house there himself, and is just the man to give to a new Ambassador the social assistance which any new American functionary unversed in the world of London so craves in going there. Of course the politicians did not want Mr. White. He has had the place too long, he is "un-American," and he will not let the embassy be used by the shady characters who throng to London, whenever they see their chance, to get a social rehabilitation or start of some sort at the hands of our Ambassador. Mr. White has had great experience in holding such adventurers at bay, and is a master of the art. The adventurers, who generally come with some sort of recommendation from Washington, when rebuffed, "take it out" of the secretary by denouncing him to their Senator, Representative, or other backer as aristocratic, exclusive, and English. For doing his duty in this way, Mr. White has been, and no doubt will continue to be, roundly abused; but he has the satisfaction of knowing that the abuse is the measure of the discharge of his duty, and he will have a superior whose own inclinations and tastes ought to insure for him support.

The President's choice of Powell Clayton as Minister to Mexico was expected, and we suppose we ought to be thankful that a worse choice was not made. No concealment is attempted of the fact that the appointment is made for political service rendered, not on the ground of even moderate fitness. But such has been pretty steadily the only reason of diplomatic appointments to American countries for many years. We love them all with a true Monroe affection, but we usually insult them and disgrace ourselves by the consuls and, sometimes, the ministers we send them. Mexico has certainly deserved better things at our hands. Think of the accomplished gentleman, Señor Romero, she has kept for so many years as her representative in the United States. Then think of the collection of modified gentlemen we have sent to her capital.

There are many conflicting accounts of the real causes of the blocking of Lauterbach's State police bill which has occurred at Albany. One is, that Gov. Black is the chief cause, and that he has given notice to the Legislature of his unalterable opposition to the bill in order to assert himself as an independent factor of the Platt Government. This finds many believers. Another explanation is, that Platt was never really in favor of the bill, but allowed Lauterbach to have his way about it, meaning all the time to let it fail. Another theory is, that neither Platt nor Lauterbach had any intention of pushing the measure, but merely put it forward as a bluff designed to alarm either Mr. Roosevelt or the Mayor, or both, in the hope that one or the other or both might weaken and be more yielding towards the Platt machine. Still another theory is, that the measure was to be used to give the Governor a chance to show that he really is a Governor and not a mere Platt agent, like Lauterbach, Lexow, O'Grady, Austin, and the others. We do not pretend to say which of these explanations is the true one. The remarkable Government under which we are living moves in such a mysterious way that all efforts to discover its propelling forces are vain. Its basic principle is, "What does the old man want?" and only those who are permitted to enjoy his personal confidence can answer this question. As for serious ruptures in his government, we have not much expectation that such will occur.

The first fruit of the extension of the suffrage in Austria has been a crushing defeat of the Liberals in the recent elections. Probably less than 100 German Liberals and Social Democrats will oppose, in the new Reichsrath of 425 members, the heterogeneous groups of Christian Socialists, Clericals pure and simple, Czechs, Poles, and Feudalists of whatever nationality, out of whom Count Badeni will construct his majority. He may, furthermore, succeed in bringing to terms the 40 German Nationalists, who, anti-Semitic first and pro-German next, have nothing in common with the remnant of the once powerful United Left, to whose inheritance they nevertheless lay claim. One of the surprises of the election was the numerical weakness of the Social Democrats, who had counted on capturing 50 seats, mainly from among the 72 new members for which the new electoral class provided, but who had to content themselves with only 20 seats. The German Liberals committed the dangerous blunder of identifying themselves, at the eleventh hour, with the Social Democrats, staking their all on the issue between "Progress" and "Reaction." Deserted by its former great leaders—some of whom, like Plener, accepted office, while others, like Prof. Suess, wearied of its internal dissensions—the German Liberal party in Austria is a mere shadow of its former self. Count Badeni, who inherits all of Count Taaffe's political unscrupulousness, without his adroitness and personal prestige, may well be appalled at the prospect of governing with a majority united only in its antagonism to liberal sentiment and German ascendency. Aside from this common motive, the Radical Young Czechs are as bitterly opposed to the Feudalist Old Czechs as are the Young Slovens to the Old Slovens. Even the Poles, Badeni's compatriots, present by no means a united front. The Emperor's tact will now be sorely tried, for the forces dominant in Cisleithania are arrayed against Magyar influence as they are against Liberal German influence, and hence threaten to undermine the very base of the empire.

THE TARIFF AFFRONT TO INTELLIGENCE.

THE Dingley tax on books and instruments for libraries and colleges, along with the renewed tax on art, shows the country how much the Republican party really cares for the intelligence of the nation to which it so earnestly appealed in the last campaign. Then it was just too fond for anything of professors and colleges. It was never tired of boasting of the way the educated men of the land had rallied to its support, irrespective of former party preferences. When Mr. Bryan said that all the college professors on earth could not convince him he was wrong, the virtuous Republicans fairly gasped at such ignorance and effrontery. But now their first legislative measure is a slap in the face of every professor, a blow to every college, every reader, every artist and collector and gallery in the land. Where Bryan simply sneered at education, the Republicans contemptuously strike at it.

The Wilson bill, in its consideration for education and research, for learning and the cultivation of the public taste, was a great advance over the McKinley bill, and a veritable angel of light when compared with the Dingley bill. The Wilson bill kept on the free list all books and pamphlets "printed exclusively in languages other than English"; also books and music "in raised print, exclusively for the blind." Conformably to the practice of a quarter of a century, under all tariffs, it made free of duty all English books more than twenty years old, together with engravings, photographs, etchings, music, maps, printed for twenty years, and added a most enlightened clause permitting the free importation of "scientific books and periodicals devoted to original scientific research," with the publications of scientific and literary associations and public documents of foreign governments. There was also a very valuable section of the Wilson bill allowing college and other libraries to import, duty-free, two copies of any book, map, chart, etc. Now what has the party of intelligence done with all these aids to research and the diffusion of popular education? It has stricken every one out of the law, and put in the general, brute provision: "Books, including pamphlets and engravings, bound or unbound, photographs, etchings, maps, music, charts, 25 per cent. ad valorem." What do we care for colleges or libraries or scientists or the reading public?

Another privilege which colleges, laboratories, and other institutions have enjoyed directly, together with the people at large indirectly, from the foundation of the Government, with the exception of a single tariff in war-time, is that of free importation of "philosophical and scientific apparatus, utensils, instruments, and preparations." This was only a rational perception of the fact that there are no frontiers in the modern scientific world. By making it difficult for us to take advantage of the discoveries and improvements of the leaders of thought and investigation in other lands, we simply condemn ourselves to be losers in the race. Taxing knowledge of this kind is both a mark and a cause of barbarism. But what has the enlightened Dingley, what has the party of intelligence, done? Why, they have made a clean sweep of this time-honored provision, and in place thereof have substituted — what? Well, it is hard to say; but the paragraph most likely intended to cover philosophical and scientific apparatus and instruments is the one taxing "articles or wares not specially provided for in this act, composed wholly or in part of iron, steel, lead, copper, nickel, pewter, zinc, gold, silver, platinum, aluminum, or other metal, and whether partly or wholly manufactured, 45 per cent. ad valorem." That is the reward of the professors and the scientists for supporting the Republican party!

Free art, of course, had to go. Paintings in oil and water colors, admitted free by the Wilson bill, have made it dangerously easy for our artists and the visitors to our public galleries to become familiar with foreign masterpieces. A man who begins by buying a foreign painting may go on to buy a foreign book, and then, perhaps, a rug, and thus be led on to the crime of even buying a suit of clothes made abroad. So the benevolent Dingley steps in to check this career of vice at the very beginning. This is what makes it so absurd to appeal to him to take off the duty on art for "educational reasons," and for the sake of "art institutions in this country." What has protection to do with education or art? Nothing, except to cripple them in every way possible.

The Dingley tax on civilization is defended by its author in a way to make it, if possible, still more offensive. He says, in his report made public on Friday, that he has to tax books because, under the Wilson bill, there have been "wholesale evasions"; he practically accuses the colleges and libraries and art galleries of lying about their importations (remarking, sarcastically, upon the "wonderfully elastic" nature of the clause for their benefit); and complains about the "indefinite range" given the term "scientific books." Mr. Dingley's idea of a scientific book is evidently that of his far-off college days, when all these newfangled sciences of bacteriology and biology and magnetism and electricity had never been heard of. He fairly shudders at the thought of letting in books on such harmful subjects free of duty. But his effrontery reaches its height when he affirms, as a reason for taxing books in foreign languages, that "we publish an abundance" of them! He must have in mind campaign literature. Why should you want Lavisse and Rambaud's 'Histoire Générale' when you can get Dingley on the tariff done into choice Canadian-French? Why pine for Brockhaus or Meyer when you can get McKinley on the gold standard in the purest German-American? Russian dictionaries, Spanish or Italian novels, Scandinavian plays—how absurd it is for a true American to bother his head about these when he can get Republican campaign documents, appealing to intelligence, translated into as many foreign languages as there are "votes" to be captured. Foreign literature is at best a corrupting influence, and, besides, we publish an abundance of foreign literature right here at home. Books must be taxed, but, as a college professor writes us, it is some compensation to find Mr. Dingley leaving asses' skins on the free list. In that item the ways and means committee knows that it can defy competition.

We have been asked to remonstrate against this outbreak of tariff savagery, and we hereby do. But we have not the slightest idea that remonstrance will do any good. What you are remonstrating against, when you single out in the tariff instances of benighted disregard for civilization and progress of the race, is the whole system. They are but inherent and inevitable parts of it.

DUTIES ON BREADSTUFFS.

IN many respects the Dingley tariff bill is the most extreme protection measure ever laid before Congress. In professing to restore McKinley rates, the rates of the law of 1890, and asking credit because of the "moderation" of the plan, the great change in the economic situation of products has been ignored. The fall of prices that followed 1893 makes the rates of 1890 high protection duties, as a glance at the proposed rates on breadstuffs will clearly show.

The law of 1890 imposed a duty of 30 cents per bushel on barley, when the price was 51 cents a bushel. This made the duty about 60 per cent. ad valorem. The annual imports fell from an average of 11,000,000 bushels to an average of 2,000,000 bushels. This involved a loss of more than $5,000,000 a year in the imports from Canada, and struck a blow at the brewing interests that find Canadian barley better than the domestic grain for their operations. The law of 1894 reduced the duty to 30 per cent. ad valorem, or one-half the McKinley rate; yet imports have not increased, and there is no evidence of insufficient "protection" to our farmers. The domestic production in 1893, when the full encouraging influence of the McKinley law had made itself felt, was 69,869,495 bushels; in 1895, under the "blight" of a lower tariff, it was 87,072,744 bushels, the largest crop on record. The Dingley bill proposes to restore the duty of the law of 1890, that is, 30 cents a bushel. But barley is now imported at 37.8 cents a bushel. The new duty is thus 80 per cent. on the value, against 60 per cent. under the McKinley law. If a duty of 60 per cent. re-

duced the import by four-fifths, one of 80 per cent. will be almost prohibitive. While the revenue from imported barley was $1,000,000 a year under the law of 1883, when the duty was 10 cents a bushel, the Dingley bill promises to reduce the revenue from this item to nothing. Where is the necessity for any duty on barley? In 1896 the imports were 837,384 bushels, and the exports 7,680,331 bushels. Never have the exports been so large. The Tariff Commission of 1882, certainly not a low-tariff body, suggested 15 cents a bushel as fair.

If the duty on barley is unnecessary and mischievous, that on corn is only unnecessary. The imports in 1896 were 4,338 bushels, of which 3,301 bushels were brought in from Mexico. The exports were 99,992,835 bushels, and of corn meal 276,885 barrels. The imports were worth less than $2,000, the exports more than $38,000,000. In no year since 1884 have the imports touched 38,000 bushels. Yet, out of deference to the farmer, the duty was raised in 1890 from 10 cents to 15 cents a bushel, being about 22 per cent. ad valorem, and again going against the rate of the Tariff Commission. The law of 1894 practically retained this duty, imposing one of 20 per cent. No increased imports have occurred. The Dingley bill goes back to a rate of 15 cents. But in 1890 this rate was an ad-valorem of only 22 per cent.; in 1897 the same specific duty is an ad-valorem of more than 26 per cent., as the price of corn has fallen from 69 cents to 57 cents. No revenue can be obtained from this source, and from neither corn nor corn meal has the Government obtained $1,000 in any year since 1889.

The same solemn farce of imposing duties which maintain a show of protection, but in reality affect only a very small importation, is performed in the cases of oats, rye, and wheat, and in each instance the Dingley rate is materially higher than was the McKinley duty. Oats in 1890 were worth 42 cents a bushel. A duty of 15 cents meant 36 per cent. In 1896 the price had fallen to 34 cents, and the same rate of 15 cents a bushel which the Dingley measure seeks to restore means a tax of 44 per cent. on the value of the import. This is another item of grain imports which the law of 1890 tended to crush; but the import never touched 90,000 bushels, and that was a very small item when set against an export movement of 13,000,000 bushels, and still more insignificant when compared with a domestic production of 824,000,000 bushels.

The imports of rye have ever been small—so small that the duty was not changed in 1890. The sum of $58 in revenue derived from the imports of this grain in 1896 was above, much above, the average.

Wheat is a little more remunerative, and deserves such a comparison of rates as was given to barley. Before 1890 the duty was 20 cents per bushel. The largest import was 7,260 bushels in 1885. The law of 1890 raised the rate to 25 cents, or 20 per cent. ad valorem. The import price of wheat has fallen from $1.23 in 1890 to 35.2 cents in 1896. A restoration of a duty of 25 cents would thus mean a duty of more than 71 per cent. ad valorem! The aim of such a monstrous rate upon one of the leading articles of export from the United States is not difficult to be fathomed. The little that is imported for consumption (27,000 bushels in 1896) comes from Canada. But the Dominion took more than 3,500,000 of our wheat in the same year, and in addition 800,000 barrels of wheat flour, the whole being worth upwards of $5,450,000. The imports from Canada were worth only $9,500! Again the question arises, what reason exists for increasing the duties on these grains?

The leading article of import among the breadstuffs is "macaroni, vermicelli, and similar preparations." Before the law of 1890 no duty was levied upon this class of articles, and the imports were about 10,000,000 pounds a year. McKinley in 1890 imposed a duty of 2 cents a pound, or about 40 per cent. on the value, and this rate did not affect the importations, for they had risen by 1893 to 12,804,395 pounds. The law of 1894 fixed a rate of 20 per cent., and the imports continued to increase so rapidly that in 1896 they reached 17,532,000 pounds. But the average price of this class in 1893 was 5 cents a pound; in 1896 it was 3.4 cents. The old rate of 2 cents means an increase from 40 per cent. to 62 per cent. ad valorem. That imports will continue to increase under the heavier duty is hardly to be imagined.

Indeed, the whole tendency of the trade in breadstuffs has been to decrease, in spite of the prominence of such an article as macaroni. In 1888 the highest value was reached, $8,215,337. The largest revenue was collected in the following year, 1889—$1,161,030. Under the law of 1890 the total decreased rapidly, and in 1896 the value was only one-eighth of what it was in 1888—$1,082,303—and the revenue had fallen to $248,652. To undertake to obtain more revenue by higher duties will prove of no avail. If the McKinley schedules of 1890—which carried an average duty of 48 per cent.—could wreak such mischief in destroying trade, what can follow an increase of one-half in the average duty except a still greater destruction of trade and of revenue?

CRETE IN ENGLAND.

THERE is probably nothing in the English situation more unexpected than the Tory policy toward the Cretans. It is almost exactly what, before 1894, most English Conservatives would have predicted as likely to be the policy of Mr. Gladstone. There is a meekness, a tameness, a disposition to agree at any cost with almost anybody, which were the staple reproaches hurled against the Liberals after the failure to relieve Gordon, and the failure to take vengeance on the Boers for the defeat of Majuba Hill. The foreign policy, when the Conservatives came in, was to be aggressive, national, slightly overbearing, and worthy of the "Elizabethan period," which was Lord Salisbury's own phrase when Disraeli was making war on Afghanistan, upholding the Turkish empire, and bringing Indian troops to Malta. Englishmen were no longer to hang their heads for shame when the conduct of their Government abroad was spoken of, and Mr. Curzon announced in the House of Commons that there was a decided revival of respect for the country in all the foreign chancelleries when it was heard that the Conservatives were coming in.

Well, the Conservatives have come in, and England is pursuing the tamest foreign policy witnessed in this century. For peaceableness and timidity Gladstone is nowhere compared to Lord Salisbury. There have been already three regular "backdowns" in two years—a backdown before Krüger, a backdown before Olney, and now (the worst of all) before "the Powers." The treatment of the Armenian question was enough to make Pitt and Canning and Palmerston turn in their graves. But there was for that extraordinary display of caution the excuse that, although England was bound by special treaty to prevent these atrocities, the scene of them was beyond her reach; her naval supremacy was useless in the mountains of Armenia, and she could only protest and cry shame. Russia was the only Power which could intervene with efficacy, and the British fleet could not penetrate the Dardanelles without being caught in a trap, and bringing the Turkish empire down about the ears of Europe.

So the world accepted this plea for a whole year, and, when the blue-book was published, we were all called on to admire the skill with which Lord Salisbury had not saved the Armenians, but had preserved the "concert of the Powers." The Armenians had, in fact, died by the ten thousand for the "concert of the Powers"; and the reason why the "concert of the Powers" was so precious was, we were told, that it alone stood between us and a terrible European war. It must be observed, however, that the only reason for believing that a frightful European war would be the consequence of compelling the Turks to stop massacring was Lord Salisbury's own assertion, which, of course, there was no use in outsiders attempting to contradict. All the known facts of human nature, of European history and policy, were opposed to the idea that interference avowedly and patently made in the interest of humanity, and confined simply to the policing of a savage, would cause a general convulsion. If anything of the kind occurred, it would

show that "the Powers" had taken leave of their senses.

However, we had to acquiesce and believe that Great Britain could not interfere in Armenia, and that if she called on the Sultan to stop assassination, by means of a blockade or by seizing his Smyrna custom-house, all Europe would fall to cutting one another's throats. This ridiculous story was repeated so long, and stoutly also, that we at last began to look on the "concert of the Powers" to condone rape, massacre, and arson as one of the highest achievements of diplomatic skill, and its maintenance as one of the greatest boons that could be bestowed on humanity. But now a plain tale has found Lord Salisbury and "brave Mr. Balfour" out. The Sultan has stopped massacring, they say, in Armenia, where British troops cannot reach him. He has transferred his operations to one of the most convenient spots in the world for British interference, an island in the Mediterranean. All around Crete, Britannia rules the waves. Not a Turkish soldier or a Turkish vessel can be moved without her permission. She could clear the Mediterranean of all the foreign fleets in it by a single exertion of her strength. Crete is as much in her power to-day as Ireland. Well, what has happened? Why, the "concert of the Powers" has been again set up, but to prevent the rising of the Greek Christians against their Mussulman oppressors. The fleets have opened fire, not on Turks, but on Greeks. It is a Greek, not a Turkish, transport which has been sunk. A "peaceful blockade" has been established, not of Turkish, but of Christian, ports. Fierce threatenings are issuing from all the chancelleries, not against Turks, but against Christians. It is not the villanous old Sultan who is exciting diplomatic rage, but the Christians whom he has robbed and murdered for two centuries. The "concert of the Powers" has been sufficiently strengthened at last to take action, fire great guns, and address warnings, but, alas, the guns are trained on helpless Christians, and the warnings are addressed, not to the oppressors, but to the desolate and oppressed.

In all this, on her native element, Great Britain counts apparently for no more than Austria or Italy. Her voice is no more potent than that of the weakest of the naval Powers. She has no more leadership than if she had only a couple of war-ships and were allowed to take part in the "concert" as a favor, like the Piedmontese in the Crimean war. The terrible Lord Salisbury, who was for "twenty years of resolute government" in Ireland, is roaring you as gently as any sucking dove, and, when questioned as to his foreign policy, has to refer the adversary to the speech of a French Minister in the French Chamber! "Read what M. Hanotaux said," he tells the adversary.

In the midst of all this supineness and indecision the words of Mr. Gladstone's letter to the Duke of Westminster come like the voice of one of Israel's prophets. In his long career of statesmanship and brilliant literary achievement, we recall nothing which may be more fitly styled a ringing appeal. As it goes through the English-speaking world, millions of hearts will beat quicker for the noble thoughts it utters, and millions of men and women will regret again that old age has stiffened the hand, although not the tongue, of the Grand Old Man.

THE PACIFIC BLOCKADE.

THE blockade of Crete went into effect on Sunday morning, and the Powers have notified our Government and all others concerned of its scope. The blockade is against ships flying the Greek flag, and it is announced that merchant vessels of the United States and other "neutral" nations are to be overhauled, but, if carrying nothing designed to aid the Greek insurrection on the island, not to be molested. This announcement is deprived of most its importance, so far as the United States is concerned, by the fact that we have no commerce with Crete. It is said that not an American ship passed through the Suez Canal in 1896, and we have had no trade with Crete for years. Besides this, our Government has recently been so firm in observing our obligations to keep the peace abroad that ventures such as those of the *Laurada* and *Three Friends* have lost much of the charm they once possessed for philanthropic merchants here; and there is no indication that the present Administration means to do anything but continue the same policy even more stringently.

No doubt this state of affairs is irritating to some patriots at Washington. Mr. Frye, for instance, is quoted as saying that it makes no difference whether we have any trade with Crete or not—the principle of the right of American ships to go where they please in time of peace is involved; and that if he had his way, he would, if necessary, take "every dollar in the Treasury" to purchase war-ships, and "every American citizen to man them," and send them "into every part of the world," that they might be defended "against all insults." This plan, however splendidly effective it may be thought, is not likely to commend itself to an Administration pledged to restore prosperity and maintain peace; indeed, we cite it chiefly as a curious contribution to the discussion of the subject; it shows how the protectionist, after devoting himself for years with great success to ruining our mercantile marine, roars with true Jingo anger over the result, and proposes to defend the interests he has destroyed with threats of slaughter all over the world.

The main question which our Government will have to consider is how far it can afford to let the blockade of Crete go without a protest, and in considering this question the important matter to bear in mind is the real nature of the blockade, and the historical position of the United State.

The Powers, of course, endeavor to make the blockade resemble as much as possible a war-blockade, recognized by the law of nations, and binding on third parties, but the rules of international law recognize no such blockade. A pacific blockade is virtually an act of war, although disguised as a peaceful measure, but it creates no state of war, and hence gives the blockading nation no right to say that the subjects of a third Power shall not go on trading with the blockaded Power as long as they like. All the laws of war grow out of the practice of nations in time of war, and are founded on the idea that it is better, for the general interests of the world, that a nation which has determined to appeal to war shall have the right to make it effective. An effective blockade is respected by non-combatant nations for the same reason that bombardments of seaports are respected, because, on the whole, experience teaches us that the right to make war effective is essential to the existence of every state, and that the denial of it to one is a denial of it to all.

But the right to make effective war has always been limited by the consideration that there must be an actual war, with notice to all the world. The reason for this is, that it is desirable that people who wish to reap the benefits of war should not be allowed to impose its burdens on non-combatant nations without undertaking its responsibilities. If one nation could blockade another, for instance, and compel all the rest to respect the blockade without any war, one country might reduce another to complete submission, by destroying its commerce, without striking a blow, and in doing so might ruin the commerce of two or three other countries. To this the other countries would undoubtedly say, No; if you want to cripple our commerce, you must declare war. We shall then be neutrals, and know, according to the law laid down in prize-courts and observed by nations for centuries, where we stand. Under a pacific blockade we have no rights, except such as you choose to allow. We can appeal to no prize-court to determine whether your blockade is effective or a mere piece of paper; if it is not effective, and you seize our cargoes, we have no redress but to declare war ourselves; if you say that everything we trade in is contraband, there is no court where our rights can be protected. Your blockade overrides even treaties, and substitutes your will for the established principles which govern the intercourse of nations, and are enforced by their courts.

Now the United States has for a hundred years been the one Power on the face of the earth which has steadily and consistently upheld this contention. It has been the great neutral nation in time of

war, and it has been the great peaceful nation at all times. It has been the great supporter of trade and commerce, against lawless attempts to interfere with it, and its historic policy and principles would forbid it to tolerate any interference with its trade by a "pacific" blockade in parts of the world where it had any trade. Whatever course of action the Government may now adopt, it could never admit that such practices as "pacific" blockades can in any way be recognized as a part of international law binding upon it.

Prof. T. E. Holland, a respectable authority, has attempted to break the force of such considerations as these by publishing a letter, in the London *Times*, in which he undertakes to prove that pacific blockades are recognized by the law and the practice of nations. But his letner disproves his case. He describes a pacific blockade as one of the various methods, short of war, such as "reprisals," by which "pressure" may be put by one nation on another, and declares that the "only question" is whether such pressure is not more humane than actual war. We have endeavored to show that humanity is not by any means the only question involved; the main question may often be whether great and wide-reaching interests of third parties are not at stake. He also undertakes to show that many writers on international law have approved pacific blockades. But their approval does not change the practice of nations, nor affect the considerations of which we have been speaking. That a pacific blockade may be very efficacious, nobody questions; so may reprisals; but the only person whom Mr. Holland actually cites as approving the idea that it is binding on anybody whose interests call upon them to disregard it, is an officer of the Prussian Admiralty. If we had any trade with Crete, and American ships were to be overhauled, the act would be an utterly indefensible outrage.

DEGREES FOR WOMEN AT CAMBRIDGE, ENGLAND.

THE Report of the "Degrees for Women Syndicate," issued this month at Cambridge University, follows close on the second reading of the Women's Suffrage Bill, and is causing almost as much excitement in Academic circles as the majority of seventy-one which turned the heads of all the Women's Liberal Associations in England early in February. Opponents of feminine progress ought not to blink the fact that a signal advance has just been made in those two movements which, the one in education, the other in politics, aim at changes in the position of English women that are almost beyond calculation. There is a curious difference in the tempers of the two bodies of men in whose hands these educational and political issues ultimately lie. The already notorious second reading was listlessly passed by an apathetic House, for not even Sir William Harcourt's warnings as to the logical consequences of the bill could persuade members that any measure worth their opposition could be going forward on a Wednesday.

In the University of Cambridge, every step towards the granting of equal privileges to men and women has met with fierce opposition; every advance has been made, one may say, over the dead bodies of the Senate, since it is only by reason of the younger blood in that assembly that the present report is so promising. The fighting has doubtless been more stubborn in the University because the enemy are permanently encamped at the gates and in the lecture-rooms; but while recognition and equality are in sight for the Girton and Newnham Uitlanders, it is the very remoteness of the Women's Suffrage movement which secured it an illusive success.

Before pointing out the precise gain for women students at Cambridge indicated in the recent report, we will review briefly the actual concessions so far made by the University since women began to enter for the Tripos (or degree) examinations. In 1870 five women passed the Little Go—the preliminary examination leading to the degree—under an informal arrangement made with the examiners; three of these, in a similar way, took their Tripos, and have been apotheosized in many a college song as "the Girton Pioneers." In 1881 three famous "graces," or resolutions, were passed by an overwhelming majority of the Senate. They formally admitted duly qualified students of Girton and Newnham to the Honor examinations, provided a separate class-list for them to be read after the men's list in the Senate House, and granted successful candidates a diploma from the University. Since then about 700 women have been classed in honors and their names duly recorded in the University Calendar. The brilliant records made by several of these women, and the high average maintained by the rest, are too well known to need comment. Since 1881 there has been occasional agitation for the actual granting of the degree—for the use of the letters B.A. is still withheld obviously because, if women became graduates or members of a self-governing University such as Cambridge and proceeded to the higher degrees of M.A., Sc.D., and Litt.D., there would inevitably follow for the University just such results as Sir William Harcourt foreshadowed for the constitution of Parliament and for politics as a whole.

To illuminate the attitude of the Opposition, we quote verbatim, from the report, some of the criticisms made by Cambridge professors and lecturers on the actual effect so far produced in the lecture-rooms by the presence of women:

"I noticed . . . last Lent term, when my class was attended by a large number of women students, that the undergraduates were by no means pleased. The following term there was a distinct falling off in the number of undergraduates. . . . Women students are far more punctual than the undergraduates, and attain a higher general standard in paper work; this I find a small cause of friction."

"There is an extra pressure on the lecturer's time, due to the fact that so large a percentage of them do papers . . . compared to the men."

"I find that the questions asked by women generally relate to lecture or book work, or else to practical problems, such as poor relief."

"A lady is more easily affected if fault is found with the work, or if unexpected difficulties arise."

Among those who admit the advantages of mixed classes we may quote a lecturer on theology, who finds that "the attendance of some ladies of high culture . . . has helped to make my lectures more interesting to myself and, therefore, it may be hoped, to the class at large."

When the editor of a Cambridge paper last year took a vote of the undergraduates by means of postal cards, 446 voted for and 1,723 against the admission of women to degrees, so that the Cambridge dons may have to face a secession of the outraged young men to Oxford, if that University should be left as the stronghold of the conservatives.

In consequence of memorials addressed to the Senate last year, a syndicate was appointed in June, 1896, to consider "what further rights and privileges, if any, should be granted to women students of the University, and whether women should be made admissible to degrees in the University, and, if so, to what degrees, on what conditions, and with what restrictions, if any." The members of the syndicate were the Vice-Chancellor, the Master of Emmanuel, the Ely Professor of Divinity, the Downing Professor of Laws, and ten others. After weighing the evidence and the possible advantages and disadvantages to the University and the women students themselves involved in the formal granting of the degree, the syndicate has now published a report of forty-four pages. The kernel of the whole matter lies in their recommendation that the following resolutions be adopted by the Senate:

"(1.) That it is desirable that the title of the Degree of Bachelor of Arts be conferred by diploma upon women who, in accordance with the now existing Ordinances, shall hereafter satisfy the Examiners in a Final Tripos Examination and shall have kept by residence nine terms at least.

"(2.) That it is desirable that the title of the Degree of Bachelor of Arts be conferred by diploma upon women who, in accordance with the now existing Ordinances, have already satisfied the Examiners in a Final Tripos Examination and shall have kept by residence eight terms at least.

"(3.) That it is desirable that the title of the Degree of Master of Arts be conferred by diploma upon women who have received the title of the Degree of Bachelor of Arts, if six years have elapsed since the end of their first term of residence and two years from the end of the Michaelmas term in the year in which they received the title of the Degree of Bachelor of Arts.

"(4.) That it is desirable that the title of the Degree of Doctor in Science or Letters be conferred by diploma upon women who have five years previously received the title of the Degree of Master of Arts, and have made valuable and original contributions to science or letters.

"(5) That it is desirable that the University be empowered to grant by diploma titles of Degrees in Arts, Law, Letters, Science, and Music to women who have not fulfilled the usual conditions, but have been recommended for such titles *honoris causa* by the Council of the Senate."

The reader unfamiliar with academic phraseology might easily be misled into thinking that these resolutions, if passed, would confer on women the degree together with the full privileges of a member of the University. This, however, is by no means the case. The phrase "title of Degree . . . conferred by diploma" expressly guards against this possibility; for a titular degree implies merely the right to use the letters, B. A., etc. It will be seen that resolution (2) is retrospective, so that more than seven hundred women who, since 1881, have been getting the substance and grasping at the shadow will at once have the right to the coveted letters.

By resolution (5), distinguished women of any nation may be offered honorary degrees

on the same basis as, *e. g.*, Mr. Bayard and Dr. Nansen.

These are the Resolutions. What will the Senate do with them? If it adopts them, the statute by act of Parliament will follow in due course. And perhaps the fact that the Senate did appoint the syndicate, in spite of opposition, and that it recently threw open wider facilities for research work, which was considered a radical measure in conservative Cambridge, may be regarded as a hopeful augury.

THE DECAY OF THE PARTHENON.

ATHENS, February, 1897.

THE Parthenon is doomed. These are words that must bring sorrow to the heart of every lover of Greece and Grecian culture. Perhaps many who have seen the stately pile only from below, will be inclined to doubt the statement so brusquely made. Indeed, when one sees the ruin from a distance, or looks upon it from among the pillars of the western façade, it seems so strongly built, so secure, that the visitor has no thought of decay and ruin, but leaves the place under the impression that the Parthenon will continue to defy time for thousands of years yet to come. But the fact is that, ever since the last earthquakes, its immediate ruin has been a foregone conclusion in case another earthquake should occur before certain contemplated repairs shall have been completed. At this moment the whole western façade is disfigured by an immense scaffolding, built in the strongest possible manner from enormous beams that were brought all the way from America to succor Athene. This mighty scaffolding subserves a twofold purpose: primarily it enables the architects to replace certain rotten and broken architrave blocks with fresh blocks, but its important secondary purpose is to serve as a prop to the entire entablature, and prevent the collapse of the building in case an earthquake-shock should visit Athens—an event that may occur here at any time.

Visitors are excluded from the scaffolding, but I gained admittance on two occasions recently. I was thus enabled to examine at close quarters the frieze of the western end, a privilege for which many have longed in vain. It is a privilege, too, that will not be offered to any one when the present scaffolding shall have been removed. From the base of the columns below, any study of the frieze is out of the question, firstly because, owing to the projecting epistyle, the bottom of the frieze cannot be seen; then again because the whole frieze is distorted by the sharp perspective, and the lower-lying parts of the reliefs are obscured by the higher. The scaffolding thus affords a unique opportunity for the study of certain chapters of Pheidian art.

But, not to dwell longer upon the frieze in this connection, I was dismayed at what I saw. The inside and interior stones of the entablature, colossal though they be, are rotten through and through; in many cases these rotten stones were broken by the recent earthquakes into many pieces, though, by the veriest miracle, the pieces still cling together. As is well known, the epistyle consists of three huge blocks that stand on their edges side by side and span the intercolumniations. Of these three blocks, the outside ones alone are comparatively sound, while the interior and inside blocks are in a most ruinous condition. All of these inside blocks are to be replaced by new ones, that are now lying on the ground below, ready to be put into position as soon as the mighty derrick that is to lift them on high shall have arrived. The thought of new epistyle blocks in the Parthenon is shocking to most souls, but it is a choice between that and immediate ruin. The new blocks will be colored with oil and wax in order to rob them of their glaring whiteness and newness. Even more sorrowful is the fact that, though this ruin may be stayed for one or two centuries yet to come, still in the end the Parthenon must collapse, unless virtually the whole entablature be replaced by new and sound stones.

Am I asked for the reasons for this ruinous condition of the Parthenon? There are several reasons, several causes, some of which have been in effective operation for many years, though unsuspected. We have been brought up to believe that the Parthenon was a perfect building, erected by master builders who employed only the best of material in its construction. It occasions a shock to discover that, though this is true in general, yet it is true with certain limiting qualifications, because of which the building is now threatened with ruin. In point of fact the builders of the Parthenon employed first-class marble only on the outside of the building, only where the eye could see it. In the Pentelic marble there are veins of schist that disfigure and ruin many a fair block. Visitors will remember the many unfluted drums of columns that lie here and there around the temple. These are drums that were rejected of the builders, rejected because they were faulty in some way, often precisely because of this disastrous vein of schist. Indeed, one of the new epistyle blocks has just been rejected by the committee of architects because of its faulty character, which was discovered only after the block had been completely hewn and was ready to be hoisted into position. No doubt that block will lie there for centuries to come, just as the rejected drums of columns have lain for these decades of centuries. Now of course perfectly sound marble was employed in the columns, both because they were completely visible, and also because they had a great weight to carry. Sound marble was employed also for the outside blocks of the entablature and in the outside stones of the cella wall, but the inside stones and the completely hidden interior stones of the epistyle and cella walls *were faulty from the start*—faulty because of this vein of schist.

As long as the building was covered by a roof, the faulty character of these stones was of no importance whatever, and, as is well known, the Parthenon was always covered by a roof until its final disruption by the gunpowder explosion two centuries ago. The ruin that now threatens the portion of the Parthenon left standing on that fatal occasion began from the moment of the explosion, and it has become more threatening with each succeeding year. The roofless condition of the building has made it possible for the rain to penetrate into the schist-veins of the faulty stones. At first but slight damage was done to these stones, but the frost of winter and the scorching sun of summer made the evil greater from year to year, until at last the scales have fallen from our eyes and we discover that these stones are rotten throughout, and that utter ruin is impending. The horror was revealed in its full extent by the earthquakes of two or three years ago, when a number of these rotten blocks were shivered into many pieces. The fact that these broken blocks did not fall is due to the soundness of the neighboring blocks on the outside. But though the ultimate cause of the ruinous condition of the Parthenon was the employment in its construction of poor marble for interior and inside stones, which two centuries of exposure to rain, frost, and heat have made rotten, still other things have conspired with these, namely, fire and cannon-balls before the disruption, and earthquakes at all periods.

The repairs that are to be undertaken now are not to be thoroughgoing, but in fact are only temporary makeshifts, though they will perhaps preserve the building for a couple of centuries. Many will remember that twenty-five years ago the lintels of the grand doorway of the western end of the Parthenon were discovered to be rotten. In 1872 a supporting arch was built beneath these huge stone lintels. This arch rests upon the slabs of the Byzantine doorway. The present moment offers a good opportunity for replacing the broken lintels with new stone beams. Were this done, then the arch and the ugly slabs of the Byzantine doorway could be removed, and the mighty door would stand revealed in all its glory as it was conceived by Iktinos. It is known, too, that some of the stones used in this Byzantine patch-door are inscribed. This fact is one more reason for removing the patchwork, because, to judge by the beauty and great size of the stones, the assumption that they bear valuable inscriptions does not seem an empty one. It is to be hoped, too, that the stairway to the Turkish minaret will be taken down. It has been left there up to the present because it supports rotten architraves, but we long for a purified Parthenon, and surely a few more new epistyle blocks would not disfigure the building one tithe as much as does this Turkish minaret. But a conservative desire to remove only such of the old stones as are hopelessly rotten and broken prevails. This desire can be easily understood, and one's natural instinct is to share it; but, after all, sentiment should give place to common sense, which clearly calls for repairs more radical than those which are to be made.

And here comes in a fear for the frieze, the glorious frieze, that fairly palpitates with the genius of Pheidias. When the final collapse of the Parthenon comes, the frieze will be gone for ever! This remote danger, however, is not the only one that threatens the frieze. For there it stands, exposed, like all the building, to slow but absolutely certain decay and ruin. In the recent earthquakes the head of one of the horsemen was broken off and dashed to pieces on the marble floor below. A similar fate is in store for the entire frieze, for the rotting is already visible in the reliefs. In short, the reliefs ought to be removed now, so that they may be preserved in the Museum for ages after the original entablature has ceased to exist. Dörpfeld did, indeed, propose to the committee that the frieze be removed to a safer and drier place and be replaced by a *marble* copy. But conservatism carried the day. The thought, too, that the removal of the frieze to the Museum would seem to justify the spoliation of the shrine by the deeply detested Lord Elgin, had much to do with the stand taken by the majority of the committee. The frieze, therefore, will remain *in situ* and will perish. There can be no doubt that the Parthenon would hold out for many centuries longer if it were covered by a roof. But it is thought by most men that a roof over the Parthenon would disfigure it absurdly. Of course it would, but then the roof would save the building, and sentiment would give the

front seat to sound reasoning, which, naturally, would never, never do.

But I must hasten to add that the care which the Greek Archæological Society bestows upon all the ruins is worthy of unstinted praise. I first knew Greece twenty-two years ago. The Archæological Society was making excavations then, to be sure, but the people, though much given to boasting of their ancestors, had little, almost no, reverence for things upon which was laid the impress of the genius of those selfsame ancestors. The ruins were abused and desecrated in a way that made the breast of the visitor from the West swell with rage and indignation. It is now eleven years since I bade, as I then thought, a final farewell to Greece. During the eleven years that have elapsed since then, wonderful progress has been made by the Greeks in the matter of reverent care for the antiquities. I am not so sure that this reverence prevails to any great extent among the common people, but they are entitled to the benefit of the doubt. At any rate, the management of the Archæological Society deserves the thanks of all men for their efforts to make it impossible for the *plebs* to insult or mutilate the monuments. The ruins are now behind strong iron bars. For instance, a great iron fence protects the whole country between the Odeion of Herodes Atticus and the Theatre of Dionysos. Another fence protects the Dipylon-Kerameikos region, another one the Areiopagos and the sanctuary of the Eumenides, which, as I well remember, was once the rendezvous of gypsies and unsavory tramps with their bears and other unmentionable accessories. But this is all changed now, thanks to the Archæological Society. Nor is this change seen and felt in outdoor matters only: the museums themselves are now arranged and managed in a most satisfactory manner. Something like order reigns, and scholars may study without vexation and loss of time. This, however, is not true of the epigraphical branch of the Museum, for everything there is still in a chaotic condition. However, great progress has been made here too, and yet, if one is in search of a special inscription, days may be spent in the perhaps fruitless attempt to find it.

The city of Athens, too, has made great progress during the last decade; it has become not merely a more populous but a fairer city. At the same time, the people have grown more wealthy and luxurious, more hollow and lazy, more devoted to lounging in the coffee-houses and to disporting their fine clothes in the squares and promenades. The old-time simplicity that so charmed the visitor is a thing of the past. J. R. S. Sterrett.

MME. DE CHASTENAY.—IV.

Paris, March 11, 1897.

The Duke of Rovigo, says Mme. de Chastenay, seemed to have for his only object the conversion of the Faubourg St.-Germain to the imperial régime—not a very difficult task, as, in the winter of 1810, a great number of ladies were presented. Mme. de Chastenay was invited to one of the Duke's balls: "I have said that the Emperor's manners with ladies were not very gracious. Once or twice already I had found myself at the balls given by M. de Champagny when the Emperor came; but the benches were arranged in several rows and I contrived to be behind the last one. However, I must confess that each time my eyes had met the Emperor's glass fixed on me. . . . To my great uneasiness, I saw at the Duke of Rovigo's ball that the benches were all in a line." When the Emperor had gone the round he recognized Mme. de Chastenay. "'Yes,' said he, 'I know you. I saw you at Châtillon; you were canoness. How is your mother?' He added: 'Do you remember the long conversation we had at Châtillon? Do you remember it?—tell me. It was sixteen years ago, sixteen years in truth! It was very long, that conversation; tell me, do you remember it?' He kept repeating, 'It was sixteen years ago.' I answered as well as I could. My gratitude was profound." The Emperor spoke to her of her books; he had not had time to read them, but had heard of their success; he remembered how well she played on the piano. And then he passed on and spoke to her neighbors.

"I leave you to judge if this conversation, lasting ten minutes, engrossed the assembly, and if I was for the moment all perfumed with favor. I was flattered, and very much touched also, I must confess. After sixteen years, it was surprising that a man who had become Emperor in the interval, should remember a conversation and add so many amiable recollections. The count was quite correct: it was just sixteen years."

At the beginning of 1812 Marshal Kellermann, who had lost his wife, made an offer of marriage to Mlle. de Chastenay. He was seventy-six years old, with two grown-up children; he was able to procure the admission of her father to the Senate and to procure promotion for her brother. Though the face, the German accent, the manners of the old Marshal inspired her with little sympathy, she gave her consent; the diamonds were bought, the contract was prepared; but the children of the Marshal succeeded in raising difficulties between him and the mother of Mlle. de Chastenay, and the engagement was broken off.

Royalism began to revive only after the disasters of the Russian campaign. Mme. de Chastenay shows us its progress when the Allies invaded the French territory. I find nothing worth relating in her accounts of the French campaign of Napoleon. "The truth is, we knew nothing and nothing could be known." It seemed to many, during the invasion of France, that the end of civilization had arrived. False rumors were circulated every instant. Paris was full of soldiers. Nobody doubted that the city would be taken. People thought that the Emperor would cross the Loire and continue the war. "But Réal, with the superiority which belongs only to frankness of character, repeated to us, while he was making preparations for the departure of his family: 'I said to the Duke of Rovigo, You allow in your calculations for the eventual taking of Paris; you make a great mistake, for Paris is the dynasty.'" Réal saw clearly, and the events of the late war of 1870 well showed, that Paris is still the government of France.

The reconciliation of France with its former dynasty took place, however, at first in Bordeaux, which the Duke d'Angoulême entered on the 12th of March. A long succession of wars had ruined Bordeaux, and its inhabitants were anxious for peace. The Comte d'Artois entered France by the eastern frontier. He was accompanied only by two French gentlemen, MM. de Wall and de la Salle; the latter had been exiled for ten years at Châtillon, M. de Wall was living in Burgundy. Monsieur, as he was called, presented himself to the mayor of Vesoul, and said to him, "I am the brother of your King, and I come to take my place among the French." His grace, his amiable expression, the simplicity of his entourage, the bonhomie of his companions, had their effect: he became rapidly popular, and a proclamation which he made also contributed to this result, as he declared that there would not be any reclamation of the confiscated estates known as the national estates. But he found no support among the foreigners; he was not allowed to go to Dijon, and had to direct his steps to Nancy, where the commanders of the Allies suffered him to reside. He soon had numerous agents and entered into communication with many people.

In her account of the entrance of the Allies into Paris, Mme. de Chastenay remarks that "the women flocked on the passage of the Allies. Napoleon had alienated their hearts; he had always feared them; their wit inspired him with hatred; their beauty never received from him any but the coarsest incense. Singular man, who wished for glory and who did not secure the suffrages which might dispense it!" It is not difficult to read between these lines Mme. de Chastenay's feelings for the man, who had known her slightly and had not wished to know more of her. There is a singular candor in her disappointed vanity; there is also a singular want of patriotism in her exaltation in presence of the foreigners. "The beautiful face of Alexander, the good soul which was painted in it, conquered the hearts and the suffrages. He seemed happy. . . . Such fine weather, such a fine city, such an expansive nation—sentiments which arose from the heart," etc., etc. We cannot at this distance read such lines without a slight emotion of shame.

Mme. de Chastenay surrendered herself entirely to the feeling of relief which was caused by the hope of a permanent peace. It cannot be denied that in 1814 this feeling was almost universal. She had besides (or thought that she had) much to expect from another régime; her father was one of the first to ask, under Talleyrand's guidance, for the recall of the former dynasty. The Marquis de Chastenay was one of the first to salute the Comte d'Artois at the Tuileries on the day of his entrance into Paris. This is the account which Mme. de Chastenay gives of the famous "Adieux de Fontainebleau," which followed the abdication of Napoleon:

"He wished to produce some effect on the soldiers and officers who were still with him. Before entering his carriage, he made them a speech, but among all the gifts which destiny had lavished upon him was not the gift of eloquence. Everything was theatrical with him, and every dramatic representation demands the concurrence of many accessories. The Emperor entering a carriage with three subaltern foreign officers offered to the eye only the spectacle of a traveller preparing to go to another place. Prison bars, chains, would have formed a contrast; but there was nothing really pathetic in this departure, which was all a play. Each one kept the secret of his thoughts and forged a future for himself."

The text of the "Adieux de Fontainebleau," and, I may add, the return from Elba, are the best answers to Mme. de Chastenay's account.

At the Château du Luc, near Fréjus, where he was to embark for Elba, Napoleon saw his sister Pauline. Mme. de Chastenay describes the interview as reported to her by M. de Montbreton, then the Princess's equerry:

"'Why did you not make peace?' 'I could not,' said Bonaparte—'an ignominious peace, a peace which the Bourbons might accept, but which could not suit me: France in her old limits! The irreparable mistake I made, and with which I shall always reproach myself, was not to have made peace at Prague. I

could at Prague have made a fine peace. However, this is a *corps à corps* struggle between myself and England; if I had to begin over again, England would fall in the course of a single year.'"

M. Réal gave in his adhesion to the new government a little too late. "That white cockade which he took and gave to his servants, and even to his horses," did not help to keep him on the list of the Council of State. "He was feared and put aside." He got himself, however, presented to Monsieur, and, a little later, to the King, and "the bystanders all pretended that the King gave him a look of favor." The first signs of discontent against the new régime came, as usually happens, from the victorious side. The émigrés were not satisfied with the liberalism of the declarations of the Comte d'Artois and with the constitutionalism of Louis XVIII. Mme. de Chastenay gives us some amusing details concerning the discontent of her society:

"There was never, in the ancient court, any distinction made between the persons admitted, except for the *tabouret*, which was given only to the Duchesses during the dinner of the King and Princes. Under Bonaparte, some differences of etiquette had been made between the Salle du Trône, the Salle de la Paix, etc., but they applied only to the gentlemen, and were determined by the grades and the functions. The Duke de Duras thought of preserving them, and, what was worse, he decided that the Duchesses should be received first by the King in the Salle du Trône, and that the other ladies should enter to salute the King only after the former had left the room. This was gratuitous insolence to the nobility; the Dukes and Duchesses of the old régime had the stupidity to be proud of it, and as some of these Duchesses were not women of quality, it seemed very strange. I don't think I ever heard such screams as were uttered on this occasion."

Mme. de Chastenay gives a vivid description of this curious society of 1814. She shows us the Duke of Wellington carrying two ladies on his arm, "after the fashion of England"; the King of Prussia assisting at the fêtes with his children, "like a good father of a family"; Humboldt; the Emperor Alexander, anxious to please the wives of Napoleon's Marshals more than the wives of the émigrés. She speaks severely of the Duke de Berry, "who was violent without measure. In a few days he became detested—the word is not too strong."

Mme. de Chastenay's mother had spent part of her youth with the Duchess de Bourbon (the mother of the unfortunate Duke d'Enghien), and was happy to see her on her return to France. Mme. de Chastenay has portraits of the Duchess de Bourbon, of the Duke d'Orléans (Louis Philippe), of the Dowager Duchess d'Orléans, of Mademoiselle, the sister of the Duke d'Orléans. "I was designated, almost from my infancy, to be attached some day to Mademoiselle; I did not doubt that she would be reminded of this engagement even before I could remind her myself. It was for me something written in the book of fate." Mme. de Chastenay's hope was not satisfied; when the household of the members of the Orléans family was formed, Mme. de Chastenay had the mortification to see that a canoness of Remiremont, named Mme. de Montjoye, was appointed to the place which she had expected to occupy. "I remained on polite terms with Mademoiselle," she says, "and that was all." It may be that the Duke d'Orléans, though he must have been aware of all the gifts of Mme. de Chastenay, thought that an intimate friend of Réal and Fouché was, perhaps, not the most suitable companion for his sister; it may be, also, that she was considered too clever and, in consequence, too dangerous. Mme. de Chastenay evidently felt great irritation towards the Duke d'Orléans, and gives vent to it, with apparent moderation, in the portrait which she traces of him.

Her memoirs end with the account of the Hundred Days and of the second return of the Bourbons. They are, on the whole, very interesting, and, though they do not give a very exalted idea of the author, they have the merit of great richness of details regarding a highly dramatic period. They represent history seen through the little end of the glass.

Correspondence.

THE VENUS OF MELOS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: At the same time with the *Nation* of February 18, containing Mr. Stillman's letter about the Venus, I received a note from a Boston friend, stating that the new evidence published under the name of M. de Trogoff had attracted much attention in America and been commented upon by the daily press. It is a pity that such rubbish should be taken into consideration when so many important discoveries remain unnoticed. I perfectly agree with Mr. Stillman to the effect that the Trogoff document is worthless; I believe I demonstrated that conclusively in the *Chronique des Arts* (1897, pp. 16, 24), soon after the appearance of the document in question (*Illustration*, December 12, 1896). But Trogoff really existed; he was an officer in the French navy. It is equally true that he came to Melos, on board the French ship *L'Espérance*, early in March, 1820. Now, inquiries at the Ministère de la Marine in Paris enabled me to show that the *Espérance* left Melos on March 12, a month less four days before the discovery of the Venus (April 8). Trogoff was in Smyrna, on board the *Espérance*, when he heard that an important statue had been discovered. He learnt that, in all probability, from the French consul in Smyrna, David, who had been informed by Dauriac, commander of the French *Bonite* (and not *Bonté*, as many authors have it), as early as April 11. Mr. Stillman is in error when he asserts that no French ship was in the port of Melos at the time of the discovery.

The facts are as follows: A small French squadron, comprising three ships, *Espérance*, *Lionne*, and *Estafette*, anchored in the harbor of Melos on March 4, 1820. On the 12th, the *Espérance*, with the commander-in-chief, Baron Des Rotours, sailed for Smyrna, leaving the two minor boats at Melos. On the 10th of April, the *Bonite*, coming from Smyrna, stopped at Melos and ordered the *Lionne* and *Estafette* to leave the island for Smyrna. Two days before, the statue had been discovered in the presence of a midshipman of the *Estafette*, Voutier, whose report on the subject, printed at Hyères in 1874—fifty-four years after the event—has been neglected by all archæologists, excepting M. Ravaisson. It is a rare pamphlet, which I have never been able to secure; I read the copy preserved in the Bibliothèque Nationale, and reprinted all the essential passages in the *Chronique des Arts* (1897, p. 16). Voutier's assertion is corroborated by the existence of drawings made by him on the spot and which have been reproduced by M. Ravaisson. Those drawings give outlines of the two sculptured blocks composing the statue, which had not yet been readjusted, and of two hermæ standing on inscribed pedestals. I may quote to the same effect a letter of the French vice-consul at Melos, Brest, to the consul in Smyrna, written on April 12, 1820. He says that opinions are divided on the value of the statue, "car il y a de ces messieurs les officiers qui l'ont observée qui disent que ce n'est pas grand chose, et d'autres, au contraire, disent que c'est un fort bel ouvrage." So we may consider it quite certain that French officers were present when the Venus was unearthed, and that they began discussing the artistic merits of the statue during the first three days after its discovery.

All that has nothing to do with the fact that on May 25, viz., six weeks later, the *Estafette* took possession of the statue when a part of it had already been shipped on a brig from Ragusa,* which was going to carry the Venus to Constantinople. In the interval, Dumont d'Urville, an officer on the *Chevrette*, had seen the Venus (April 19), and his report had induced the Marquis de Rivière, then French ambassador at Constantinople, to send the *Estafette* to Melos. M. de Marcellus, secretary to the embassy, who was on board, had been ordered to buy the statue, which he did. Mr. Stillman is not warranted in speaking of "its rescue by D'Urville"; in fact, D'Urville was not even on the spot when it was rescued. A sort of half-popular, half-scientific legend has magnified the part played by that distinguished officer in the purchase of the Venus. On the other hand, the French vice-consul, Brest, seeing that M. de Marcellus strove to claim the whole merit for himself, stoutly asserted that he had appreciated and bought the Venus immediately after the discovery. That is a falsehood, as Brest's official correspondence with David and Rivière clearly shows.

Brest had secured the statue from being *given* to the Turkish dragoman of the arsenal, Mourouzi, before the ambassador had decided whether he would buy it or not. He thus rendered a very great service; but, thinking he had not been justly rewarded, he tried to make people believe that he had done much more. He lived till about 1865, receiving many visits, and repeating his story of the Venus with a host of imaginary details. His son, who died last summer, did just the same. Echoes of the legends circulated by Brest father and son were communicated to the public by several writers who chanced to converse with them—MM. Fouqué (the geologist), Morey, Doussault, Jules Ferry, Stillman, etc. But the elder Brest was supposed to have written nothing, and the only documents hitherto published under his name were some short letters addressed by him to the consul of Smyrna and the French ambassador at Constantinople; these letters, dated 1820, were printed in 1874, and are given in an appendix to Goeler's monograph on the Venus (1879). At the beginning of the present year, I chanced to discover the copy of a long report of Brest's, addressed by him in 1862 to the French minister at Athens, who had requested him to put down his recollections. That important document, buried among the papers of Claudius Tarral, an English doctor who had prepared a work on the Venus, has been printed by my care in the *Chronique des Arts* (1897, p. 84.) It contains many lies, but also some new and interesting statements. Brest asserts most positively that the arms of the

*"*Brick ragusais*," says Voutier: Brest says it was a boat from Galaxidi. At any rate, the ship was sailing under the Turkish flag.

Venus were missing, and that she was found together with the two hermæ which are now in the Louvre. The fragment of a hand with an apple was discovered much later.

In Voutier's drawing we see the two hermæ standing upright *on inscribed pedestals.* The pedestal of the juvenile hermes bears an inscription which is the signature of a sculptor from Antioch on the Mæander, founded about 281 B. C. That piece of marble reached Paris, where it was drawn by Debay; some people thought it could be adjusted to the pedestal of the Venus, others denied it, and the discussion is not yet exhausted. Unfortunately, the fragment has disappeared and is known only by Debay's drawing. The inscription on the pedestal of the second hermes (a bearded Dionysos) was copied by Voutier, but badly reproduced by M. Ravaisson, who, finding it unintelligible, preferred not to mention it. A few weeks ago, I got hold of a photograph taken from Voutier's original drawing, and—thanks to a kind suggestion of M. Hiller von Gaertringen, who chanced to come to St.-Germain at that very moment—I could prove two very important facts: (1) that the inscription on the lost pedestal reads *Theodoridas Daistratou;* (2) that the same man's name occurs on a base found at Melos, now in the Museum at Athens, which supported the statue of a draped man and was discovered in 1879 together with the colossal Poseidon now in Athens (Collignon, 'Sculpture Grecque,' II. p. 481). Further, I procured an impression of the Theodoridas inscription and established beyond doubt, from the shape of the letters, that it belongs *to the first part of the fourth century* B. C.*

So it appears that the Venus was discovered together with two hermæ, one of which is later than 280, while the other one is earlier than 350. The consequence is, I believe, that neither one nor the other belonged to the statue. Mr. Furtwaengler has lately contended, with the approval of most German archæologists, that the lost fragment with the signature of Agesandros from Antioch really pertained to the pedestal of the Venus, which he does not believe to be earlier than the second century B. C. As, according to Debay's drawing, that fragment presented a hole for the insertion of a shaft, Mr. Furtwaengler has adopted a very awkward restoration of the Venus, her left elbow resting on a kind of column inserted in the pedestal to her left. I am glad to see that Mr. Robinson, in the new edition (1896) of his Boston 'Catalogue of Casts,' has abandoned Mr. Furtwaengler's theory, after a personal examination of the pedestal in Paris. But Voutier's drawing does not allow of Mr. Furtwaengler's restoration. The fragment with the signature *did not* support a column, but the small hermes now in the Louvre. So that, supposing the Venus and the lost marble have anything in common, we must resort to Tarral's restoration, as given in Goeler's 'Venus' or in Mr. Stillman's 'On the Track of Ulysses'; the hermes is on the left side of the goddess, who raises her left arm above it. Now, if Mr. Furtwaengler's restoration is bad, that of Tarral is simply hideous. So that there seems to be no other way out of the difficulty than to deny the existence of any connection between the two hermæ and the Venus. At the same time, the argument drawn from the Agesandros inscription, in order to establish the late date of the Venus, sinks to nothing, and we are free again to believe, contrarily to MM. Furtwaengler, Benndorf, Koerte, and many others, that the Venus is a work of the fourth century B. C.

I have stated that the Theodoridas inscription, found with the Poseidon, belongs to the beginning of the same century (say 370 B.C.). Now, the Poseidon has universally been attributed to the second century B. C. The fact that it was discovered with a statue placed on an inscribed base of the fourth century is a prime argument against the accepted date. But, moreover, that inscribed base bears a dedication in the Dorian dialect to Poseidon: Θεοδωρίδας Δαιστράτο Ποσειδᾶνι. It is at least probable that Theodoridas, having dedicated the statue of Poseidon, dedicated in the same shrine his own statue, which is preserved in Athens on its pedestal. So that the Poseidon would belong to the same period as the Venus, viz., the first half of the fourth century B. C. This, if verified, will be a hard lesson for the historians of ancient art, who all but unanimously considered the Poseidon as a Greco-Roman work. I should invite archæologists who reside in Athens to study the case with the greatest care. The date of the Theodoridas inscription is *unquestionable;* it remains to establish beyond doubt that the draped statue on the pedestal really belongs to it (as Mr. Cavvadias and one of my correspondents in Athens assert), and, moreover, to inquire if the style of that statue and of the Poseidon may be considered as contemporaneous. When archæologists really get convinced that the Poseidon was sculptured about 370 B. C., then nothing will prevent us from attributing the Venus to the school of Phidias, which is the natural tendency of all those who have studied the Elgin marbles, and which—I may add—has always been my opinion, in spite of the German archæologists and of the greatest among them, Mr. Furtwaengler.

Truly yours, SALOMON REINACH.

SAINT-GERMAIN-EN-LAYE, March 4, 1897.

* See *Chronique des Arts*, 1897, p. 42. When I wrote that article, I had not yet procured an impression of the Theodoridas inscription at Athens.

MONTAIGNE TRANSLATED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The interesting article in your issue of March 4 on Pater's unfinished romance would have been still more valuable if the reviewer had not followed his author in the phrasing of the quotations from Montaigne. He shows so much "first-hand" knowledge and appreciation of the great Frenchman that he ought to have perceived (and commented on the fact) that Mr. Pater took his translations second-hand from Cotton, and that they have the second-rate quality of much of Cotton's work—which is a serious injury to Mr. Pater's chapter on Montaigne.

But the greatest crime committed (recommitted) by Mr. Pater and his reviewer, Cotton is not responsible for, and I have for many years been vainly endeavoring to discover at whose door to lay the original sin. Mr. Pater quotes, your reviewer quotes, what is constantly everywhere quoted as being a sentence of Montaigne's: "Doubt is the best of pillows to sleep on." The many pages that have been written of *inference* from this saying, rest on nothing: Montaigne never uttered it. The saying it is *meant* for is this: "Ignorance and indifference [*i. e.*, our necessary ignorance about our future conditions *in this life*, and voluntary indifference about their ordering] are a soft pillow for a sound head." It will be seen that this has nothing to do with philosophic or religious *doubt.* The phrase is preceded by these sentences, which strike the note of the whole passage. (The italics are mine.)

"En cette université [*i. e.*, in the universe of our life] je me laisse *ignoramment* et *negligemment* manier à la loy generale du monde: je la sçauray assez quand je la sentiray: ma science ne luy peut faire changer de routte: elle ne se diversifiera pas pour moy; c'est folie de l'esperer, et plus grande folie de s'en mettre en peine, puis qu'elle est necessairement semblable, publique et commune. La bonté et capacité du gouverneur nous doit à pur et à plein descharger du soing du gouvernement: les inquisitions et contemplations philosophiques [about life] ne servent que d'aliment à nostre *curiosité.* Les philosophes, avec grande raison, nous renvoyent aux regles de nature. . . . Le plus simplement se commettre à nature, c'est s'y commettre le plus sagement. O que c'est un doux et mol chevet et sain, que l'ignorance et l'incuriosité, à reposer une teste bien faicte!"

Mr. Pater (following Cotton) quotes Montaigne as saying that "it is the greatest thing in the world for a man to know that he is his own"; your reviewer more clumsily puts it, "for a man to know that a man is his own." The original is, "La plus grande chose du monde c'est de sçavoir estre à soy"; *i. e.*, to know how to belong to one's self. This is not, as your reviewer seems to think, an assertion of freedom of thought, but of the desirableness of living "à loisir et à son aise." It is found in the essay on Solitude, and is fitly there; it is the answer to "ce beau mot dequoy se couvre l'ambition: . . . 'Que nous ne sommes pas nez pour nostre particulier, ains pour le publicq.'" It is almost the suggestion of Pascal's thought, "que tout le malheur des hommes vient d'une seule chose, qui est de ne savoir pas demeurer en repos dans une chambre."

Montaigne is very different from what he is "made out" to be!

A READER OF MONTAIGNE IN THE ORIGINAL.

[The review of Pater suffered a long delay in printing, and was written in the vacation away from books. The reviewer too reads Montaigne in the original.—ED. NATION.]

AN AMERICAN WOMAN AT THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: An American lady who has recently received a Ph.D. at the University of Göttingen gives, in a private letter to members of her family, the following account of her examination and the accompanying festivites. The account throws light on the status of women at the German universities, and also illustrates, as the writer says, how the Germans *do* some things. A. B.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., 1897.

"The cablegram told you that I passed the much dreaded ordeal *cum laude.* Of course you wish to know all about it, but the tale is so long it can only be given in broad lines. You remember when I came to Göttingen two years ago, I wrote you that the junior professor in German would not admit me to his *seminar* or his lectures: but the head of this department, dear old Professor Heyne, told me not to attempt to conciliate him, that he would give me all the work necessary to obtain my degree. When the permission came from the Cultus Minister at Berlin to be examined, the objector, although by himself, and powerless, thundered and roared both publicly and privately, and thus brought the whole Woman Question to the front again. The faculty, headed by Professor Heyne, decided that the whole matter must be kept from

me, but, as is always the case, it got to my ears, and, of course, greatly increased my anxiety. All the trouble and delay, added to the effects of my hard work, almost caused a physical collapse, but by force of will I managed to keep my nerves under, and have come through in fairly good shape. I feel that I have done my last pioneer work in any 'cause.' It is too wearing on both body and spirit. Henceforth I shall leave such work to those who have the philanthropic reformatory temperament.

"The examination itself was about what you would expect it to be—as a test of knowledge in three different subjects—a farce, if you are not known by your examiners, which is usually the case in your *Nebenfächer*.

"The Germans are very glad to get a 'cum laude.' Personally, I am satisfied, but for the 'cause' should have felt happier over a 'magna.' From my observation, I think I have done much more work than the average student, and without conceit can say that I know something about my subjects in the German sense of knowing.

"When I returned to the waiting-room at the close of the examination (8 P. M.), I found it full of people of both sexes with flowers and laurel wreaths. During my absence, my landlady had hung my door with garlands of evergreen, and arranged the flowers which had arrived in the meantime on the table in the middle of the room. Then, chaperoned by Mr. and Mrs. ——, I was taken to the finest restaurant in the town for supper. When I came to dinner at the *pension* the next day, I found my chair wound around with greens by the servants, and one after the other of the *Tischgesellschaft* came to me with flowers, which were put around my plate in such profusion that I could hardly see over them. The climax was reached when one of the German Ph.D.'s came in with a laurel wreath, tied with the colors of the philosophical faculty, which he put on my head to the great glee of the rest. I felt a bit silly, but it made a jolly time and showed the good will of all.

"I have been banqueted by the Americans at the rooms of two of the lady members of the colony. Besides all this, a banquet was arranged for me in my apartments, entirely German. The menu consisted of all kinds of *Butterbrod*, black, brown, and white, 'belegt' with every kind of cheese, *Wurst* and *Schinken*, with potato salad and eggs and beer. After these substantials, the long table was removed, and a smaller one was laden with punch-bowl, wine-glasses, and all sorts of bonbons and cakes. A speech was made in honor of the new doctor, who responded as gracefully as she was able. Student songs, a very amusing mock examination, etc., etc. In this company were my private tutors with their wives, and some other German friends.

"It may seem to you that it was a strange celebration for a strictly temperate American girl, but this is the way the Germans do things. The closing festivities occur Saturday night at the *pension*, the preparations for which I am not to know. I expect a lot of nonsense, which I am in the mood to enjoy after the long strain. Although the American students have congratulated me in the most hearty way, the leaders in these festivities are my German friends, who cannot do enough in honor of the new 'Fräulein doctor.'

"The expense incurred in obtaining the degree, including fees to examiners, diploma, and printing of *Arbeit*, is 400 marks."

CAUSE AND EFFECT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Prof. Skeat may be, as "F. H." alleges, chargeable with censoriousness and precipitancy and with ignorance of the amenities of modern literature, but surely the provocation must be great when his own Cambridge furnishes such a specimen of conjectural etymology as the following:

"Is the *there* in this case [There are green roses] a corruption of *they?* If the original form was, *e. g.*, *Green roses, they are = Green roses exist* or *are to be found* (cf. an old form of inscription in books, *e. g.*, *Stephen Thorp, his book*), it may have passed to They are, *i. e.*, green roses (are); and, then, perhaps for euphony's sake, and with some oblivion of the primary meaning and a vague reference to *there* in sense (2), There are green roses."—*Elements of Logic.* By E. E. Constance Jones, Girton College, Cambridge.

Sense (2), referred to above, makes *There is X* mean *X is existent.* A. I.

New Bedford, Mass., March, 1897.

Notes.

D. Appleton & Co. will shortly publish 'Pioneers of Evolution, from Thales to Huxley,' by Edward Clodd.

A volume of stories, 'The Ape, the Idiot, and Other People,' by W. C. Morrow, is in the press of J. B. Lippincott Co.

Recent reprints of a delectable kind are 'The Last Essays of Elia,' in J. M. Dent & Co.'s handy "Temple Series," still edited by Mr. Gollancz, and here sub-edited, with a minute pursuit of Lamb's citations and allusions, by W. J. Craig, of Trinity College, Dublin. It is the first edition which is here reproduced. The same house adds to its attractive Balzac a version by Clara Bell of 'About Catherine de' Medici.' Prof. Saintsbury furnishes the preface, in which he has a kindly word for the screaming fanatics who think that the policy of a state ought to be, even if it cannot be, "governed by the same considerations of duty to its neighbors as those which ought to govern the conduct of an individual." We remark in passing the appearance of 'The Deputy of Arcis' in Miss Wormeley's translation of Balzac, published by Roberts Bros., Boston, and return to Dent & Co. for mention of the Daudet series, augmented now by 'Sappho,' of which Dr. Henry Frith has done the rendering into English.

"My Lord the Elephant" is the prize design in bas-relief by the elder Kipling illustrating the third volume of the "Outward Bound" edition of Rudyard Kipling's Writings in Prose and Verse (Scribners). We should say accompanying rather than illustrating, for the story itself occurs in the previous volume. But, wherever found, this elephant is a striking product of familiar observation and of artistic cleverness. The text continues the Military Tales.

The literary and intellectual quality of the late Abram C. Dayton's 'Last Days of Knickerbocker Life in New York,' of which a second edition has just been published by the Putnams, is far below its readableness and real, if modest, worth as a picture of local manners and town characters in the thirties and forties. First issued, rather privately, in 1880, it is already antiquated, as one may see in the sections on the Middle Dutch Church bell, which "still clangs"; on the Tabernacle, with its vulgar caricature of the reformers who there held their anniversary meetings; or on the Adams Express Co., with its first-rate certificate to the integrity of a late president of the company. But such blemishes are either few or insignificant, and the writer's reminiscences are now supplemented by a number of excellent contemporary illustrations, which deserved an index. We reckon seventeen of them, including portraits of Grant Thorburn and five actors and actresses, the chapter on the stage being one of the best of Mr. Dayton's re-creations.

A good work, long needed, has been done by Mr. Frederick Wells Williams, Instructor in Oriental History in Yale University. In 'A History of China' (Scribners) he has reprinted the historical chapters from his father's large two-volume work, 'The Middle Kingdom,' and has added a luminous preface, a good index, and an original chapter of seventy-two pages. This last gives a narrative of recent events during the past twenty years. It is especially full on the Chino-Japanese war, with copious references to periodical literature and recent works on China. The work is creditably executed and will conveniently serve the purpose of the student and general reader. No one more than the late Dr. Williams himself realized his own deficiencies of method, and in his opening chapter he calls for some Gibbon or Niebuhr to begin critical research and prepare the way for a history of China that will satisfy modern taste and demands. Perhaps no individual, in our century at least, is capable of producing the desired work, and it is more than probable that, for a generation to come, this volume, so convenient and accessible, will hold an honored place. Mr. Williams, the editor and augmenter, writes impartially as between the Chinese and Japanese.

Longmans, Green & Co. have just published an attractive little volume, entitled 'Letters from Constantinople,' by Mrs. Max Müller. Three years ago Professor and Mrs. Max Müller visited Constantinople, where their son was Secretary of Embassy. The Sultan invited them to an audience and, later, to a dinner and a breakfast, and placed at their disposal an aide-de-camp who accompanied them everywhere, even to Brusa. Besides those things which tourists ordinarily see, they were shown the palace, private gardens, stables, and library of the Sultan, at Yildiz. Mrs. Müller also visited the wives of some of the Turkish ministers. The Sultan showered decorations upon both Prof. Müller and his wife, and the former presented the Sultan with his great work, 'The Sacred Books of the East.' The letters are very charming and entertaining. They are concerned mainly with the delightful reception accorded to the travellers. They are personal, as is natural, but incidentally they also contain some interesting glimpses of Turkish official life. It is difficult for Mrs. Müller to realize that the same Sultan who treated them with such cordiality and graciousness "has condoned, to say the least, the Armenian atrocities." She asks, "Could the Sultan have stopped the horrible massacres that were performed in his name? One wonders." Four of the sixteen chapters, or letters, in this volume were written by Prof. Müller; the remaining twelve by his wife, who edits the whole.

'On the Edge of the Orient,' by R. H. Russell (Scribners), is a slight and not ill-written sketch of the author's travels in Dalmatia, Montenegro, Turkey, and Egypt. The chapter on Montenegro is perhaps the most interesting. The photographic illustrations, which form so large a portion of books of this sort, are made with judgment. We cannot refrain from one criticism of the writer. In his chapter "The Pasha's Levee," he describes how, in his tourist's costume, he walked uninvited into the palace of the Governor of Damascus on the day of a great official reception. The fact that he was treated with ceremonious politeness in a private audience appears to him a fine joke. Any American who has winced under the reputation for ill-breeding that his fellow-countrymen have among a good many foreigners, cannot read this description with agreeable sensations.

College teachers in technical subjects have a sufficiently difficult occupation even when their students appear before them with the best of preparation in elementary subjects;

and text-books that promote a distinct advance in the methods of teaching the elements on which technical instruction is to be based, may justly claim a generous welcome. This is the case with the companion books by Drs. Austin and Thwing ('Physical Measurement'), and Profs. Carhart and Patterson ('Electrical Measurements'), both published in Boston by Allyn & Bacon. They deal with laboratory methods in physics and electricity. The latter is the more pretentious, and has more faults in view of laboratory requirements; but both books, if properly used, will help college students to a true conception of physics.

Two text-books on geology have lately been published by the Macmillan Co.—one, 'Elementary Geology,' by Prof. R. S. Tarr of Cornell (pp. 498); the other, more advanced, by Prof. W. B. Scott of Princeton (pp. 573). The first two parts of Tarr's book will be generally approved as giving a good introduction to physical or dynamical geology, with much fresh material, all explanatory and rational, although not always careful enough. The third part, in attempting to treat historical geology in a brief and elementary manner, necessarily omits the reasons for various statements. This part is beyond the real understanding of students who can use the preceding parts to best advantage. Scott's 'Introduction to Geology' is on a more serious plan. It is adapted to older beginners, and to the liking of a teacher who introduces a large share of deduction in his work. Logically enough, from the author's point of view, volcanoes and earthquakes form an early chapter, because they are determined by deep internal structures; and the processes of weathering come later because they are superficial. The closing chapters deal with historical geology, going much further than we believe any beginner can go with real intellectual profit. The book is not yet written that gives the young student a scientific knowledge of geology as the history of the earth. In both these books many excellent illustrations are to be found; but, in both, the "process" reproduction of photographs has led to some very unprofitable results, and in Tarr's the "vanishing-point" diagrams are peculiarly unnatural.

Russell's 'Glaciers of North America' (Ginn & Co.), a companion volume to his 'Lakes of North America,' is a most welcome addition to school and college literature, and must serve an excellent purpose as "a reading-lesson for students of geography and geology." It gives first a general account of glaciers, then a detailed description of them in all parts of our continent, with abundant and generally excellent illustrations. Climatic changes indicated by records of past glaciers, and the processes of glacier motion, each have a chapter; and the book closes with a very interesting and novel presentation of the "life-history of a glacier," showing its birth, development, decline, and death. For school and college libraries such a book as this is indispensable.

It has required very careful reading to determine whether Dr. A. H. Hoy designed his 'Eating and Drinking' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) for the popular or the professional eye. We think he had both in view, and we fear that neither will be gratified. There is too much that is technical for the one, and entirely too much that is rudimentary and commonplace for the other. The key to the essay is, that the maintenance of the alkalinity of the blood is necessary for the preservation of health, which is probably true. The author would seek to attain, or, more strictly, preserve, this condition by attention to diet, wisely remembering that there are constitutional differences between people, and that no fixed rules will lead all to physical any more than to social felicity. A very large number of authorities, some of weight, are quoted to sustain the different points in his argument, but unfortunately not one of them can be consulted except in these extracts, from violation of the fundamental principle of citing title and page. The style is loose, often inconsequential and colloquial, occasionally pointed, but generally obscure from an overflow of not very well selected words. Should the book be made into two, each one-third of the present size, one for physicians and one for the people, with short, clear, expressive sentences, both would be useful contributions to the science of health.

A very different volume is Alexander Wynter Blyth's 'Foods' (Van Nostrand), the fourth edition of which, enlarged and really revised, consists of seven hundred pages teeming with tables and well illustrated. As a manual of the composition and examination of human food it has a leading position. Exact reference to every authority and a series of bibliographies make easy the confirmation of quotation and the further study of the subject. The legal relations are to the English law, but, while superfluous for daily use here, they suggest ways of right doing, sometimes tedious but generally effective, and by so much encouraging to those working under other skies and rules.

Criticism being decidedly in fashion in France at the present day, the constant succession of volumes of criticism which issue from the press is not surprising, but it is surprising to find so much good work in a field incessantly and regularly traversed by writers of all shades of opinion and of widely different degrees of talent. Of the older and better known, Gustave Larroumet gives us still another collection of what might, in some respects, be termed fugitive pieces, in 'Petits Portraits et Notes d'Art' (Paris: Hachette). There is nothing in this volume of much weight or conspicuous merit. Henri Bordeaux's 'Sentiments et Idées de ce Temps' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.) contains more solid and instructive matter, notably a good article on the dilettantism of Jules Lemaître, a writer whose wit and cleverness are apt to impress many readers with the notion that he is weighty and a safe guide in all matters literary. There is a curious admiration of Bourget's work, especially of that part of it which has the United States for its subject, in which it is not easy to share. But it is interesting to note how curious the French have become concerning this country, and how desirous of having a more faithful account of its people and their peculiarities than can be gathered from the works of romancers or the plays of dramatists who have never crossed the water.

M. Charles Dejob has made the relations of France and Italy in matters of literature his chosen field of study, and has already published two volumes of decided worth on this subject. His latest publication, 'Études sur la Tragédie' (Paris: Colin & Cie.), is devoted almost wholly to a continuation of his special labors. He gives us two studies, both well wrought out, on "French Tragedy in Italy and Italian Tragedy in France in the Seventeenth and Eighteenth Centuries," and on "Contemporary Historical Drama in France and Italy." In these he shows a quite sufficiently high opinion of the historical dramas produced of late years in France. He has attempted in another study to vindicate Campistron from the condemnation passed upon him by Hugo, who, in the famous line,

"Sur le Racine éteint, le Campistron pullule,'

branded the poor wretch for ever as the type of the feeble imitators of the great tragedian.

Mr. Edward Meyer, in his 'Machiavelli and the Elizabethan Drama' (Weimar, 1897), a German inaugural dissertation but written in English, presents a careful study of the origin and early history of a popular misconception. The 'Prince,' on which the popular notion of Machiavelli's teachings is largely based, although not translated into English until 1640, had been known to English scholars as early as 1568, the probable date of Ascham's 'Scholemaster,' in which Machiavelli's name occurs. But the real source of the Machiavellianism which has become a byword in English speech was a work attacking the 'Prince' by a Frenchman, Gentillet, whose book was translated in 1577 by Simon Patericke. By this means Machiavelli was displayed to English readers in the guise of an instigator of tyranny, cruelty, perfidy, fraud, libertinism, and atheism. In this guise his name became one of the most familiar allusions of the Elizabethan theatre. Indeed, in the prologue to Marlowe's "Jew of Malta," and in some later pieces, he even trod the boards as a kind of sanguinary *Mephistopheles*. Mr. Meyer has collected 395 instances of Machiavelli's name or his supposed maxims occurring in Elizabethan literature, mainly in the drama, and finds "Machiavellian" traits in nearly all of the stage villains of the time. Towards the end of his dramatic existence, Machiavelli degenerated from a terror into a subject of ridicule, and, by the time of the closing of the theatres in 1642, had well-nigh lost his power to interest an audience. As every one knows, however, the old notion has become crystallized in a handy epithet.

Recent numbers of the *Far East*, published in Tokio, contain articles of high literary merit by native writers, which are remarkable as showing the real ambition of the better minds of Japan to be that of peace rather than of war. It is true that the writers are not army officers; yet, though scholars and literary men, they enjoy in their other writings a tremendous popularity, and their chosen subjects in this magazine, and their methods of treatment, are noteworthy signs of the times. Especially to be remarked is the brilliant article by Prof. Nitobé (who wrote 'The United States and Japan,' in the Johns Hopkins University Historical Series) on "Our Recent Chauvinism." He shows that the outbursts in literature, theatricals, popular notions, fashions, and anti-Christian movements are but the expiring flicker of a flame that can no longer live in the new atmosphere of Japan. The anti-foreign reaction is already over, but, as now seen, it has proved that Japan no longer stands outside the pale of the forces that act upon the larger world. Many a Japanese already sees the time near at hand when a patriot can be a good citizen of the world without sacrificing one iota of the love of his country. Other articles treat of the Indo-Germanic elements in the Japanese language, the ceramic art in Japan, the progress of education, and the various questions (including that of a conflict of laws) likely to arise out of the revised treaties. The magazine (in English) is to be had of the International News Co., 85 Duane St., New York.

A. W. Elson & Co., Boston (New York: H. Wunderlich and Wm. Schaus), send us a remarque proof edition of the latest portrait in their series entitled "The Makers of Our Nation and Our Battles for Freedom," namely, the Franklin in the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, ascribed by its donor to Greuze, but now believed to be a replica of Duplessis's portrait. To whichever artist it may belong, it is the Franklin whose image is most familiar to his countrymen, and the execution of this photogravure is up to the level of the best of the series, which has now an imposing length. The undertaking was originally begun with a special view to adorning the school-room, and there is a parallel edition, at the uniform price of a dollar, which brings this national gallery quite within reach of even rural schools. Washington, Jefferson, Madison, Hamilton, Marshall, John Jay, Samuel Adams, Lincoln, Whittier, Holmes, Longfellow, Prescott, and Motley are already thus scattered up and down the country, and the wall-spaces had best be filled before the Platts, Quays, Lodges, Forakers, Shermans, Hannas, and kindred statesmen put forward their claims to reverent remembrance.

An American Committee, headed by Minister Bayard, has been formed in London to assist in the Cabot celebration, at Bristol, during the coming summer. A monument is to be erected in that city, and it is proposed that the funds collected in America shall be specifically devoted—as, to one of the bas reliefs on the plinth of the monument. Subscriptions from this side may be sent to the Secretary, Lorin A. Lathrop, United States Consul at Bristol, or to Brown Brothers & Co., New York, to the credit of Brown, Shipley & Co., London, Cabot Committee Account.

—America has a title to some share in the credit that attaches to a newly published 'Bibliography of Arabic Literature,' of all ages, as printed in the East or in the West, by Edward Van Dyck (Cairo: George Zaydān, 1896). The compiler of this work, which is wholly in Arabic and intended as a manual for Oriental youth desiring a guide to standard and profitable reading, is a son of the late Rev. Dr. Van Dyck, the distinguished missionary at Beirut, and therefore of American parentage, though born in Syria. But he was also formerly one of the United States consular clerks and interpreter to the State Department at Washington, for which he made a valuable compilation of the capitulations of Turkey. In revising his account of printed works on Moslem law and religion, Mr. Van Dyck has had the assistance of Sayyid Muhammad-'Ali-al-Biblāwi. The work comprises altogether 600 pages, large octavo. The arrangement is systematic and chronological; there is a full table of contents, an index of titles and another of authors. The introduction treats of the places in which Arabic works are preserved, and of bibliographical works in general pertaining to Arabic literature, while Part i. exhibits the interest taken by European scholars in the language and literature, and their labors in publishing standard Arabic works. Part ii. surveys the literature, transmitted orally and in writing, from the earliest times to the fall of Bagdad, with mention of what has got into print. The period of decay, down to the revival in modern times, occupies Part iii. Part iv. ushers in the nineteenth century, but the production has now become too vast for exhaustive presentation. Biographical notices of prominent writers are, as a rule, given throughout; and titles are frequently followed by short notices of contents and appreciations. There can be but one judgment as to the merit of this unique and learned undertaking.

—A correspondent writes us from Cairo that the new Egyptian Museum is rapidly going up. It is an enormous structure situated just down the river from the Gasr en Nyl barracks (a pile well known to those who have crossed the Nile bridge to Gezyra), and not far from the old original museum site at Bulak. The present costly edifice has been designed by a French architect, and is admirably adapted for its purpose both as regards lighting and future enlargement, and is as nearly fire-proof as possible. The Museum will, as now, be the largest collection of any kind in the world housed under one roof. Recent accessions have been numerous and of vast interest. The present month also sees arise, on the great Abdyn Square, opposite the Khedive's palace, the new Arabian Museum and Khedivial Library, with ample accommodations. The Belgian company controlling the trolley lines that radiate from the city in various directions has obtained a concession for a line to the Pyramids, which it hopes to have open next season. The conditions are that the company shall widen the great bridge over the Nile, lay its rails outside of the great beautiful lebbek-shaded carriage-road, and fill up the old disused canal running through the city from Old Cairo on the south to Abbassiyeh on the north, and to make in its place an avenue six kilometres long and ten metres wide, with privilege to lay a track on it. This will be a marked and useful improvement.

—Prof. Gardner, at the last meeting of the Hellenic Society, gave an account of a stone tripod now at Oxford, and described by Prof. Michaelis on p. 592 of his 'Ancient Marbles of Great Britain.' Anthony Lefroy presented it to All Souls College in 1771, having described it in his inscription as "aram tripodem olim matri deum in templo S. Corinthi consecratum." There was, said Prof. Gardner, no solid reason for Lefroy's supposition connecting the tripod with the temple of the mother of the gods. The monument could be described as follows: "On a round pedestal with three feet recline three lions, on each of which stands a female figure clad in a long chiton girt at the waist, and wearing on the head a kind of stephane, and over that a round crown or polos. Each grasps in one hand the tail of a lion whereon she stands; with the other, apparently raises her dress. On the heads of the three women rests a basis, supported also by a central column, in the form of an hour-glass with torus in the midst." Gori, in the 'Numismata Lefroyana,' considered this tripod unique, but since his day (1789), and indeed since Machaelis dealt with it, fragments of two or three similar bases had been found. Getting such help as these afford, especially depending upon Dr. Treu's reconstruction of a similar basis from Olympia which admits of certain modifications, Prof. Gardner concluded that the form, use, and character and even the scale of the Olympian and the Oxford tripods, and the vessels they supported, were the same. They are specimens of a kind of monument common in antiquity and of a fixed type. No real notions of cultus can have attached to the three supporting figures, and such tripods may have belonged to the service of any of the gods, not of Cybele only. Most likely they were used for holding the holy water for the purification of those who came into the presence of the gods. Without being sure that the Oxford tripod may not be a very faithful Roman copy of a Greek original belonging, at the latest, to the middle of the fifth century B. C., Prof. Gardner inclines to think it an original. The Olympian basis being lamentably fragmentary, this tripod-basis of All Souls remains the only extant well-preserved example of a kind of utensil in common use at the various shrines of Greece.

—At the same meeting, Prof. Gardner also dealt with the "Mantinean Bases," three beautiful slabs preserved in the Central Museum at Athens, upon which are sculptured, in bas-relief, figures from the workshop of Praxiteles, whose statues of Leto, Apollo, and Artemis stood on the pedestal which these slabs adorned. The writer maintained that the three slabs form a complete composition as they are, and rejected the current idea that there was a missing slab, containing three Muses. With this apocryphal slab, he rejected as unnecessary an emendation of Pausanias's description of the Mantinean basis, and Dr. Waldstein's restoration of its three statues. In place of this last, he proposed a group like that found upon a Megarian coin of Severus which copies "a probable replica made for that city" by Praxiteles. The Mantinean monument would then be briefly as follows: On the left of the pedestal we should have Leto with three Muses (one of the slabs) adorning the pedestal below her; on the right of the pedestal would stand Artemis with three Muses (the second slab) below. In the middle would stand the Praxitelean Apollo, and the third slab would adorn the centre of the basis just below Apollo. This third slab is the only one that caught Pausanias's eye, and he mistook the seated, long-robed Apollo for a Muse—a most natural mistake. This central slab, like each of the others, contains three figures. Apollo is seated with his lyre, and before him stands a Phrygian slave, beyond whom is the discomfited Marsyas. The fact that the number of Muses on the basis is then only six was easily dealt with by references to Oscar Bie's exhaustive treatise, which shows that Hellenic art was a stranger to the fixed number of nine, so scrupulously adhered to in Hellenistic as in Roman times.

—The recent investigations by Dr. Ehlers of leprosy in Iceland have directed the attention of the Danish authorities to the prevalence of this dreaded disease in other Danish colonies, and the results will be a surprise to the majority of readers. The other leprosy centre is in the three Danish West India islands of St. Thomas, St. Kitts, and St. Croix. In view of the frequently renewed attempts on our part to obtain possession of the first of these, the question may be regarded as having a special interest for Americans. Indeed, if the present Administration should take serious steps towards acquiring St. Thomas, the complete rooting out of leprosy by the Danish authorities should be made a previous condition. According to the official report of the Board of Health, the figures of which probably fall considerably below the actual condition, there were in 1894 twenty-two lepers on St. Thomas, evenly divided as to sex, of whom five belonged to the higher classes, five were inferior whites, and the rest were colored. It is interesting to note that all of the ten white lepers were natives of the island. Seven were either Jews or of Jewish descent. On St. Croix there were eighty-two lepers, the greater number being due to the location there of the only hospital for the special use of this class of patients. As to sex, the

women are slightly in the majority. All but one belong to the lower classes. On St. Kitts the last leper died about three years ago. The proportion of lepers to the whole population is four per thousand. A serious feature of the disease is the lack of isolation of patients. No law requires them to be placed in the asylum on St. Croix, and patients already quartered there may leave at any time. On St. Thomas they are placed in the same hospital with other patients. It is none too soon that the Board of Health has begun to attempt reforms which, if successful, will provide isolated hospitals, with obligatory residence of all lepers known to the authorities.

—Very few mathematicians of the strength and originality of the late James Joseph Sylvester, who died in London on March 15, have ever lived. There have been great analysts whose secret was a symbolical method—it was, so to speak, their little game, by which they made problems of a certain class easy ; others have accomplished great things by turning problems into geometrical shape ; others have carefully avoided problems that were not adapted to their peculiar powers ; but Sylvester seemed ready to attack any problem, provided only it was difficult—even problems in geometry, for which he was wanting in the peculiar knack that some men have ; he never employed symbolical methods, but seemed to create a method specially adapted to each problem he took up. Perhaps he was not, on the whole, a mathematician of the greatest kind; but for naked logical strength but two or three have ever equalled him. He was of Jewish extraction, and was born September 3, 1814, in London. In 1837 he graduated from Johns, Cambridge, being second senior wrangler. After an inappropriate appointment to the professorship of natural philosophy in the University of London, he accepted a professorship in the University of Virginia, where he stayed less than a year, however. Other experiments, in England, were equally uncongenial or unfruitful. In 1876, at the instance of Peirce, he was called to the Johns Hopkins University. He accepted with much diffidence, for he always said he had not much mathematical reading. Nevertheless, his occupancy of the chair proved a glorious success, and a school of enthusiastic and very able young mathematicians grew up under his guidance. His students were always introduced to the matter that was glowing upon the anvil of his own workshop, and so learned how to make researches. In this way he conferred upon this country an inestimable benefit. He established here the *American Journal of Mathematics*, which continues to occupy a more than respectable position among journals of discovery. In December, 1883, he was elected Savilian professor of geometry in the University of Oxford, and thereupon returned to his native land, where, at length occupying a position such as ought to have been imposed upon him forty-five years earlier, he immediately began to stimulate the development of mathematics as he had done here.

THE NEW VASARI.

Lives of Seventy of the Most Eminent Painters, Sculptors, and Architects. By Giorgio Vasari. Edited and annotated in the light of recent discoveries by E. H. and E. W. Blashfield and A. A. Hopkins. With reproductions in photogravure of 48 masterpieces of Italian painting and sculpture. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1896. 4 vols. 8vo.

One of the most signal services that could be done to the study of the history of Italian art would be the bringing out of such an edition of Vasari as could now be made. Messer Giorgio's text should be apportioned to three specialists in architecture, sculpture, and painting respectively. By specialist we of course do not mean a person exceedingly learned in his subject. That is not enough, for "knowledge comes and wisdom lingers," and wisdom in art can come only to the student gifted with a good eye and artistic sensibility, who has had much experience of the work of art as a sensation. Still less than men of learning do we mean to include among specialists the enthusiasts who delve in archives from which they extract documents chiefly of great insignificance, to whom, as to the proverbial professor for whom Greek literature was nothing but a providential illustration to the grammar, the work of art has no value whatever except such as the document lends it. By specialist we mean, in short, a connoisseur in his subject—that is to say, one who knows the works of art intimately, subtly, and minutely, and knows all the valuable (for of worthless writing on art there is no end) literature concerning them.

The difficulties would not be the same for each of the three specialists to whom our ideal edition of Vasari would be assigned. The student of architecture would have the easiest task. Either the buildings have remained or they have perished, and that is the end of it. They cannot be hidden away in some private collection among the Dacians, Scythians, or Picts. Then, as architecture was always a more serious undertaking than painting, involving more persons and taking more time, it is natural that documents regarding it should be more plentiful. Nor is this all. The interpretation of documents for architecture is a comparatively simple matter. In this art, styles are so limited and so obvious that even the obtusest archivist will not commit, as in painting the cleverest have done, the mistake of confusing a late work with the earlier that it replaces—the earlier being the subject of his document.

The writer on sculpture has a task not quite so easy, but yet not fraught with the difficulties that stand in the way of the student of the history of Italian paintings. So frequently have works described in documents perished, and been replaced by pictures answering equally well to the descriptions, so often have originals been sold secretly and copies made to supply their place, that no document can possibly guarantee the authenticity of a picture. The greatest of all archivists, Gaetano Milanesi, had so little competence when brought face to face with the work of art that, to choose one example out of many, he could mistake an "Assumption" at S. Agostino in Borgo S. Sepolcro, painted by some feeble follower of Perugino, for a picture of the same subject, and for the same church, that, according to documents, the great and severe Piero dei Franceschi should have painted sixty years earlier.

But the interpretation of documents is not the only difficulty that the student of the history of painting has to encounter ; a much greater is the scattering of the material. To acquire such an acquaintance with the style of a painter in all its phases as the connoisseur must have, demands years of travel, the visiting not only of every public gallery in Europe, but of the even more numerous and frequently inaccessible private collections. This is a labor costly and full of hardships, and the reward is small. No wonder it is undertaken but seldom. Yet without all this toil no student would be fit to edit Vasari's 'Lives of the Painters.'

The edition before us has not been edited by specialists, but by compilers. Let us say at once that they have acquitted themselves of their task as well as outsiders to the subject possibly could have done. They are well informed, unpartisan, fair—according to their light. Yet their commentary is a jumble of material, some valuable, other questionable; much, worse than useless. For them every person who fairly recently has written a book is an authority, and the bulkier the book the weightier the authority. To take one instance out of a number, they cite and quote M. Müntz constantly. Now M. Müntz has done nothing to deserve such honor except to publish some documents throwing light for the most part on pet'y craftsmen only, and several huge compilations on the Renaissance and Raphael. This compiler has been for the editors of our Vasari a far greater authority than Cavalcaselle, Morelli, or Bode. The trouble with the compiler is that he cannot possibly judge of the real value of the material before him. He is sure, in spite of the best intentions, to fall a victim to standards of criticism that are irrelevant. He has none of that power of weighing evidence which to the well-trained specialist becomes almost instinctive. He will, in despair, end with some rough-and ready balancing of authorities such as we find in the notes to the volume now occupying us.

There is one thing for which Vasari never can be made to serve, and that is as a complete history of Italian art. We fear some such intention has misguided Messrs. Blashfield and Hopkins. They have tried not only to correct Vasari's many errors and to tell us of the fate or the present resting-place of the works of art he mentions, but to piece him out with much new information, and to correct his judgments where they do not think him sound. Now so to supplement him as to make him a complete guide to Italian art is next to impossible—or, if you must attempt it, you end by writing some such work as Messrs. Crowe and Cavalcaselle have produced on painting. It no longer is Vasari. Messer Giorgio was true to his kindred points of heaven and home. Of Lombard art he knew nothing; of Emilian and Veronese, not much more. Even the Venetians he knew most superficially—only a few names—the Bellini, Carpaccio, Giorgione, Palma, Lotto, Titian, Tintoretto ; and that is all. When he mentions others it is to confuse them hopelessly. Our editors have attempted to put Vasari straight, but we cannot commend them for their success quite as warmly as we should like.

But of this more presently. Our chief objection is to correcting Vasari's estimates. In the first place they are better in almost every instance than any that have been given since ; but even if they were not, who would care to have him annotated with corrections ? To the beginner such contradictions of the master can bring confusion only, and that despairing feeling of art being all "a matter of taste" which certainly does not invite to further study. To the person who already knows the artists, these emendations are worthless because he has his own estimates, and when he turns to Vasari it is either as to literature or as to a source of information. We should not

quarrel so much with the annotators if they had confined themselves to giving their own appreciations—which, by the way, are excellent and at times singularly felicitous; but they waste abundant space on quotations from the vague generalizations of Taine, the pompous emptiness of Symonds, or the alluring tinsel of Vernon Lee.

Before citing a small number of examples illustrating some of the various objections we have made, a word is in place regarding the translation, the reproductions, and the bibliography. The translation is Mrs. Foster's, and through it you do see Vasari, but as through a glass, darkly. The illustrations are pretty well reproduced, but as a rule we should not say that they were either the most representative or the best fitted for reproduction. What idea, for instance, will you have of Giotto's style after seeing an illustration but a few inches square, yet expected to do justice to his vastest composition, the "Last Judgment" of the Arena Chapel? As for the bibliography, it is confusing in arrangement and purposely incomplete, many of the books most often cited in the notes being not discoverable here. It is, to say the least, an odd way of compiling a bibliography.

And now for those instances we have promised to give. The famous Madonna at S. Maria Novella is ascribed to Cimabue as unquestioningly as if Wickhoff had never written on the subject. One is even more taken aback to find the fresco at S. Onofrio in Rome, which used to be attributed to Leonardo, ascribed to Cesare da Sesto, on the authority of M. Reymond (a writer without weight on painting, although most praiseworthy on sculpture) when Morelli, Frizzoni, Richter, and even Bode, we believe, have all given it to Beltraffio, by whom obviously it is. Of authorities, why choose the least? The reason seems to be that M. Reymond has written more bulkily on the subject. The editors allow themselves to be greatly troubled that Gronau and Wickhoff ascribe the "Fête Champêtre" to Campagnola and not to Giorgione. We are happy to be able to set them at rest. Dr. Gronau has abjured his heresy, and as for Prof. Wickhoff, he is of as little weight as a connoisseur as he is of importance in historical criticism and in iconography. Still more provincial is the awe the editors show before the many Italian writers on local art. These, except when publishing the text of documents, are best disregarded.

In spite of their most earnest efforts, Messrs. Blashfield and Hopkins are not quite up to date, as mere compilers must always fail to be. Pollajuolo's embroideries, for instance, are no longer in the sacristy of S. Giovanni, but in the Opera del Duomo at Florence. The Ghirlandajo formerly at St. Anna in Pisa is now in the museum of that town. Such matters are trifling; but it is more serious when we find no mention of much recent literature that might have been of the greatest service to the editors just where they are weakest—in the task, best not attempted, of piecing out Vasari so as to become a sufficient guide to Venetian painting. They might have profited by, or at least indicated the existence of, such invaluable sources as the documents published a couple of years ago by Signor Pietro di Osvaldo Paoletti. About Emilian art much is to be learned from A. Dondi's 'Duomo di Modena.' And, to cite but one other omission, the best work on Jacopo della Quercia is one published last year by Carl Cornelius. While under this rubric let us note an omission which for American readers is most flagrant. We have not here so many paintings by Vasari, least of all frescoes, that we can afford to neglect them. Yet an edition of Vasari perhaps written and certainly published in New York fails to mention that the famous fresco of St. Christopher painted by Pollajuolo for S. Miniato fra le Torre is now in the Metropolitan Museum. In this connection we may add that, according to rumor, Titian's renowned "Europa" is no longer at Cobham Hall, but in America, and the greatest work of art here.

The notes betray haste, resulting in solecisms, barbarisms, and confusion. Among Botticelli's pupils was one whom the master made the butt of his practical jokes. His name was Biagio di Tuccio, and there our knowledge ends. But this did not suffice the annotator, who takes the pains to tell us that this Biagio, the simpleton pupil of Botticelli of Florence, was identical with the magnificent and renowned Venetian painter, Vincenzo di Biagio Catena. And what shall one say to such statements as that the Bramante of Milan who painted in company with Piero dei Franceschi for Nicholas V., was not Bramante the architect! We thought everybody concerned with art knew that Bramante the architect was also a painter (indeed, you may see works by him in the Casa Prinetti at Milan, and in Chiaravalle, close by), that in this art he was the pupil of Piero dei Franceschi, and that he lived in Milan many years of his life and hence was called Bramante of Milan. Such slips—and the present edition of Vasari has many—are made by compilers only. Hence all the objections we have to Messrs. Blashfield and Hopkins's "Vasari"—which, nevertheless, is, for such as must read dear Messer Giorgio in English, the best edition in existence.

MORE WAGNER LETTERS.

Briefe von Richard Wagner an seine Zeitgenossen. 1830–1883. Zusammengestellt von Emerich Kastner. Berlin: Leo Lipmannssohn. Pp. 138.

Emerich Kastner of Vienna is one of the most industrious of the German scholars who have devoted their life or leisure to collecting documents relating to Richard Wagner. His Wagner Catalogue, published in 1878, contains many valuable critical and literary details. Subsequently, while he was editor of the periodical *Parsifal*, he enlarged his collection to more than 100,000 documents and clippings, similar in character to those which Oesterlein has printed in his four-volume 'Wagner-Katalog.' In 1885 Herr Kastner had already issued a brochure entitled 'Wagneriana,' containing a list of about 400 letters written by Wagner. This list he has now enlarged to 1,470 letters, and printed it under the title placed at the head of this review. The letters are, so far as possible, arranged in strict chronological order, and, besides the addressee and date, the entry gives the first line or two of the contents; for these lines there is a special index. An appendix of eleven pages gives a list of the recipients of the letters (nearly 300), from which one gains some idea of Wagner's epistolary diligence. The value of this appendix has been increased by a few words of information regarding each of the correspondents.

Herr Kastner is aware that even the present collection is by no means complete. Indeed, within a few weeks the *Frankfurter-Zeitung* and the *Allgemeine Musik-Zeitung* have printed a large batch of unpublished Wagner letters of which he had no information. It is likely that there are a good many others, some of them in America, and it is desirable, for the sake of having a complete record, that the recipients should put themselves in communication with Herr Kastner, in care of his publisher.

The letters printed for the first time in the February numbers of the *Allgemeine Musik-Zeitung* (Berlin) are addressed to the late Otto Wesendonck, one of Wagner's most generous and hospitable friends during the years of his Swiss exile. In the first of these letters, dated 1856, Wagner asks Wesendonck reproachfully if he really fancied that he could make an "unbusinesslike" arrangement with the publishers in regard to the Nibelung scores; adding: "You do not like to be addressed simply as a business man, and in the same way you do me an injustice by crediting me with no business sense at all." On the whole, Wesendonck was right; Wagner often did make very unbusinesslike transactions. In this Nibelung business, when Wagner failed to come to terms with Breitkopf & Härtel (who have regretted it ever since), he offered to dispose of the scores to Wesendonck, who generously advanced a large sum which he had no hope of ever seeing again. It was simply a delicate way of making his friend a present.

Wagner's eagerness to plunge into new projects before he had completed older ones, is illustrated in a letter of this period in which he exclaims: "Besides 'Tristan' I have now taken up a second subject which so absorbs me that I should like to annihilate all intervening work, so as to get as quickly as possible at the elaboration of this new plan. It is to be entitled 'The Victor.'" A few months later he wrote a letter which affords valuable testimony as to his sincere admiration of Liszt's symphonic poems, and notes Liszt's great joy thereat. In this letter, too, Wagner expresses himself reconciled to current misunderstandings as to his works, since even Liszt had to confess to him that he had been unable, without the composer's help, to fathom some of their depths. Elsewhere he says of his own operas: "These works are so difficult, and so far away from all current theatrical routine, that I can save them from complete misinterpretation solely by permitting at least the first performances to be given only under quite exceptional conditions."

The letters to Wesendonck contain many exclamations of gratitude for his friendly efforts and services, and one touching letter of sympathy written on the death of Wesendonck's son. The correspondence extends to the Paris "Tannhäuser" period and beyond. The following detail is not recorded in any of the biographies: "A Russian general, director of the imperial theatre, came to me with this alternative: either for me to go next September to St. Petersburg, remain there all winter, produce 'Tannhäuser,' conduct grand concerts, and receive therefor 50,000 francs, half of it to be paid at once; or nothing at all. Every suggested combination and compromise with the impending performance of the opera in Paris was rejected." Of course Wagner could not go back on the Paris project undertaken at Napoleon's wish, and so he lost the Russian offer.

The letters printed in the *Frankfurter-Zeitung* are addressed to Wendelin Weissheimer, a pupil of Liszt, and a well-known conductor and composer. He was one of Wagner's most intimate friends during the period when "Die Meistersinger" was composed, and aided him not only musically, but financially. On May

22, 1862, Wagner wrote to him: "Since this morning, my birthday, I know that the 'Mastersingers' will be my master-work." Most of these letters belong to the period (shortly before King Ludwig summoned Wagner) when his distress had reached its maximum, and they are therefore full of all sorts of wild schemes for raising funds. Some of the wildest of these schemes, strange as it may seem to us, were concert projects in the principal German cities. At these concerts Wagner conducted selections from his older operas, together with some from his new works; but the Germans had neither money nor ears for him. At Leipsic, for instance, in 1862 (twelve years after the first performance of "Lohengrin"), Weissheimer gave a concert, the proceeds of which he had kindly offered to turn over to Wagner. But, as he explains in a note, "In spite of the coöperation of Wagner and Hans von Bülow, the audience was very small. Instead of the expected surplus for Wagner, I had a considerable deficit. The *Gewandhäusler* of that time had passed the word that they would shine by their absence, and let Wagner conduct the 'Tannhäuser' overture and the new 'Meistersinger' Vorspiel *to empty benches.*"

Outside of Germany, especially in St. Petersburg and Budapest, Wagner had better luck with his concerts, and this led him to write to Weissheimer in 1863:

"I must now see how I can earn my living, as I am sincerely convinced that I can hope nothing more for my works from the theatres. Now that I have reached my fiftieth year I must know what I am to live on; the incredible success I have just had in Pesth points the way in which, even though it be at great sacrifices, I can do something for my future. The world comprehends and pays only the *virtuoso;* at the head of an orchestra, with my few compositions, I shall appear to be one, and in that rôle I must now—and it is high time—provide for myself."

The correspondence with Weissheimer extends to the period subsequent to the King's invitation of Wagner to Munich. The last letter printed contains a line that throws light on a disputed point: "The large salary which the King gives me has been purposely stated at a smaller figure." Weissheimer, in a postscript, makes the important announcement that these letters are only specimens of the treasures in his possession, and that the whole collection will be printed next autumn in his 'Wagnerbuch,' a volume of considerable size, which will contain the reminiscences in full of his intercourse with Wagner for many years.

Heroic Japan: A History of the War between China and Japan. By F. W. Eastlake and Yoshi-aki. Yokohama: Kelly & Walsh.

If the industrious and conscientious authors of this book had been content with limiting their title to the first two words, no fault could reasonably be found with it, for the work is a picture of national heroism and individual heroes. The work is not, in any honest sense of the word, "a history of the war between China and Japan." Almost nothing is said of the Chinese view of the questions precipitating the war, or of China's abilities and methods of procedure. This arises less from the authors' unwillingness to state the facts than from their ignorance of them.

Even from the Japanese narratives and captures, it is seen that this war was not one between two countries. On one side was an alert, warlike nation, thoroughly unified from within, with uniform ideas, culture, traditions, political and military organization. Its army was officered by and composed largely of veterans of its own civil wars, and gathered from every province and district of an empire which had been born again with a modern nervous system of telegraphs, railways, steamers, and telephones. It was armed, equipped, moved, fed, taught in hygiene, and its individuals nursed in hospitals when wounded or sick, on an absolutely uniform system, at the head of which is an Emperor for whom any soldier would die. The Japanese were infused with a love of country and Emperor, and hereditary hatred to China, that made their whole quick movement one mighty hammer-blow. They had had experience of modern ships and weapons during twenty years. On the other hand were two or three Chinese provinces, ruled by a few men—very few indeed who had any direct interest in the war. From these provinces only came the drilled troops, numbering perhaps no more than twenty thousand, who opposed the Japanese. The Chinese people at large, in a country without wires or rails, scarcely knew that there was a war. After Li Hung Chang's regular troops had been destroyed in Korea, nearly all those sent to fight the Japanese were the usual riff raff of Chinese soldiery, armed with weapons that would give a panorama of Chinese military history during three centuries. Besides the bows and arrows, spears and jingalls captured, the Japanese found among their trophies ten different varieties of modern rifles. The Chinese military system was eaten up by corruption. There was no hospital corps. The miserable wounded had to crawl towards charity as best they could. The cartridges were often many years old and worthless. Not a few Japanese to-day wear as trophies the balls which hit them at moderate range without piercing clothing or skin.

We need go no further to show that we have here no "history" giving the facts upon both sides. In one respect, however, the work deserves unstinted praise. It has been written by men who have gone to the sources. They gathered their facts from living participants, eye-witnesses, and official papers, and the narrative as told may be relied upon. Printed by natives in Tokyo, one can easily add to the three or four pages of errata furnished on a leaflet with the book. The English not infrequently is of a very Japanese sort, besides being garnished with occasional slang and colloquialisms much better left out. The reproductions of ships and naval scenes from photographs and paintings are tolerable. The numerous portraits, while hardly to be called works of art, give a wonderful idea of the intellectual force of these heroes.

The method of narration is to begin without any philosophy as to the origin of the war, save as the translation of the diplomatic correspondence and the imperial rescript reveal such. The opening chapter, describing the sinking of the *Kow shing*, is one of the best, clearing the subject of exaggeration and misstatements. Twenty-three chapters deal with the campaigns in Korea and Mantchuria, the great naval battle and the capture of Port Arthur and Wei hai-wei. Following the text of each narrative is a collection of anecdotes of heroic exploits. These certainly show the splendid courage of the Japanese officer and private. Indeed, this volume demonstrates what the average Japanese samurai—the hereditary man of letters and arms in Japan—refused to believe a generation ago, that the unprivileged men, peasants, farmers, or mechanics, could be heroes in war fully equal to the old knights who monopolized the art of bloodshed. The present reviewer well remembers how angry many of the sworded gentry were, how they resigned, and prophesied all sorts of calamities to come upon Japan, because the army and military honors were opened to "pudding faces."

Except to the military student, the story of battle is monotonous, as it could not help being when all the successes were on one side. It was the sharp sword of Japan cutting through Chinese cheese. It is the story of the great uprising of Japan which unified a nation only recently emerging from feudalism, giving the people a national consciousness such as nothing before had done. The student will welcome the story of the superb organization of the army, showing how the Japanese excel in order and system. The medical staff and its work are finely described. Each soldier was well armed, equipped, and instructed as to personal hygiene. Whether for ice and snow or sub-tropical heat, he was properly clothed and fed. Above any other modern army that we ever heard of, that of Japan was waited on and helped by tens of thousands of trained laborers of hardy physique and in perfect subordination. The chapters on the field postal and savings-bank service, transportation, finance, the Red Cross Society, work of the women, the song writers, the poets, the diplomatists, are all full, accurate, and of novel interest. Altogether they make a most wonderful story. Without contradiction we may salute heroic Japan, while it is hard to honor the Russians, German, and French for their behavior at the ratification of the peace negotiations at Chefoo, when, in presence of the two petty little Japanese ex-merchant steamers bearing civilian diplomatists only, the mighty allied war-ships not only had, but kept, their decks cleared for action, and maintained a sort of mock battle which kept the whole scenery hidden in gunpowder smoke.

Military science will note that in this campaign the Japanese infantry showed themselves, not only able to endure all weathers and climates, to fight all winter in snow or in heats, but to march well and deliver a fire of amazing effectiveness. The Japanese field artillery proved by its lightness and range all that was expected of it; the shrapnel fired being especially demoralizing. For cavalry service the Japanese is not well fitted. His legs are not long enough. Little of importance was accomplished by horsemen in mass during the campaigns, but they served handsomely as scouts. The pluck and stubborn valor of the picked riders made up for their physical defects. On the Chinese side even the hardy Mantchu cavalry melted away like frost before the sun in presence of the ordinary infantry handling the Murata rifle. Of the Japanese sailor too much in praise cannot be said. His inheritance of centuries of acquaintance with the sea and ship life, his inbred subordination, his coolness, valor, and burning patriotism, made him the typical hero on the battle ship. He was just the little man needed to live in the torpedo-boats and drive them through and inside the great booms of wire and wood to the sinking of the steel clad Chinese men-of-war.

Brilliant as the record of 'Heroic Japan' is, it tells us nothing of Formosa, in which the Japanese, besides having as heavy fighting as in Mantchuria, with vastly more loss in killed, wounded, and by disease, won little "glory." Perhaps concerning Formosa we are to have a volume by itself. Within the

limits we have mentioned, the book reflects great credit on the authors.

The Historical Development of Modern Europe, from the Congress of Vienna to the Present Time. By Charles M. Andrews. Vol. I. 1815-1850. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

Prof. Andrews has accomplished an unusual feat in writing an historical treatise which is destitute of marginal headings and footnotes. Four hundred and forty-eight unbroken pages seldom greet one's eyes in this day of sedulous minuteness, when chapter and verse are expected for every second statement. Indeed, an accuser might easily be found to indict the author of so much unauthenticated assertion on the grounds of ignorance and empiricism. We are happy to say that we shall not be compelled to take this tone, but shall bear witness to Prof. Andrews's thoughtfulness and accuracy. He has some tangible results to offer, and we are not altogether sorry that his processes have been kept out of sight. To speak frankly, we think that his text would be a little more readable if accompanied by the right sort of footnotes, and that his points would be a little more readily distinguished if marked off by marginal headings. But it is refreshing to encounter an occasional historian who is so bent on the presentation of ideas that he is willing to regard facts as only the raw material of his dissertation.

The author lets it be clearly understood that he does not seek his constituency among college students, but among those who already possess a fair knowledge of the events treated. He departs from the parallel method of Fyffe and Stern for the sake of carrying separate movements throughout their whole course. His aim is, *mutatis mutandis*, similar to that of the writers of the French Encyclopædia. He seeks not so much to furnish information as to guide opinion. A corollary of this treatment is a graded arrangement of topics.

> "I have tried to present the subject with a distinct regard for the continuous development of the life and thought of Europe, rather than to describe events in detail or to present all subjects with historical completeness. Therefore I have given little space to the detail of the Austrian administration and policy, and one entire chapter to the growth of political experience and education in Italy. . . . I have treated the revolutions in Greece and Belgium chiefly in connection with the diplomatic history of Europe, and have said little, except incidentally, of internal events in Spain, Portugal, Switzerland, and Sweden, for, however interesting and important these events are in themselves, they had little part in bringing about the great changes in political thought and organization that have characterized the last sixty years."

If Prof. Andrews seeks to guide opinion, he refrains from the dogmatism of historical philosophers like Buckle and Hegel. His generalizations are of the finite variety, and often consist of nothing more than the epitomizing of numerous but palpable facts. He has familiarized himself with much of the best recent "literature" which bears on the topics he discusses, but shows slight evidence of having concentrated attention on the "sources" of any one country, movement, or episode. We do not make this last statement in disparagement, for it must be remembered that in the College of the Six Days' Works coördination was held to be the highest of all functions. Prof. Andrews has digested a great deal of scattered material, formed views upon it, and presented it with due regard to its relations. There is ample room for books of this sort in many fields, and in none more than in history. Prof. Andrews acknowledges indebtedness to Sorel, Fournier, Dickinson, Von Sybel, and Stern, but his own individuality is by no means merged in what he draws from them. His work is not so much a history as a careful essay upon the results of research which has been conducted by competent authorities in each of the principal European countries.

Prof. Andrews, in a passage of the preface already quoted, tells us that he means to pay regard to "the continuous development of the life and thought of Europe." The present volume, however, is restricted in scope to constitutional and diplomatic questions. Even the chapters on "The Struggle against Absolutism in Italy" and "The Liberal Movement in Germany" deal first and foremost with these matters, in that they are occupied with the growth of new political sentiments. A change of title to 'The Political Development of Modern Europe' would define the nature of the contents more closely than the term now used. The leading motive of Prof. Andrews's composition, thus far, is the change which the character of European statecraft has undergone in passing from the maxims of the old régime to those begotten by the spread of national and democratic aspirations.

France is the conspicuous state of the period which is traversed by Prof. Andrews in this volume, and receives from him the prominence due to its central position. Five chapters out of ten fall to its share, besides its incidental part in the remainder. We find ourselves in accord with most of Prof. Andrews's observations, both on the domestic and foreign policy of the various administrations which intervene between the restoration of the Bourbons and the overthrow of Louis Philippe. We make one exception to this general acquiescence, for the purpose of questioning the justice of his estimate of the results achieved by Casimir Perier's ministry. Prof. Andrews says that "it left the country open to the same party divisions, the same economic dangers, the same discontent and bitter feeling that it found when it began its work. It did nothing to promote the liberties that the Charter promised and that the monarchy of Louis Philippe was bound to defend." It seems to us, on the contrary, that the ministry of Casimir Perier gave the July Monarchy its start in life, and bequeathed a good policy to its successors. It afforded an example of energy and resolution at a moment when they were eminently required. What it lacked was the opportunity of continuous effort. We believe that Casimir Perier was better fitted for dealing with the French prolétariat than was either Thiers or Guizot.

The extent of territory covered by Prof. Andrews and his method of combining criticism with narrative involve such a host of particular conclusions that we find it necessary to confine our attention to the salient qualities of his book. One cardinal virtue which it reveals is self-restraint, and one of its shortcomings is lack of apt illustration. Self restraint is traceable in the author's care to keep himself in the background, in moderation of utterance where the trend of his opinion is most clear, and in absolute freedom from diffuse writing. On the other hand, the absence of striking analogies and of passages which stick in the memory is to be regretted. Prof. Andrews is uniformly clear and escapes dulness, but we must confess that we have found some of his chapters a trifle monotonous.

Of the works already in the field, that with which Prof. Andrews's contribution to historical literature will be most generally compared is Fyffe's 'Modern Europe.' The latter, though intended to be a simple narrative, abounds in generalizations showing real insight. We mean to pay Prof. Andrews a compliment when we say that he has produced a valuable supplement to Fyffe. Should this be considered slight praise, we will go further and say that he has produced a book which few students of modern history can afford to neglect.

The True Life of Capt. Sir R. F. Burton. By his Niece, Georgiana M. Stistead. With the authority and approval of the Burton Family. Appletons. 1897.

An aggressive title like the above prepares the reader at the outset for a work that is to be disagreeable to somebody. A "true life," approved by the family, suggests that other lives have not been so approved; thus we are ready for a controversy. Fortunately, the chief person it is directed against is no longer alive. Poor Lady Burton! Four years ago, when she published her two great volumes of glorification of her departed hero—a glorification so comprehensive as more than once to include its writer—she could hardly have expected that the next and authorized biographer would hold her up to the world as one of the chief causes of the disappointment of her husband's career. Unluckily, too, the case against her appears conclusive, for, after having read her own pages, we cannot be surprised at hearing her charged with narrow-mindedness, with complete lack of tact, with meddlesome fanaticism, and even with never having at all understood the man who married her. Still, his failures and mistakes, which began long before his marriage, were often due to himself alone, as well as to frequent bad luck.

Richard Burton was a most uncommon man in many respects. So marvellous was his knowledge of Oriental languages and ways that it enabled him more than once to live and pass as an Asiatic among Asiatics. Few mortals have travelled so much or had such varied experiences. Besides his two most successful expeditions—his famous journey in disguise to Mecca and his discovery with Speke of Lake Tanganyika—he lived in India, Fernando Po, Brazil, Syria, Austria; he explored for gold in Iceland, Midian, and West Africa, and he visited countless other places, from Salt Lake City to Somaliland. In his quieter moments he wrote, not including magazine articles, letters, etc., some eighty-odd volumes of travel, grammar, falconry, bayonet and sword exercise, psychic facts, together with translations of various kinds, especially the works of Camoens from the Portuguese and the well-known version of the Arabian Nights. Such a person could not help being remarkable. Repeated ill fortune and certain defects were the causes of most of his lack of success. He never had a chance to show whether he was a good soldier, and he certainly was not fitted for a diplomat, being far too erratic, undisciplined, happy-go lucky, and indiscreet. Even his niece tells us that he was a poor judge of character, misjudging and misjudged. His sanguine temperament, combined with a queer imagination, and a reckless disregard of what he thought prejudices, naturally made him dreaded by the sober-minded. When sent on an embassy to the

king of Ashantee, he danced a *pas seul* before his Majesty, a proceeding that excited unfavorable comment at home, where such complaisance was not thought to befit the dignity of the representative of Great Britain. After his failure at Damascus, the English Government was not likely to trust him with so delicate a place as the mission to Tangier, for years the object of his ambition, but preferred to stow him in a quiet berth at Trieste, with such leaves of absence as have seldom been granted to any other consul. All told, he was not unkindly treated.

Miss Stistead has given us a thoroughly good biography. Though a great admirer of her uncle, she does not conceal his weaknesses, but writes, in the main, soberly and impartially with excellent judgment. Her style is not as heavy as her first few pages would lead one to fear. She has compressed a great deal into a small volume, not confusing us with too much detail, and yet describing many a picturesque incident and scene. Her book is interesting from beginning to end. Short as it is, we get from it a satisfactory idea of the story and personality of one of the most extraordinary men of his time.

Fifty Years' Reminiscences of India: A Retrospect of Travel, Adventure, and Shikar. By Colonel Pollok. Illustrated. Edward Arnold. 1896. Demy 8vo, pp. xii, 341, pll. 16.

THE reminiscences of the author of 'Sport in Burmah,' who returns to his wonted theme in the present volume, go back to the old "Company" days when he was first sent to India as a cadet. The title raises expectations which the book by no means satisfies. Half a century yields a crop singularly barren of general interest, and almost to be called trivial. More than the first third of the book deals with those incidents of camp and garrison life with which Kipling has made us familiar, but we have them with the Kipling element left out, and they consequently amount to little. Passing this by, we discover the real purport of the book in its sub-title—it is solely for the sportsman. As the preface says: "The only apology the author has to offer for the publication of these reminiscences is the hope of amusing and instructing those who may be thinking of taking to sport in earnest." The business of the book really begins with chap. vi., p. 126, on pig-sticking—a theme appropriately introduced by the old song:

> "The boar, the mighty boar's my theme,
> Whate'er the wise may say:
> My morning thought, my midnight dream,
> My hope throughout the day."

Those to whom such a notion as that may appeal will find the bill of fare exactly to their liking. It includes all the great game of India, and is prepared by a veteran chef who knows how to season and serve his dishes. After pig-sticking comes elephant-hunting, then the killing of buffaloes, rhinoceroses, and tigers; with leopards, bears, samburs, and such small game—for so it appears by comparison—thrown in as *obiter dicta*. A mighty Nimrod's memories kindle afresh as he recalls the scenes of his exploits, and he tells his stories with much of the nervous energy he must have once possessed in the field. The most exciting one deals with a man-eater which escaped him after all, to be killed by a herd of buffaloes (pp. 248-270), though the Colonel was a man of such mettle and accomplishments that he made nothing of "bagging" a tiger or two before breakfast, if his luck was fair. The volume concludes with a chapter of advice to sportsmen going abroad—no doubt sound to the core, if fifty years' experience at the business counts for what it should; and with a great number of culinary directions adapted to the resources of the sportsman's larder. The literary quality of the book is indifferent, but those who take to such sport in such deadly earnest will probably be indifferent to that quality. Sixteen full-page plates by A. C. Corbould illustrate hunting scenes.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Angot, Alfred. The Aurora Borealis. Appletons. $1.75.
Arber, Edward. The Story of the Pilgrim Fathers, as Told by Themselves, their Friends, and their Enemies. London: Ward & Downey; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
A Satchel Guide to Europe. 1897. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Baldwin, Prof. Joseph. School Management and School Methods. Appletons. $1.50.
Baskett, J. N. The Story of the Birds. Appletons. 65c.
Beazley, C. R. The Dawn of Modern Geography. London: John Murray.
Becke, Louis. By Reef & Palm. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.
Beerbohm, Max. The Happy Hypocrite. John Lane. 35c
Bowker, R. R. The American Catalogue. 1890-1895. *Publishers' Weekly.*
Buck, F. T. A Fiancé on Trial. Merriam Co.
Buckley, Rev J M. A History of Methodism in the United States. Vol. II. Christian Literature Co.
Bund, J. W. W. The Celtic Church of Wales. London: David Nutt.
Castle, E. J. Shakspere Bacon, Jonson and Greene. London: Low, Marston & Co
Catherwood, Mary H. The Spirit of an Illino's Town, and the Little Renault. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Christiansen, Prof. C. Elements of Theoretical Physics. Macmillan. $3 25.
Cramer, Rev. M. J. Ulysses S. Grant: Conversations and Unpublished Letters. Eaton & Mains. 90c.
Emmens, S. H. Some Remarks concerning Gravitation. New York: Plain Citizen Publishing Co.
Fletcher, J. S. God's Failures. John Lane. $1 25.
Gamble Eliza B. The God-Idea of the Ancients; or, Sex in Religion. Putnams. $2 25
Hale, Rev W. B. The New Obedience: A Plea for Social Submission to Christ. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Hepburn, C M. The Historical Development of Code Pleading in America and England. Cincinnati: W. H. Anderson & Co.
Holden, Warren. Boyhood. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 20c.
Howe, Prof. H. A. Elements of Descriptive Astronomy. Silver, Burdett & Co. $1 36.
Ker, Prof. W. P. Epic and Romance: Essays on Medieval Literature. Macmillan. $4.
King, Capt. Charles. Fort Frayne. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Lesser, M. A. Echoes of Halcyon Days. Hartford, Conn.: T. J. Spencer.
Luckock, Rev. H. M. Footprints of the Apostles as Traced by St. Luke in the Acts. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $3 50.
Malone, Walter. The Coming of the King. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Maturin, B. W. Practical Studies on the Parables of Our Lord. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50
McMillan, Mrs. Alec. The Evolution of Daphne. P. F. Collier. 25c.
Miller, J B Leo XIII. and Modern Civilization. New York: The Eskdale Press
Müller, Mrs. Max. Letters from Constantinople. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Nansen, Fridtjof. Farthest North. 2 vols. Harpers. $10
Orpen, Mrs. Perfection City. Appletons. $1.
Orred, Meta "Glamour": A Romance. Philadelphia: J. B Lippincott Co. $1 25.
Prince, Helen C. A Transatlantic Chatelaine. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1 25
Roberts, C G. D. A History of Canada. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Saintsbury, Prof. George. The Flourishing of Romance and the Rise of Allegory. [Periods of European Literature.] Scribners. $1.50.
Schopenhauer, Arthur. On Human Nature: Essays (partly Posthumous) in Ethics and Politics. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90c.
Smith, Dr. A. Donaldson. Through Unknown African Countries. Edward Arnold. $5
Sturgis, Russell, and Krehbiel, H. E. Annotated Bibliography of Fine Art and Music. American Library Association $1.
Sturtevant, J M., jr. Julian M. Sturtevant: An Autobiography. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25
Sullivan, Christine G. High-School Class-Book of Drawing. American Book Co. 50c.
Thorne, Gerald. Heaven on Earth: A Realistic Tale. Lovell Bros. 50c
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. IV. Acadia and Quebec: 16.6-1629. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Tsountas, Dr. Chrestos, and Manatt, Prof. J Q. The Mycenæan Age. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $6.
Wadham, E. English Versification: A Complete Practical Guide to the Whole Subject. Longmans, Green & Co.
Zola, Emile. Pages Choisies. Paris: Colin & Cie.

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The Revolutionary Tendencies of the Age.

Their Cause and their Ultimate Aim. (Anonymous.) 8vo, $1 25.

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1896, to 31st December, 1896,		$2,596,788 89
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1896		1,109,275 00
Total Marine Premiums		$3,706,063 89
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1896, to 31st December, 1896		$2,658,108 58
Losses paid during the same period	$1,249,999 01	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$646,420 25	

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and City of New York Stock; City Banks and other Stocks	$7,226,305 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise.	1,930,000 00
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Cash in Bank	175,229 25
Amount	$11,312,753 18

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 1, 1897.

The Week.

MR. DINGLEY has graciously consented to let up on the colleges and the libraries —when he found that they did not propose to let up on him. On Monday week he was loftily superior to the ignorant critics of his tax on civilization; on Wednesday he was hastily telegraphing that books and scientific apparatus for colleges might be imported free after all. He wishes this to appear an amazing act of condescension, but, in the first place, it was clearly extorted from him, and, in the second, it was simply leaving the colleges undisturbed in a privilege which they have enjoyed from the foundation of the government. The only tariff bill, we believe, which ever denied institutions of learning this right of free importation was the law of 1846; and in that measure the omission seems to have been an oversight which was quickly repaired. An appropriation act of August 12, 1848, provided $7,000 for "refunding certain duties paid by colleges, academies," etc., under the act of July 30, 1846, and also enacted that thereafter all philosophical apparatus, books, maps, charts, etc., imported for the use of colleges, "shall be free of duty, anything in the act above named to the contrary notwithstanding." So that Mr. Dingley's wonderful concession is only a grudging assent to the continuance of an immemorial right which even the McKinley tariff did not venture to disturb.

The attack made by some of the Massachusetts Congressmen on the Dingley tariff bill on Monday is an unmistakable sign of the disgust with which that measure has been received in New England. It also forebodes disaster to the Republican party in that quarter, for no Republican Congressman would utter a word of complaint on such a subject unless his constituents were "fighting mad." Of course the principal bone of contention is the new wool schedule which the handful of Ohio wool-growers, under the lead of William Lawrence, have foisted upon the Dingley bill. This fatal measure threatens to cause more mischief in the woollen industry than free trade could produce. This is especially true of the carpet industry. Here the duties, although nominally the same as in the McKinley tariff, are actually higher by virtue of new regulations, cunningly devised by Lawrence and his cohort, and carried over the head of Dingley himself by the committee of which he is chairman. Behind this destructive schedule lie the votes of three or four Silver Republican, or rather ex-Republican, Senators from Colorado and Montana, without which the bill cannot be passed. In order to get these votes, the woollen industry of New England is to be put to the torture unless their Senators and Representatives in Congress are willing to fight. The protest made by Mr. McCall and Mr. Lovering amounts to nothing unless they are willing to back it with their votes. It serves to show what sort of feelings are smouldering among their constituents, but it will not prevent the Ohio shepherds from riding over them. Failing any determined resistance in the House, it is still possible to make it in the Senate.

The Dingley tariff bill contains a provision authorizing the President of the United States to impose or suspend certain duties on certain articles from certain countries, according as he shall believe that those countries are dealing fairly or unfairly by us in their tariff laws. This is called the reciprocity clause, and is much favored by the Republican party. Now the Democrats in Congress propose that the President's discretion shall be extended to all articles of commerce controlled by Trusts or combinations of producers. This is a demagogical amendment, no doubt. It is intended to have political, not fiscal, consequences. Its purpose, in the jargon of the day, is to "put the Republicans in a hole," and it may even be successful in that aim. Protective tariff legislation has at last boxed the compass. It began with the avowed object of giving a start to new industries. After this was accomplished, it was continued in order that the price to the consumer might be reduced by domestic competition. As soon as this condition seemed likely to be reached, the protected industries combined to prevent reduction of price by competition. All sorts of Trusts were formed for this purpose—Sugar Trust, Lead Trust, Rubber Trust, and so on down to the Castor-Oil Trust. Now it happens that Trusts have become an object of much public animadversion and detestation. This is rather a critical moment with them, and it is doubtful whether the Republican party can take on its back any burdens respecting them. It is doubtful whether it can afford to favor them in any way.

The ordinary voter will see no reason why the discretion should not be lodged with the President to remit duties on articles controlled by Trusts, when he is equally authorized to impose or remit duties under the reciprocity clause. It may be offered as an objection that the President cannot know whether an article is so controlled by a Trust or not. The answer is that absolute knowledge is not required, but merely an opinion. The President can always have an opinion. That is all that is required of him under the reciprocity clause. President Harrison held various opinions under the reciprocity clause of the McKinley tariff respecting the duties on sugar, coffee, and hides from Brazil, Venezuela, Cuba, and other countries. Why may not President McKinley have his opinion respecting the control of such an article as sugar in the domestic market by a Trust? If his opinion should chance to be erroneous, that would be no killing matter. It is generally considered that President Harrison's opinion as to Venezuelan coffee was erroneous when he imposed a duty on it by virtue of his lawful discretion. Venezuela said that she imposed duties on our breadstuffs because she could not spare the revenue which she obtained from that source. Mr. Harrison thought that that was not a good reason. So he imposed a duty of three cents per pound on the "mild coffee" of Venezuela, which the consumers in this country were obliged to pay. Yet nobody questioned either President Harrison's authority or his motives. So it would be under a clause giving President McKinley discretion to remit duties on articles controlled by Trusts. Of course there would be differences of opinion as to his exercise of judgment in this class of cases. If, for example, he should be of opinion that refined sugar was not controlled by a Trust, and should accordingly leave the duty on that article in full force, other people might think differently and elections might be decided on that issue. No moral delinquency could be attached to such exercise of judgment, although the political consequences might be grave.

Among the many outrageous features of the Dingley tariff bill are some that are ludicrous as well; for example, that relating to tooth-brushes. This clause provides that on brushes for the hair, nails, or teeth, in which there is no bristle or other fibre projecting more than three-eighths of an inch from the block, the duty shall be one cent per hundred tufts or knots; if projecting more than three-eighths of an inch, and not more than one-half of an inch, two cents per hundred tufts or knots; if projecting more than one-half of an inch, and not more than three-fourths of an inch, four cents per hundred tufts or knots; if projecting more than three-fourths of an inch, and not more than one inch, six cents per hundred tufts or knots; and, in addition thereto, on all the foregoing articles, 20 per centum ad valorem. Imagine a custom-house official trying to compute the duties on a consignment of tooth-brushes under this clause. First he must measure the length of the bristles, or the dis-

tance that they project from the block. Then he must count the tufts or bunches in which they are grouped. If they are more than three-eighths of an inch long, the specific duty is to be one cent per hundred tufts, to which is to be added 20 per cent. ad valorem. If the length exceeds three-eighths of an inch, the specific duty is doubled, and so on. As these articles are generally imported, they come in assorted sizes, differing both as to length and the number of tufts per square inch. So it would be necessary for the custom-house officials to separate the various sizes and styles and then count one of each. Of course, such an intricate method of computing duties must have a purpose, and this can be no other than to increase the rate without disclosing the fact to the public. The present duty is 35 per cent. ad valorem. The McKinley duty was 40 per cent. ad valorem. The combined specific and ad-valorem duty in the Dingley bill will be equivalent to nearly 100 per cent. on the cheaper brushes. Moreover, it will shut out the foreign brushes from our market, and thus cut off the revenue now received from those importations. The public will pay the tax, but it will be paid to private individuals, not to the Treasury.

It is now reported from Washington that a plan is under consideration to stop importations pending the enactment of the Dingley bill, by making the new duties go into effect April 15, no matter when the act becomes law. The bill as it stands fixes May 1 as the date, but it will probably make little difference whether this is changed to April 15 or not. The Republicans are again said to be "taking legal advice," exactly as they were a month ago, as to whether a retroactive tariff is constitutional, but they ought to have made up their minds about this before they began. There is nothing more unconstitutional about making a tariff retroact to April 15 than there is about making it retroact to May 1. The trouble is that the only judicial decision on the subject points to the scheme being illegal. The whole project is chiefly a scare, the idea of its promoters being that if they can only frighten the wicked importers badly enough, they will stop importing pending the passage of the bill, and then begin importing like mad as soon as it is signed—result, under the Wilson tariff, stagnation without revenue; under the Dingley tariff, prosperity with revenue. The reason why the fifteenth rather than the first day of April was selected hardly requires explanation.

Mr. David Lubin and his associated grangers of California, Oregon, Washington, Illinois, Missouri, Virginia, and Pennsylvania are still pushing their bill for the payment of bounties on the export of agricultural produce, in order to put the farmers on an equal footing with manufacturers in respect of favors from the public Treasury. They have presented a memorial to the Senate on this subject which has been printed as a public document. They begin by saying that the idea upon which protection was originally based (that of a temporary means of building up new industries), has been abandoned, and has been supplanted by the new and different conception, that it should be a permanent means of excluding foreign competition in particular trades. Of course this system cannot be applied to industries whose products are exported and must be sold abroad in competition with the products of foreign labor. The price in the foreign market fixes the price in the home market. "Selling the surplus as we do at international prices," says the memorial, "compels us to sell the greater quantity for home use at the same price, for the export and the home price is always the same." It follows from this that the American farmer is handicapped by the protective tariff, and that he can be recouped only by bounties on his exports. So Mr. Lubin and his fellow-grangers ask that a law be passed to pay to any exporter of agricultural products, grown in the United States, at the rate of 10 cents per bushel on wheat and rye, 50 cents per barrel on flour, 5 cents per bushel on corn, 1 cent per pound on cotton, and 2 cents per pound on tobacco and on hops. In order to encourage shipping, it is proposed that when these products are exported in American bottoms, the bounty shall be increased 10 per cent. Incidentally the memorial criticises severely the Elkins or Sewall bill for discriminating duties in favor of imports in American bottoms. This, it says, would be simply an additional tax on the farmer without any compensation whatever to him.

The great advantage of this plan is that it would give to the farmer much more money than it would take from the Treasury. Mr. Lubin and his associates show that the cost to the Government of the proposed bounties on wheat, cotton, and corn would be only $41,000,000 per annum, while the enhanced price of the same articles retained for domestic consumption would be at least $140,000,000. Of course this would have to be paid by the consumers of agricultural products, who are the whole people of the United States. The memorial acknowledges this fact, but insists that the same is true of the protective duties on manufactures. Whatever increase of price takes place must be paid by the farmers, who cannot, under present arrangements, recoup themselves for this loss. Mr. Lubin lays down the broad principle that all the money raised by protective duties ought to be distributed to the classes who are not protected. Failing this, all protective tariffs ought to be repealed. The memorial concludes by saying:

"The abolition of the protective tariff as a means for the protection of manufactures would do away with the claims for protection by an export bounty; but so long as moneys are received on imports for the protection of manufactures, these moneys, or a portion thereof, should be paid out primarily, not for Government expenses, but for export bounties to protect the staples of agriculture, and thus equalize protection by extending it to agriculture as well as to manufactures, protecting thereby the farmers and manufacturers in the United States against the farmers and manufacturers of foreign countries, and thus do away with the injustice of the present system, which protects the manufacturer at the expense of the farmer."

Secretary Sherman grabbed for patronage not wisely but too well when he called for the resignation of Director Furbish of the Bureau of American Republics, and appointed an Ohio Smith to the position. In his haste he overlooked an agreement made last June between Secretary Olney and the ministers of the other countries concerned, by which all applicants for positions in the Bureau must be examined by an executive committee, the best man to win. There is also a neat little provision that "citizens of any of the countries constituting the Union may be candidates for any position in the Bureau." Horrible! We love the Spanish-Americans intensely, and should like their money to help pay salaries to our needy patriots; but the proposal to have a Don or Señor at the head of a Washington bureau is carrying the thing a little too far. We should not have blamed Librarian Smith of Ohio for insisting that he would have nothing to do with any examination. Such methods would soon destroy the whole charm of the Bureau, as well as its usefulness, which consists almost wholly in its making a quiet little retreat for a friend of the Secretary of State. As such, Mr. Sherman was able to preserve it, for Mr. Smith was certified as eligible by the examiners, and so was not driven to the dire alternative of "something equally as good."

That sturdy opponent of the spoils system, Mr. Lucius B. Swift of Indianapolis, in a characteristically vigorous speech before the Massachusetts Reform Club last week, gave some illustrations of the tendency of the new Administration as furnished in his own State. President McKinley has thus far filled three important federal offices in Indiana, and in each case his choice not only is utterly indefensible, but provokes the severest criticism. The position of United States District Attorney demands conspicuous legal ability and high personal character in its incumbent. This office in Indiana has been given to a lawyer of the most ordinary attainments, whose only reputation has been achieved in the lowest arts of political management. The place of Consul-General at Paris has been surrendered to a farmer-politician without education, breeding, or business knowledge, utterly ignorant of the French language and unable to speak his own grammatically. The Indianapolis *News*, the great inde-

pendent newspaper of the State, has said of this selection that "the appointment is so delightfully unfit that it seems a joke," while the Indianapolis *Journal*, the highest Republican authority, indignantly remarks that Mr. Gowdy can neither read nor write the language of the country to which he is assigned, has no commercial experience or knowledge of the official or semi-official duties of the office, and is totally unfit for the place. "He probably deserved recognition for the vast amount of scavenger work he did." In fact, Gowdy helped greatly in securing McKinley delegates to the St. Louis convention a year ago; he demanded his reward, picked out the office for which he was most ludicrously unfit, and his claim was allowed. Finally, the marshalship has been given to an open and avowed corruptionist—a man who was active in carrying Indiana for Harrison by bribery in 1888, and who boasted of his achievements at the time.

A very strong brief has been filed in the case of Henry W. Corbett, who holds a certificate of appointment by the Governor of Oregon as Senator of the United States. The facts in the case are that the term of Senator Mitchell, his predecessor, expired on the 3d of March. The Legislature of Oregon was not then, and has not been at any time since, in session. When the time for its meeting arrived, the members came to the State capitol, but the House failed to organize and eventually dispersed. Thereupon the Governor of the State, by virtue of section 3, article 1, of the Constitution of the United States, appointed Mr. Corbett to fill the vacancy until such time as the Legislature should elect a Senator. Mr. Corbett's credentials have been referred to the committee on privileges and elections, and he has not been sworn in. The great majority of precedents are in favor of seating a member appointed by a Governor even though the Legislature of the State has actually organized and voted, but failed to elect; yet in the latest case of this kind, that of Lee Mantle of Montana, the Senate declined to award a seat to the Governor's appointee. In 1893 the Legislature of Montana met, duly organized, and balloted in joint convention for United States Senator from day to day for nearly two months. It adjourned on the 3d of March, and within a day or two later the Governor of Montana appointed Lee Mantle to fill the vacancy in the Senate which happened by the expiration, on March 4, of the term of Senator Saunders. The Senate, as we have said, declined to take him in. On the other hand, ten cases are found in the records where Senators have been seated under exactly the same conditions as those of the Mantle case. One of these cases occurred in the first Congress after the adoption of the Constitution.

The charter for Greater New York has been "jammed through" by a vote so large in both houses as to render certain its passage a second time, if that should be made necessary by the refusal of Mayor Strong to give it his approval. It is taken for granted by all its advocates that it is certain to become law, and that the first mayor will be voted for in November. Concerning the probable outcome of that election there is a remarkable consensus of opinion. The Platt leader, Mr. Stranahan, in jamming the charter through the Senate, confessed his belief in a Tammany victory when, in defending the bi-partisan police provision, he said that the Democratic party would control the government of the greater city for a greater part of the time, and it would be dangerous to trust them with a single-headed commission. Senator Malby, speaking as a Republican also, declared the bill to be "political suicide," adding: "You will find Greater New York to be hopelessly Democratic, and that it will be governed by a Democratic boss who will control $75,000,000 in patronage and be supported by 100,000 Democratic majority." Senator Mullin took the same view, and so did Senator Raines, though he is one of the blindest of the Platt dummies. Ex-Mayor Gilroy, of Tammany, speaking without reserve, now that the charter's future seems secure, declares that the Democrats "will carry the city next fall by an overwhelming majority." Nevertheless, the charter has been "jammed through" because it is a measure calculated to destroy non-partisan government in this city. It is, in fact, one of the most skilfully designed measures for the establishment and perpetuation of partisan rule ever put forward for the government of a great city. If Tammany carries the election, Platt will be recognized in its government. Could Platt get any "plums" from a non-partisan mayor? Is not half a loaf better than no bread?

The rural legislator's incurable propensity to make for New York city the kind of laws he likes, rather than the kind this community desires, is shown once more in the proposed Raines amendments to the liquor-tax law. These have no support whatever from this city. All the city's representatives in the Legislature, of both political parties, oppose them as unwise and unnecessary, and in doing this they represent the sentiment of the community. The present law is working satisfactorily, and no complaints have been made in any quarter which are serious enough to demand attention. But Raines and the rural legislators, backed by the Governor, it is said, declare that the large cities must take what he thinks they ought to have in the way of amendments, and they propose to pass them in spite of all opposition. Mr. Platt seems to be occupying neutral ground in the matter, leaving the party to fight it out without his interference. If the amendments are made law, they will send thousands of votes over to Tammany, and make more difficult than ever the defeat of that organization in the election in November; but Platt seems to be doing his best to give the city over to Tammany, and his course in this matter is at least consistent with that in passing the charter.

Every day's news seems to show more clearly that the solution of the Cretan question arrived at by the Powers is no solution at all. A couple of weeks ago *Figaro* wrote of the ultimatum of that date as "An Ultimatum in Distress," and to day it might almost be said of the famous pacific blockade that it is the Powers whom it most seriously blockades. The aim is to give the Cretans autonomy, but the thankless fellows say they do not want it and will not have it. The aim also is to get the Turks to withdraw from the island. But the only official reply of the Porte yet made public does little more than thank the Powers for undertaking to clear out the Greeks, and say that the Sultan would be delighted to "discuss" with the Ambassadors what next is to be done. In fact, the Sultan is ready to "discuss" any subject for any length of time. But the growing impatience and indignation of English and French public opinion, and now even of German, make it more and more impossible for the Powers to persist in their present unpopular and ineffective course.

If, as has been reported, the Powers have agreed to blockade the entire Greek coast, beginning with the Piræus, Corinth, and two other ports, a question of the first importance will be raised here. We have a trade with Greece which, in the year ending June 30, 1896, amounted, according to the Treasury figures, to $720,386 of imports and $191,046 of exports. As long as Greece is not at war, Americans have the same right to trade with Greece, in any articles they please, as with England, and the Powers have no more right to stop an American merchant from sending a cargo of arms and ammunition to Athens than to stop him from sending one to Constantinople. Yet this is precisely what a pacific blockade thoroughly enforced would now mean. The attempt will no doubt be made to disguise the fact by saying the blockade applies to Greeks only, or to vessels flying the Greek flag. But the question for us is not merely whose flag is stopped, but whose trade is stopped. An American cargo properly consigned to Greece is just as sacred from interference as an American ship would be. Surely our Government does not think that it can meet this question by doing and saying nothing.

THE ARBITRATION TREATY.

THE treaty amendment proposed by Mr. Chilton of Texas provides that the United States shall submit to arbitration all questions which the Senate shall decide to be fit for arbitration. At first sight this looks as if it were merely a new form of the amendment, already reported, by which the Senate is to retain the final power of rejection in every instance; but its mover, unless we are mistaken, has something in his mind more serious than this.

The practice of the Government for a hundred years has been that the Senate should act simply as a check upon the Executive in the negotiation of treaties. This has been so from the nature of the case. The President is in constant communication with foreign Powers, and indeed it is only through ambassadors, ministers, the Secretary of State, and other agents responsible to him that we can hold any communication with them or make any treaties. When he has made an agreement of any kind with a foreign Power, the Senate is called in and ratifies or rejects it. There have been a great many indications since the war that to the Senators who busy themselves with foreign affairs, men like Lodge, and Morgan, and Daniel, of whom there is a large enough number to exercise a powerful influence, especially about matters as to which the greater number of Senators know little or nothing, this is a most galling and irritating way of carrying on a government. Their idea of the true way to deal with foreign affairs is that the President should send for the great men of the Senate, and find out beforehand how they would like to have the foreign affairs of the Government carried on, what their views are about the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and Cuban belligerency, and the fisheries questions, and then do what they tell him. This view of their relation to him came out with great distinctness in the rage and fury which accompanied their long quarrel with Cleveland, and it was at the bottom of Don Cameron's report on the President's power to recognize or not recognize the existence of actual political facts abroad. That report was, in substance, that it made no difference what the facts reported by his agents to him were; if his superiors told him they did not exist, then they did not, for him, have any existence.

This theory of foreign affairs is not in all its details, perhaps, capable of realization; but, like all other idealists, Lodge and Morgan and Daniel want to come as near attaining it as possible. They were baffled by Cleveland, who insisted on the old view, that the President was to act in foreign affairs without taking his orders from the Senate; but when they got hold of the Arbitration treaty, and found that they could tie it up until Cleveland went out, they put their backs to the wall, and determined either to kill it or to pervert it to their own purposes. It looks now as if, finding the former scheme impossible on account of public sentiment, their plan was to change the treaty into a device for making the President to a great extent a puppet in their hands, and getting a practical control over foreign affairs much greater than they ever had before. To let the President arbitrate questions for five years without consulting Lodge and Morgan and Daniel and Foraker would never do; it would really weaken those gentlemen's power terribly. "Where would the navy be?" as Foraker happily says.

Accordingly, they have hit upon the plan of notifying the President that they will not agree in advance to any arbitration, even under the treaty, but will reserve the right to agree or disagree; and now Mr. Chilton has improved on this by adding "and, mind you, the subject must be fit for us to arbitrate." What subjects men like Foraker, and Lodge, or Daniel, or Morgan consider fit for arbitration no President can find out except by asking them. Morgan, for instance, does not think the canal question fit to arbitrate, another Senator thinks that any arbitration which threatens to reduce the naval appropriation bills is indecent, and there are other subjects which they as well as Lodge and Daniel would not dream of arbitrating because they involve the Monroe Doctrine; but no one can find out what they are except by asking them, because each one of them explains the Monroe Doctrine differently. Accordingly, arbitration under the new system, as it must be conceived in their great minds, could go on only if the President were to consent to become their puppet, and let the actual foreign policy of the Government be carried on by their foreign-affairs committee. Under the new system the President and the Secretary of State would first find out what this committee could get through the Senate in the way of treaties, and negotiate for that. The most ambitious or richest men in the Senate would get hold of the committee, and the grand scheme would be put in operation.

The failure of the treaty would not, in our opinion, be a fatal blow to the good relations between England and the United States. The agreement between the countries sanctioned by the Presidents of both political parties, with the overwhelming approval of the country, is already a great gain for peace; but its confirmation, loaded down with such amendments as that of Mr. Chilton, would be an ominous triumph for the Senate in its struggle with the Executive, and a blow at Mr. McKinley's prestige from which he could hardly recover. There is really no alternative between the President's directing the foreign policy of this country and surrendering its control. Mr. McKinley's notification to all the world that he stands by his predecessor's treaty will make the result, whatever it may be, all the more significant.

THE SCOPE OF THE DECISION.

THE fall in stocks which took place last week is accounted for on all sides by the alarm created among business men by the anti-Trust decision of the Supreme Court. This is owing to the vast extent of the interests affected. The railroads of the country represent (we take the figures from Poor's Railway Manual) about $11,000,000,000, a sum by the side of which all the investments of capital in so-called industrial Trusts is small. Half of this $11,000,000,000 is debt of some kind; the rest is stock, or, in other words, the value of the property over and above the debt. All that the stockholders received on their investment in 1895 was $83,175,774, or very much less than two per cent. Any considerable reduction means general bankruptcy. The railway systems of the country are all managed under Joint Traffic contracts, the object of which is to prevent sudden railroad "wars," by establishing a reasonable tariff of rates. It is only by this means that bankruptcy in many quarters has been averted; and widespread railroad bankruptcy, as we know by experience, means general panic. The anti-Trust decision holds that every one of these contracts is illegal and criminal, and it was followed by the immediate withdrawal of railroads from them, accompanied by predictions of new rate wars. The effect of the decision in paralyzing business, only just beginning to recover from the disasters of 1893 and 1894, is, therefore, very serious. It is all the more serious because no one can tell what can be done to meet its effects.

The dissenting opinion of Justice White, in which the four Judges who refused to concur in the majority opinion joined, brings out, more forcibly than any lay explanation can, the curious reasoning which underlies the decision. Justice White points out, what Justice Peckham fully conceded, that the contract in the case was "only an agreement between the corporations by which a uniform classification of freight is obtained, by which the secret undercutting of rates is sought to be avoided, and the rates as stated in the published rate-sheets, and which, as a general rule, are required by law to be filed with the Interstate Commerce Commission, are secured against arbitrary and sudden changes," and that its provisions are reasonable. The contract, therefore, but for the act of Congress, would be valid. But it is a contract "in restraint of trade," because it is designed to restrain the general right of a railroad to make what contracts as to rates it pleases. Congress says that every such contract is criminal. When the law says "every," the courts have no power to say "some." If Congress had meant only unreasonable contracts, it would have said so, and consequently

the act makes criminal any contract in restraint of trade, whether reasonable or unreasonable.

Justice White then shows that the abandonment of the test of reasonableness, to determine whether the law shall permit contracts or not, is really the abandonment of any test whatever. Before this statute was passed, the courts held contracts between man and man void if in unreasonable restraint of trade, simply because it was the only distinction that could be applied; the act of Congress now says that any contract which restrains trade at all is criminal. But to define the phrase "as embracing every contract which in any degree produced that effect (of restraining trade) would be violation of reason, because it would include all those contracts which are the very essence of trade, and would be equivalent to saying that there should be no trade, and therefore nothing to restrain." Referring to the remarkable fact that Justice Peckham, in the course of his own opinion, declares that, notwithstanding anything said by him, some contracts may still be legal, Justice White adds:

"The dilemma which would necessarily arise from defining the words 'contracts in restraint of trade' so as to destroy trade by rendering illegal the contracts upon which trade depends, and yet presupposing that trade would continue and should not be restrained, is shown by an argument advanced, and which has been compelled by the exigency of the premise upon which it is based. Thus, after insisting that the word *every* is all-embracing, it is said from the necessity of things it will not be held to apply to covenants in a restraint of trade which are collateral to a sale of property, because not 'supposed' to be within the letter or spirit of the statute. But how, I submit, can it be held that the words 'every contract in restraint of trade' embrace all such contracts, and yet at the same time it be said that certain contracts of that nature are not included?"

He also points out that the construction given by the court to the statute will have an effect on contracts involving the right to dispose of one's labor which will be the exact opposite of what was intended by Congress. The act was designed to protect the liberty of the individual against arbitrary powers brought about by any kind of combination. It was applied in the Debs case (158 U. S. 564) to an unreasonable and criminal combination of workingmen. But it is now held that a reasonable agreement is just as criminal. "It follows that the construction which reads the rule of reason out of the statute embraces within its inhibition every contract or combination by which workingmen seek to peaceably better their condition. It is, therefore, as I see it, absolutely true to say that the construction now adopted which works out such results, not only frustrates the plain purpose intended to be accomplished by Congress, but also makes the statute tend to an end never contemplated, and against the accomplishment of which its provisions were enacted." In other words, a strike, or agreement under which a strike may be ordered, is a crime.

When law parts company with reason, as a test of its own rules, one must expect to see a thousand curious and unexpected consequences follow. It may be worth while to give one more illustration. Judge Peckham's argument may be used to destroy itself, as follows: All contracts in restraint of trade are crimes. A criminal contract, however, is always treated by the courts as wholly void. But if a contract in restraint of trade is void, it is no contract, and if there is no contract, there is no restraint of trade, and consequently no crime has been committed. That this argument is sound we do not maintain; but it is as sound as the argument against which it is directed. That argument, it cannot too often be repeated, is at bottom that any contract restrains trade, because it restricts the right which, but for the contract, would exist, to make another and a wholly different contract.

This decision has been rendered under an act founded upon the power of Congress to regulate "commerce between the States." Every one familiar with the history of the litigation about State control of railway rates knows that this power is the same in its nature as that of the State to regulate rates within its boundaries. As to that power, the Supreme Court has over and over again announced that "a power to regulate is not a power to destroy," and that the only question about railway rates for courts to go into was whether they were reasonable or unreasonable (Stone vs. Farmers' Loan and Trust Co., 116 U. S. 307; Reagan vs. same, 154 U. S. 362). But now it seems that the reasonableness of a contract is of no consequence, and the power over contracts in Congress is quite as much a power to destroy as to regulate.

ECLIPSE OF INTELLIGENCE.

ALTHOUGH Mr. Dingley has been shamed into the restoration of books and apparatus for the use of colleges to the free list, his putting a tax on them after so many years of exemption, and his remarkable defence of it, are worth notice once more as an illustration of that growing disregard or contempt of the political class for the higher civilization, of which we have so often spoken. Knowledge, whether expressed through books, or professors, or scientific men, or professional men, they seem every day to consider of less consequence. They seem more and more disposed to believe that the experience of the human race and the achievements of the human intellect have no direct connection with the work of government, or the social and political condition of mankind. Politics and culture for them run, as many writers have maintained religion and science do, in parallel lines, without any intercommunication. We may apparently go on for ever enlarging the bounds of human knowledge without producing any effect whatever on legislation, and we may go on legislating for ever without making any improvement in the condition of the people. Government has apparently nothing to do with the popular comfort, convenience, and happiness. Its object is to promote the interests of "the party," or rather of the office-holders. Provided they are pleased and satisfied, nothing else signifies.

For instance, Mr. Dingley naïvely confessed that his principal reason for taxing books and apparatus was that it annoyed the custom-house officers to arrange the exemptions for colleges and libraries. The ease of these gentlemen was his principal concern; the diffusion of knowledge among the people was a matter of secondary importance. In like manner, although it is impossible for large accumulations of first-rate works of art to be made in America without eventually reaching and elevating the masses, and although we can obtain them only through the munificence or vanity of rich men, as our Government pays no attention to art at all, to Mr. Dingley this is nothing compared to the wicked satisfaction which pictures give rich men. He would rather poor Americans never, or but rarely, saw a picture or a statue, than that a rich man should gloat over his gallery. To "get even" with millionaires, he thinks, is of more importance than to give the people art education, and is one of the great objects of a tariff.

The oddest thing in all this is that Mr. Dingley is himself a college graduate, but there are no more signs of college in his arguments and in his view of the true nature of national progress than if he had been brought up in a tepee. In truth, one of the most startling things in connection with our collegiate education is its failure, as a rule, to prevent the graduate, when he enters politics, from sinking mentally to the existing political level. This has been the history of the larger number of what are called our "gentlemen in politics." They rarely spend a year with politicians without adopting their standards and their view of civilization, namely, that the *unum necessarium* in a citizen's career is to think of the interests of the party, no matter what its objects, and no matter what discredit the party may throw on his own education or mental processes. There is, for instance, in matters of trade, finance, or taxation, no source of instruction which is worth anything compared to human experience. All, or nearly all, we know about tariff or currency comes to us from the record of the experiments men have already tried in these fields. Nearly everything else is dreams which speculators tell their fellows. In these things, therefore, college graduates ought to be peculiarly strong. But let one of them live for a while among the bimetallists or the silver men, and he begins to yell for silver, just as if the world was created yesterday, and men were looking about eagerly for a circulating medium, and were desirous of

holding a "conference" with somebody to see what would be the best material for money. In fact, the whole silver movement is an ignoring of human experience, and how many traces of college experience are there in it?

If, too, the Barbarians in the sixth century had taken into their heads to keep up the forms of Roman government, and had got up a Senate of their own, can there be a doubt that they would have wholly overlooked the debating and persuading part of legislative proceedings, and have confined the body to voting on the proposals of some powerful chief? He would have said what he wished, and they would have assented to it by a division, probably amid shouts of laughter. If some old Roman, lingering among the ruins of the state, had got on his feet to make a speech in opposition, they would have been amused by his pertinacity, and have probably at last squelched him with a whack of the flat of a sword, to show him what his "amendments" were worth. It is now 1,500 years since Alaric entered Rome, and yet we had just such a scene at Albany two or three days ago. Judging from what occurred there, one would have supposed that not one step had been made in the art of government in all that time. The proceedings were really like a theatrical burlesque on parliamentary government. A huge and complicated charter for a great city was passed with about as much haste, and as much attention to objections, as general orders for a plundering expedition. The amendments could not have caused more amusement if they had been suggestions to Alaric.

For the failure to offer the slightest explanation or defence of the measure by its friends, for the total silence with regard to all protests against it, no matter from whom they emanated, including the people who were to live under it, all the leading citizens, all the professions, all the mercantile corporations, all the jurists and experts, we should have to go back nearly two thousand years. But we should not get a parallel even then. For in the Greek and Roman world, when debate began to disappear, it was because the reign of violence had set in, because things had begun to be decided, not by the vote, but by the sword. Here, on the contrary, all meaning has departed from the forms of legislation without any disorder or formal overriding of the Constitution or the laws. Legislators hurry through the forms, not because there is a dictator at the door, but because they have found somebody to pay their election expenses, and because it is rather funny to set popular opinion at naught. There has been nothing like this in history. It is the most extraordinary betrayal of a community by its chosen representatives on record. If it had been marked by some bloodshed, there would be more reason in it. But, as a huge joke, it is positively appalling.

ITALY AND CRETE.

One of the most painful things in the Cretan incident is the prominent part taken by Italy in warning Greece and the Cretans, in blockading the Cretans and even firing on them, and in advising them to put up with the Turks in some shape a little longer. This rôle sits with an ill grace on all the Powers, but on none so awkwardly as on Italy. If there were such a thing as consistency in politics, Admiral Canevaro would have been all along remonstrating with Russia and Germany, and encouraging the Greeks to persevere; for Italy knows, as no other nation concerned knows, the road on which Crete is travelling, and has been travelling for two centuries. It is no more criminal or inexpedient for Greece to desire the union of all the Greek-speaking islands under one government of their own than for Italy to desire the union of Naples and Tuscany, and Parma and Modena, and Lombardy and Venice, with Piedmont. Crete has for centuries been subjected to even more paltry and cruel despotism than Italy has known, without loss of religion or language or love of independence. Italy has not suffered one-quarter as much from her tyrants as Greece, for both Austrians and Spaniards were at least Christians, and civilized men. The King of Naples, the "King Bomba" of history, savage as he was, was an angel of light compared to the Sultan. The Italian traditions on which these oppressors trampled so ruthlessly were not more glorious than those of Greece.

If we are to believe contemporary accounts, the mental and moral condition of large parts of Italy was as low as or lower than that of any part of Greece to-day. D'Azeglio testifies in his *Ricordi* that in 1847, just before the Revolution, he found in the Papal States, or in Naples at least, neither religion nor morality. The people of these states, he said, knew nothing about right or wrong. What they knew about in their stead was the possible and the impossible. With them *must* took the entire place of *ought*. Moreover—and at this juncture this is most interesting—there was a widespread belief, both among foreigners and among a large proportion of the natives, that Italy could never be united, that the various states were too dissimilar, and were severed by too many differences of standards, ideas, and traditions. Stendahl said this in the beginning of the century; Metternich said it; nearly all the pompous "bigwigs" and publicists of other countries said it, down to 1848. Even D'Azeglio was disposed to agree with it. Ardent patriot as he was, his plan of union so late as 1859 was a federal union presided over by the Pope, much as he despised him. Louis Napoleon had the same idea. After Villafranca his plan of reconstruction was something in the nature of a federation also.

Curiously enough, too, Charles Albert and his son Victor Emmanuel were denounced in exactly the same terms in which the King of Greece and his son are now denounced: they were ambitious; their patriotism was all humbug; they cared nothing for Italian unity; what they sought was aggrandizement, and they would probably, in the end, meet with the retribution which awaits all self-seeking charlatans. But they, like the King of Greece, kept "never-minding." They continued their intrigues. They got foreign aid when they could. They fought at Novara; they fought at Solferino; they fought at Casteggio. They were never successful alone; they owed the greater part of Italy to the French, and they owed Rome to the Germans. The fate of Southern Italy was settled by Garibaldi. He and his Thousand, like Vassos and his Thousand, put an end to all doubts about Italy's capacity, and the plébiscite to those about Italy's desire for unity. The publicists and the jurors and the croakers and the "intelligent observers" and the people "who knew Italy well," all, as the boys say, "shut up." Italy had become a nation through long undying aspirations, through much misery, through a series of happy accidents, and through foreign aid.

One would think that, considering all this, the efforts of a kindred race which shares with Italians the great traditions of the ancient world, and has had in the modern world an experience tenfold more bitter, to do exactly what the Italians have done, would meet from the Italians sympathy and encouragement, not threats, warnings, rebukes, cannonades, and blockades, under the direction, of all persons in the world, of the Italian Admiral. There is no reason, historical, religious, linguistic, or geographical, why Crete should not belong to Greece, any more than why Sicily should not belong to Italy. The share of Italy in this "concert" business can reflect nothing on her but discredit. There is much reason for believing that the "concert" has been a fraud from the beginning, got up by Russia in order to keep Turkey for herself without having to fight for it. There never has been any good reason for believing that if France, Italy, and England had talked to the Sultan during the past year in the way that they have been talking to the Greeks, they would not have brought him to reason. In letting him run on, and crying "concert of the Powers," they have simply betrayed the interests of civilization of which they were the guardians. Not a particle of proof has ever reached the public that war would have been caused by anything but an open attempt on the part of some Power to take possession of something. Interference to restore order or prevent murder, rape, and arson would not, there is every reason to believe, have caused anything more serious than an improvement in the Turkish methods of govern-

ment. The treatment of Crete is doing much to justify this conclusion.

M. FERDINAND BRUNETIÈRE.

PARIS, March 13, 1897.

M. FERDINAND BRUNETIÈRE sails to-day for New York to deliver at Johns Hopkins University, in the Percy Turnbull course, a series of lectures on French poetry. It will be remembered that, in accordance with the terms of this foundation, some one who has gained distinction as a writer of poetry, or as a critical student of the poetic art, is to be invited annually to Baltimore. It is in the latter capacity that M. Brunetière goes to you. The present one is the sixth year of his lectureship, and those who have filled it have been two Americans (Mr. Stedman and Prof. Norton) and three British subjects (Profs. Jebb of Cambridge, Tyrrell of Dublin, and Adam Smith of Glasgow). M. Brunetière is the first Continental and French scholar who has lectured on this foundation, and President Gilman is to be congratulated on his excellent choice, for it would be difficult to find a man better fitted than M. Brunetière to represent in America all that is highest and most thorough in the European university and critical world, and whose personal characteristics and qualities are of such an elevated and remarkable order.

It is as a critic, of course, that M. Brunetière stands out preëminent in contemporary French literature. His very manners and intercourse with men are affected by his rôle as a critic. He unconsciously, perhaps consciously, describes himself when, in his Academy reception address devoted to John Lemoinne, he expresses the hope that the latter's "discretion and even coldness may always find some imitators among us," and then goes on to say: "How can one speak with freedom about the things and men of the day if he do not first oppose a rampart to the encroaching familiarity of some people and to the ordinary commonplaceness of others? . . . The lot of the critic is hard, . . . obliged thus to assume an air of resistance which the world is only too prone to interpret as a mark of ill temper. And the world is right, but the critic is not wrong."

Two qualities are especially prominent in Brunetière's criticisms—the variety of the subjects which he treats, and the boldness and independence of his judgments. History, biography, poetry, science—nothing seems beyond his reach and ken. Nor is he a respecter of reputations, a fault so common in France. He never hesitates to give his opinion, even if it be an adverse one—I am almost tempted to say, particularly if it be an adverse one—concerning any writer of any school or nation, not excepting his French contemporaries and even his colleagues of the Academy. Francisque Sarcey refused a seat "under the cupola" because it would trammel his dramatic critic's pen. But "Pierre Loti," Taine, and other Academicians and contributors to the *Revue des Deux Mondes* know full well that Ferdinand Brunetière has not hesitated, for this reason, to "speak his mind." This independence is a side of his character that awakens the warmest admiration. His bold attack on science—he pronounced it "a failure"—in his pamphlet 'La Science et la Religion,' brought down a storm upon his head, which, however, was not at all disagreeable to him. He did not hesitate to defend the Revolution against Taine's assault upon it, though Taine was his friend and a contributor to his magazine. His opponents declare that every page of his pamphlet 'La Moralité de la Doctrine Évolutive' may be made the subject of a dispute. He did not even spare Victor Hugo, apotheosized living though he was. This same unshackled spirit is shown in his praise of the socialistic novels of George Sand, from which it seems evident that, if he were a Londoner, he would at least be a Fabian. This phase of his nature struck M. d'Haussonville, who imagines, in his reception address, Brunetière's having entered Government employ, but immediately expresses the fear that he would soon have been dismissed on account of his "independent mind."

Closely allied to this refractoriness to restraint is Brunetière's authoritativeness. To quote another passage from his speech on John Lemoinne: "Who of us has not his feeble sides? Mine, one of mine, has always been a liking for the Doctrinaires, and I have such a feeling of indulgence for them that I forgive them not only for having had doctrines, but for having changed them whenever they found good doctrinal reasons for so doing." "He would like the University to be a sort of regiment," said one of Brunetière's friends to me recently, "provided he were the marshal." As an editor he is an autocrat. He rules over the *Revue des Deux Mondes* with the proverbial hand of iron gloved in velvet of Richelieu, who, by the way, is naturally one of his ideals. If he were a politician, it would be safe to say that he would be classed among the "autoritaires" of the Third Republic, and the dash of Robespierre which is seen in his physiognomy might suggest many speculations as to what part he would have played if his strong personality had been cast among the stormy days of the Revolution and Empire.

We should naturally expect to find M. Brunetière a moralist, and such he surely is. He here reveals himself as an "heroic pessimist," an expressive term defined in this extract from one of his essays on Pascal, in the third volume of 'Études Critiques':

"I know that this word pessimism has been, for some time past, compromised in an unfortunate manner; and the fact that many persons employ it to-day, does not at all prove that they all understand it. . . . If we say in a general way 'Life is bad,' they imagine that pessimism offers no other issue but 'the destruction of life.' They are all wrong in taking this view. What is meant is simply that the life in this world does not end here, that man's final destiny is outside of and beyond the terrestrial existence. Now such a belief is so far removed from the principle of despair, discouragement, and inertia which they preach that it is, on the contrary, found at the bottom of the great religions."

Brunetière's volume, 'Questions de Critique,' offers innumerable examples of his love of taking issue with traditions and prejudices of long standing. Thus, he holds that one of his heroes, Bossuet, was of a mild, gentle temperament. The common opinion that Théophile Gautier's works are rich in form but poor in ideas is not shared by M. Brunetière, who makes out a good case on the other side; for him Gautier not only is "the Benvenuto of style," but is chock-full of thought. He does not hesitate to come bravely to the defence of the "précieuses," whom he considers to have been real benefactors of the French language; and in his study of Molière, in the first volume of the 'Études Critiques,' is a two-page semi-apology for the great dramatist's detestable wife. His plea for plagiarism is another of his curious paradoxes. In fact, he denies the existence of plagiarism, holding that he who gives a new and definitive form to a plot thereby becomes the rightful originator of it.

M. Brunetière has his likes and dislikes, and both are decided and clear-cut. He rather avoids, for instance, all consideration of "the tender passion," and abhors the scandals that are so often connected with it in literature and history. A notable exception is a three-page passage on love in the essay on the philosophy of Schopenhauer, in the volume entitled 'Questions de Critique.' He says of Musset that he became great only when he experienced love. "Absolute love is so rare a thing," he remarks, "that it is as seldom met with as beauty or genius." He discountenances the holding of banquets in honor of great men: "Ils ont pensé pour nous et nous mangeons pour eux." He is also heartily set against memoirs in which the *ego* is brought too often and too prominently to the front. Thus he has no patience with the Goncourt volumes. He pardons the *I* of Montaigne and La Fontaine because it refers to mankind in general and not to these in particular, and he excuses the egotism of Rousseau because he regards him as the first decisive entrance into literature of the plebeian. Divorce he cannot accept; and in order that husband and wife may be the less likely to fall out, he opposes co-education, or rather the same instruction for men and women. Here he would apply Legouvé's formula, "Equality in difference." Protestantism is repugnant to him because it fosters individualism, Brunetière's greatest *bête noire*, and he never lets an opportunity pass to give the Reformation a rap, though not on religious grounds, for Brunetière has always been and is still an agnostic, notwithstanding the pretensions of some pious old priests who have discovered a sign of his gradual returning to the fold in his praise of the Church in the pamphlet already named, 'La Science et la Religion.' In his reviews little if any space is given up to the light, anecdotic side of the characters whom he is studying, and idle gossip is always shut out. In the essay on Musset mentioned above, he touches most discreetly on the George Sand episode, which is the more notable as at this moment so much is being printed about their liaison.

M. Brunetière owes not a little of his reputation to his lectures at the École Normale and the Sorbonne, and to the series, published in book form as 'Les Époques du Théâtre Français,' delivered at the Odéon theatre during the winter of 1891-92, when Brunetière appeared for the first time before the general public as a lecturer. Until then his remarkable talent as a speaker had been revealed to and applauded by the very limited auditory of the schools. The success of this series was marked, and the next year M. Brunetière won still greater applause at the Sorbonne with the series on 'L'Évolution de la Poésie Lyrique en France,' which fills two volumes, and which has added his name to that brilliant galaxy of famous Sorbonne orators beginning with Royer-Collard, Guizot, Cousin, and Villemain, and coming down to Jules Simon and Caro. These Odéon and Sorbonne lectures had much to do with opening to their author the doors of the Academy. As a lecturer M. Brunetière displays all the graces of the true orator—a vivacious physiognomy, fitting gestures, an earnest regard, and a penetrating and ringing voice. His rather small stature alone militates against his impressiveness. His clear enunciation, which he has of late practised himself (in view of his American audi-

ences) to make as deliberate as possible, will enable him to be understood by ears little accustomed to the French language.

M. Brunetière leaves his native land for the first time. In fact, his departure has seemed so odd to some minds on this side that it has been asked why he goes. Did the suggestion come from his friend Paul Bourget, who, as he once remarked to me, "knows more about me than anybody else," or did that enthusiastic admirer of our country, Mme. Blanc, who makes her second trip to America with M. and Mme. Brunetière, fortunately for them and for us, persuade him by offering to act as their cicerone? Not at all. It was simply President Gilman's invitation which decided M. Brunetière to cross the Atlantic:

"Let us suppose that our Sorbonne or our College of France," he writes in a personal letter from which I am permitted to make this extract, "which have not the means, unfortunately, to do so, had formerly invited Prof. Whitney, for example, or were to-day to invite Prof. William James, to come to France to lecture on linguistics or psychology. This is exactly my case. My going to America to lecture—I do not say simply *going* to America—in any other manner would not have been in accord with my character or my position. But from the moment, on the contrary, when the invitation took the form it did, I was too much honored by it not to accept it, as I did, eagerly."

If I am not mistaken, the American public will fully appreciate the spirit and manner in which M. Brunetière sails to the United States, for distinguished foreign lecturers have not always visited us in this mind.

THEODORE STANTON.

ANCIENT MONUMENTS OF THE DECCAN.

BHOPAL, January 30, 1897.

To see India from behind a locomotive may suit the globe-trotter's modest desires, but the imperious student who wants to learn the land must quit the line and plunge into the country. For not only is it by this means alone that one can study the native in his unsophisticated state, but some of the best monuments of antiquity are situated far away from the railway. There is only one drawback in making these excursions, and that is the impossibility of acquiring a new dialect for every trip. For, after learning enough Hindustani to get along with on the border of civilization, if one then crosses that border the discovery is quickly made that the Hindustani of the villagers, with the exception of the local officials, is not the Hindustani of commerce.

This, however, is but a trifle, and, together with a certain awkwardness in procuring anything to eat or drink, may be dismissed as one of the petty inconveniences of travel. Yet for the encouragement of such tourists as would like to visit the Buddhist caves, but feel rather appalled at the prospect of the long *tonga*-drive to Ellóra and to Ajanta, I may add that the Nizam's new railway, from Munmur past Ellóra and through Aurungabad, will be completed within two years, and that a fine highway is now making from Pachora to Ajanta, so that even the globe-trotter may soon make these trips.

As I could not wait for the completion of either road, I filled my tiffin-basket and mounted the Nizam's mail-*tonga*, prepared for a jaunt of fifty six miles. We left Nandgaon about eight in the morning, and, though the horses were changed every hour and galloped all the way, yet they were such wretched little beasts that the journey lasted till sundown. Apart from the feeble condition of our decrepit steeds, the run was like that of an old-fashioned stage-coach. Until we reached the British boundary-line we were preceded by a plain national guardsman; but on crossing into the Nizam's territory we were met and escorted further by a much more gorgeous creature. This cavalryman carried a lance, which he was fond of twirling in his fingers, as a ballet-girl twirls her wand, and he was arrayed most gloriously in a magenta turban, white jacket and trousers, red sash, green socks, and pink shoes, while his saddle was red and yellow. He spent most of the time cantering ahead of us, but occasionally he would return and swoop round us with his lance in rest, his black face shining with the pleasure of showing off his horsemanship before a Sâ'b (sahib). I am a very unimportant Sâ'b, but he did not know that, and, besides, a Sâ'b's a Sâ'b, and, whether he will or no, a very lofty person in native estimation.

Only one incident occurred in the course of our long drive, and this it would be ridiculous to mention except for the illustration it gives of local character. But in relating it I shall sink my individuality in that of "the Sâ'b." For in short the great event is that the Sâ'b's hat blows off. Instant consternation prevails. The driver reins up his horses with a jerk, and looks in bewilderment at the light pith helmet, which is racing across the prairie. The Brahmin and Mohammedan, who occupy the back seat of the *tonga* and despise each other so heartily that they have not spoken a word since the start, now converse together in low tones, saying: "The Sâ'b has lost his hat; what a calamity has befallen us." The Mohammedan says further: "I would hasten after the Sâ'b's hat, but I am lame of one leg, and cannot run." The Brahmin, however, says nothing. He knows that he is the next in rank to the Sâ'b, and as he has never in his life done anything for anybody, he is not going to begin now. The Sâ'b himself sits cross-legged on the Nizam's mail-bag and waits patiently, knowing that in this favored land all things work together for the glory of the Sâ'b, and that it would be the merest folly for him to serve himself, not to speak of the danger of sunstroke in the present instance.

Meanwhile the driver has produced an idea, and in consequence makes as if he would hand the reins to the Sâ'b to hold, while he himself pursues the flying *topi*. But the good man, being of low caste, cannot quite make up his mind to offer such an insult to the Sâ'b. He looks at the reins, then at the Sâ'b, then at the reins again, and shakes his head and sighs. The Sâ'b now lights a *trichy*, to measure by its ash how long it will take somebody to do something. The whole *tonga* relapses into mournful silence, while the pith helmet cavorts about the distant horizon.

But at last the driver has a genuine inspiration. Not an instant does he hesitate, but, drawing forth his horn, blows into it a mighty blast; not the cheerful peal with which the *tonga* erst brushed aside the herds of cows and buffaloes upon the route, or shrieked warning to the thousand "relief-workers," as they pounded stone upon the highway, men, women, and children, a village of famine planted athwart the *tonga's* track; but a long, loud, plaintive wail, the sign of deep distress. Far ahead the lancer hears it and turns at once. He is on a little slope about an eighth of a mile away. One can almost see the working of his quick, imaginative brain in the dramatic gesture with which he wheels and gazes down the road: "The Nizam's mail is in peril; I, the guardian of the mail, will rescue it." Down comes his lance to rest again (whether because that is the most picturesque way or the easiest way to carry a lance), and in a twinkling the brave guardsman is tearing along towards the *tonga* at full gallop, turban flying, teeth gleaming, like a Bedouin out of the desert.

Another blast from the horn, quick and sharp, and the driver points across the prairie and shouts *Dekho* (look), while the Sâ'b echoes the word and points to his bare head. The lancer understands, and with a turn of his hand heads his horse obliquely for the narrow ditch and rowels him easily over it into the field. Without pausing, he plants his lance in the soft earth and dashes after the fugitive pith. A short run, a dismount—the lancer picks up the hat and trots back with it. But with what smiles and gestures, with what triumph is it returned! "Behold me, your call was not in vain; the brave soldier will always thus protect you!" The Sâ'b hastily fishes out something from his vest-pocket, while the knight shrinks back in horror at the suggestion. But the Sâ'b, who has had experience in these matters, pitches the money on the ground, and mutters to the driver, *Chello* (go ahead). Off starts the *tonga* again, soon overtaken by the joyful lancer, who has lingered behind for a moment, but now reappears as smiling and jaunty as ever.

At Ellóra, or, as the driver calls it, Eróla, the chief attraction is not the sculpture or the painting, but the cave-temples themselves. Nevertheless, there are some very rich effects in blue and gold here, the color on the wall being almost as bright as at Ajanta. Many of the statues, too, are well done, though in fineness of detail these cannot compare with the marvellous work in granite found at Madura and Trichinopoly. The stone is very soft, so that all the bas-reliefs have weathered badly, though they are only a thousand years old. The most elaborate carving is in the Brahmanic division, for the caves are divided into three sets, those of the Buddhists, Brahmins, and Jains.

But, from an architectual point of view there is enough to admire. The Kailas is of course the crown of the series. Whereas, the other temples, hollowed out of the rock, preserve the aspect of true caves in having the hill itself for their roof, this wonderful temple is cut out of the rock in such a way as to have its own roof. This can be accomplished of course only by carving away the whole hill-top of rock above, leaving the great Kailas temple in a sort of pit, where the temple itself, its roof with the minute carvings thereon, the porch in front, the broad court-yard around the temple with its decorated pillars, the interior of the temple with its statues, shrine, and intricate carvings, are all chiselled out of one piece of stone, which has been cut away within and without, a veritable *tour de force* of Brahmanic architecture. The courtyard is 276x154 feet, and the pillars that stand in it are nearly fifty feet high.

The older caves have all plain pillars, but the later ones are profusely decorated. In all the Buddhist caves I noticed the frequent use of stucco, such as is found in Ajanta, where the mural paintings are made on quarter-of an-inch thickness of stucco or plaster. Two things surprised me at Ellóra. One was that in the bas-reliefs the boys, who are studying, are all represented as sitting down on chairs at little tables, resting their books on the tables instead of holding them on their laps and squatting on the ground, as do all

the school-boys in India to-day. These figures are in the Buddhist caves. The other strange thing was that though the Brahmanic caves were made when the equality of the Hindu triune god was formally recognized, yet Brahmâ never receives his rights, for, when he is represented with the great sectarian gods, he is always carved as a stumpy insignificant dwarf between the mighty figures of Vishnu and Shiva. This shows indisputably, I think, the correctness of the view which, on purely literary evidence, I have insisted on in my 'Religions of India,' namely, that there was no real trinity, but only an harmonious tolerance of the equal claims of the two great gods, into whose company Brahmâ was admitted simply as the greatest representative of a former pantheon, but never on an equal footing with the two rival divinities. I did not expect, however, to find this evidence so plainly carved in stone as it is at Ellóra.

The old town of Aurungabad, twenty miles beyond Ellóra, is interesting chiefly because it contains a second Taj Mahal, built in the same century as that at Agra. This mausoleum was erected as a tomb for the daughter of Aurangzib, and though it lacks the lovely inlaid work of its northern rival and has too low an entrance, the dignity and beauty of the Taj are here reproduced in a surprising degree—the same delicate carved marble windows with the subdued light falling upon the tomb, the same picturesque minarets, and the same long garden-walk with the well-known sheet of clear water from the outer gate to the front of the high platform on which rests the shrine.

As I bent over the tomb, the perfume of jessamine-flowers rose from below, and, looking down, I could see the offerings that are still made on the tomb of the venerable dead. There is something pathetic about this century-long mourning of the Mohammedans, and the simplicity of the daily "sacrifice of flowers." Something, too, of monastic peace and old-fashioned cultured leisure seems to linger between the outer gate and the shrine in the quiet walks of the garden and the shaded seats, where a few lads are repeating a lesson in the Koran at the feet of a venerable teacher. I dare say the jessamines would not be offered if some one did not pay for them, and doubtless the repose of the garden is more or less superficial, like the Mohammedan culture of to-day, but it is very pleasant to see; and if one blinks a little, it all seems very sweet and perfect, like a small earthly paradise, so that it does good to the spirit to gaze upon it and fancy it is just what it appears to be.

Eight miles from this old city stands one of the most curious survivals of mediæval India, a formerly impregnable fortress, which crowns the now deserted town of Daulatabad. The latter is one of the half-dozen deserted cities of India, but at present it is a mere jungle surrounded by the old wall. The fort itself, however, originally a Hindu invention, is perfectly preserved, only one gate being in ruins, and gives a very clear idea of the means of defence employed before the invention of gunpowder. It dates from the thirteenth century, and the chief strength of the citadel lies in the fact that to get to it a foe must not only storm two dozen well-made and strongly defended gateways, but in doing so he must force a passage up a pitch-dark tunnel hewn steeply in the solid rock; and when he has thus painfully fought his way to a height two hundred feet above the moat, where he first entered the rock, he runs against a trap-door of iron, sixteen feet square and covering the whole mouth of the tunnel. The turns and twists in the tunnel itself preclude the possibility of the enemy bringing in battering-rams; but this is not all, for the stone chamber above this iron door is a huge oven, and if the enemy ever got so far he would find the trap-door converted into a red-hot iron barrier, through which he could not force his way; but if he did, it would only be to enter into a fiery furnace.

The hill itself, in and on which the fort is built, is a most extraordinary natural phenomenon. It is quite circular, rising directly from the plain, with perpendicular sides from one hundred to two hundred feet high. Above this scarp the hilltop converges almost to a point, and then suddenly rises in a little dome five hundred feet above the moat. This dome alone would prove an obstacle difficult to surmount, as its sides are slippery rock. The tunnel stops with the top of the perpendicular scarp, and, though there is little need of further defence, the strong walls and gates continue to the very dome on the summit. The place is well worth a visit, as it is the best-preserved fortress of its time in India. The Mohammedans generally destroyed the forts both of the Hindus and of their own countrymen, but this they wisely preserved and strengthened with guns. Even gunpowder was useless against Daulatabad in the old days, for the upper fort-platforms are so made that no gun from the plain below could sweep them.

Some of these old guns, by the way, are curious weapons. The other day at Oodeypur I saw two cannon, said to be over two hundred years old, built on a revolver pattern; the barrel, worked by a crank, being brought opposite to each chamber in turn. The cannon on the tiptop of the Daulatabad fort, five hundred feet above the plain, is over twenty feet long, and how it was ever raised to its position is a mystery.

After spending three days on these relics of the past, I found I had exhausted my provisions, and so had to return to the base of supplies, preparatory to starting out again in another direction for Ajanta. There, despite the fascination of the mural decorations in other caves, the strongest impression was produced upon me by the insignificant and unfinished cavern which ends the series. There was a tiger—but enough! It suffices that I survive. I write not of beasts, but of man and art. And what wonderful art is exhibited in the wall-paintings of Ajanta! Even on the ceiling of the verandas the colors, veritable Pompeii reds and sky-blues, remain in all their ancient richness, and the patterns of flowers, traced in many designs, are as if painted yesterday. Within, on the chapel-walls, are represented, not conventional temple scenes, but historical subjects and personages, such as the Persian King Khusru II. receiving an embassy from the King of Ajanta; and hunting scenes, painted with the most minute care, in softly blended shades. In the historical cave, which is ascribed to the seventh century, there is the portrait of a Chinaman. There cannot be much question as to the person here represented by the artist, for Hiouen Thsang, the distinguished Chinese traveller, was in India in the seventh century, and the fact is doubtless recorded in this portrait of him. No ordinary Chinaman would have received the honor of being grouped with the Persian monarch.

The female figures in these pictures make a curious study. The faces are Madonna-like and saintly; the skin is fair, but many of the forms are half-nude. One's first thought is that Italian artists have left their mark here; but experts declare that the art of Ajanta is superior to that of Europe at this period. The explanation, I think, may be that native artists have here modelled their figures on pictures of Madonnas brought by missionaries, and artistically bettered their instruction. But it is a difficult problem to solve.

When I returned from the caves to the bungalow, four miles away, I found the place held by sepoys. The district officer told me that the dacoits had broken out again and that he was hunting them down. In this part of India the dacoits are chiefly Bhils, savage hill-men, and this year, in consequence of the famine, they are more outrageous and less prone to disguise themselves than usual. The night before they had killed three men and cut off sixteen noses in the next village to Ajanta. The dacoits' rule of warfare is thus simple. They cut off the heads of them that resist and the noses of them that do not, which insures them peace and leisure to rob when they enter a village, for even non-combatants run away rather than lose their noses. I was pleased to learn that the sepoys were to camp that night around the bungalow.

The next morning occurred an amusing incident, so typical of native notions of cleanliness that I cannot refrain from recounting the tale. As in the case of most bungalows, there was no pitcher, but one basin of fresh water was brought into the room the last thing at night for use in the morning. The official in charge of the bungalow brought in tea while I was dressing; and I, being a little late and wishing to rush things a bit, handed him my tumbler and told him to wash it and stow it away in the tiffin-basket as quick as he could. He simply ran across the room and rinsed the glass in the wash-hand basin. I had seen basins used as sinks, and knew that it was useless to comment on that; but the delay irritated me, and I said rather angrily: "What did you do that for? Didn't you know I wanted that water to wash in? Go and get some more." "*Khuda kasam*" (God is my witness), he exclaimed in deeply penitent tones, "I did not know. *I thought the Sâ'b had already washed.*"

E. Washburn Hopkins.

Correspondence.

FETTERING THE INTELLIGENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am a pedagogue in the town of Nephelococcygia. My salary is not large, but every year, with a laudable desire to improve the quality of my instruction, I invest a small portion of my earnings in books of reference, which are the indispensable tools of my profession. Unfortunately, these books are not all written by the Nephelococcygians, and even now I am longing to possess Baumeister's 'Denkmäler des Klassischen Altertums' and Marquardt and Mommsen's 'Handbuch der Römischen Alterthümer.' These works would be of the greatest assistance to me in my classes, but they are expensive, and, just as I am trying to screw my courage to the sticking-point, I hear that certain Goths and Vandals are proposing to increase their cost by levying blackmail to the extent of 25 per cent.

Now, if this is reputable business for a civilized government to be engaged in, then I

have read my Herbert Spencer to no purpose. On the contrary, it would seem that such a government, if it cannot directly promote the cause of education, is at least in duty bound to interpose no obstacle.

Is there no help, or must we go on for ever laying for a time the spectre of anarchy, only to fall into the clutches of those who will rob us by due process of law? A. V.

March 24, 1897.

THE INSULT TO COMMON SENSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your editorial in the last number of the *Nation* (No. 1656) in regard to the repeal in the Dingley bill of that provision in the present tariff bill which allows a drawback on tin plate reëxported in the shape of cans and packages, is good as far as it goes, but it does not go far enough. You should have called the attention of your readers to the fact that the steel-makers of the United States are to-day exporting to Wales in large quantities what are known to the trade as "sheet bars," the raw material from which tin plate is manufactured. The American manufacturer of tin plate, who commands the cheapest raw materials in the world, is therefore to-day asking Congress for protection against the Welsh manufacturer who is using American sheet bars, and returning our own steel to us in the shape of tin plate. Surely such a demand is an insult to the intelligence and common sense of our legislators at Washington.

Yours, Steel-maker.

"THE FIRST ESSENTIAL OF PROSPERITY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Under the above heading Mr. John Brisben Walker has published an article in the March number of the *Cosmopolitan*—the magazine which he edits and which he is said to own. A great deal that he advocates is open to criticism, but the whole article is reasonable, compared with the footnote which appears on page 474. It reads as follows:

"The volume of the currency was reduced by legislation from about sixteen hundred millions in 1866 to seven hundred and twenty millions in 1873—a ruthless proceeding which even the most untrained mind should have recognized as certain to bring a panic. . . ."

I have been unable to find any evidence of this reduction in the volume of the currency. The official figures of the Treasury Department show that the total money in circulation in the United States was, in 1866, $673,488,244, and in 1873, $751,881,809. In addition, Mr. Muhleman's well-known book tells us that in the former year there was about a hundred and forty million dollars in the Treasury, while in the latter year the amount was about a hundred and twenty millions.

Was Mr. Walker's "ruthless proceeding" a reality? If so, where is the evidence of it? Nobody doubts the legal right of any man to publish anything he chooses in his own magazine; but when he is trying to instruct the uninitiated, ought he not, in justice to himself, to publish correct figures?

I am yours, etc., Lawrence Irwell.

Buffalo, N. Y., March 20, 1897.

[Your own figures are correct. Somebody has imposed upon Mr. Walker. His statistics may possibly be derived from 'Coin's Financial School,' but they can pretend to no higher authority. If he had troubled himself to look up the official figures, he would have learned that while the total amount of United States notes was reduced, between July 1, 1866, and July 1, 1873, by $44,780,306, the total amount of national banknotes was increased by $65,787,153. In other words, even our paper currency was increased during that period. The substitution of national banknotes for legal tenders, which was thus taking place, is exactly the process anticipated and promised by Secretary Chase in his annual report of 1863, by President Lincoln in his annual message of 1862, and by the authors of the Legal Tender Act in their public speeches and documents.—Ed. Nation.]

THE "SCARCITY OF MONEY" IN TEXAS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You have lately published a letter from G. S. Brown, touching on the "scarcity of money in the South," which thoroughly commends itself, in my judgment, to those of us who are familiar with that section of the Union known as "The South." I hear a great deal of talk about the scarcity of money, but in a pretty wide experience of travel through the South and West, I do not find any greater deficiency in the South than in the West, and the deficiency I find is not in money, but in collateral. This is the point, in connection with the State of Texas, to which I wish particularly to call attention.

There is a universal cry in Texas of the "scarcity of money." The politicians have harped upon it until the people themselves believe there is no money in Texas. As a matter of fact, I do not remember a time when there was more idle money in the banks seeking investment than can be found in Texas to-day. This is due, of course, to the depression in general business which has existed for the last five years, the discontinuance of railway building, and to the financial conditions (too familiar to us all to require that I should go into detail).

It has been accentuated to a remarkable degree in this State by the fact that we have absolutely no collateral; the Homestead law of the State of Texas has tied the hands of every poor man in the State. The natural conditions here are superior to those of any other portion of the South or West—the richest soil, the finest climate, and a growth in values which has been phenomenally rapid, made so by the general improvement of the uncultivated lands in the State during the last twenty years.

"In the last two decades the wealth of Texas has been increased by more than 200 per cent., as the result of the unaided efforts of the people, save and excepting railroad investments. The men who converted the grazing-grounds into farms, as a rule brought with them no assets but their energies. They began as tenants and gradually acquired homes out of the fruits of their industry applied to the fertile soil. The history of modern development is without another instance of as rapid progress in building up a new State without material assistance from the outside. That Texas has never had this, is conclusively proved by the fact that it is virtually free from debt. Considered as a business enterprise, it is the wealthiest corporation in the world, measuring financial strength by the proportion of assets to liabilities.

"The assessed valuation of all property in the State on January 1, 1895, was $860,910,569. Custom makes 60 per cent. of the market value of the property the basis of assessment. A conservative estimate of the true value of all private property in the State would rate it at $1,500,000,000. The aggregate of all State, county, and municipal indebtedness of Texas in 1890 was $20,172,063; of this sum virtually all of the State debt, and nearly all of the county debts, amounting to about one half of the whole, are owned by the permanent school fund of the State. The total of all public indebtedness does not exceed $25,000,000. The mortgages on Texas realty in 1890 amounted to $93,864,178, since decreased until it now stands at about $65,000,000. The recorded mortgages on personal property amount to $25,000,000 Altogether the recorded indebtedness of Texas, public and private, including every dollar owed by the State, county, municipality, and individual (excepting the obligations of railroads), is safely within $125,000,000. Against this there are assets amounting to $1,500,000,000."

The above figures were collated by Mr. E. G. Senter, a careful newspaper writer, and they are fairly accurate. In the face of this it is safe to say there is less collateral in Texas than in any other State in the Union, and it is due to the Homestead act. Mind you, I am not discussing whether the Homestead law of Texas is a good or bad law; I am merely endeavoring to point out to those who are eternally crying for more money, that what they lack is more collateral—that you cannot "eat your cake and keep your penny."

Of this $1,500,000,000 of actual values, ninety per cent. is land and the attachments thereto; and of this ninety per cent. it is safe to say that eighty per cent. *in value* is covered under the Homestead act of Texas. The farmer cannot borrow money on his farm unless he have more than 200 acres, that amount being absolutely exempt, no matter what its value, from any mortgage whatever; he may sell his farm, but he cannot mortgage it under any conditions, or for any amount. In the towns, the Homestead law not only exempts the dwelling, but the place of business, of the owner thereof, no matter what may be its actual value so that the ground did not cost more than $5,000 at the time when it was so designated as a homestead.

I have been, and am, an advocate of the Texas Homestead law (modified somewhat from its present conditions), but the results of such a homestead law universally applied has brought about a condition which I, at least, had not maturely considered. We have, for the reasons stated, practically no collateral in Texas which can now be used as a basis to secure money on which to inaugurate new enterprises. The clerk, mechanic, or middle-class merchant, who has a home varying in value from $1,000 to $25,000, finds in these hard times, when he is out of business, that he cannot even borrow money with which to keep up the taxes, much less to live upon. I have personal knowledge of a number of good people who are suffering for the necessaries of life, and wearing patched garments, while living in homes that are worth from $2,000 to $20,000. They do not wish to sell at this particular time, on account of the depression in real estate, which they believe to be temporary; and they cannot, by any possibility, execute any kind of a loan or mortgage which is valid. The banks have as much cash as they ever had at any previous time, but all these people, circumstanced as above, are crying out against the scarcity of money, and are, from the very facts as indicated, fair game for political demagogues and their wild theories.—Respectfully, J. T. Trezevant.

Dallas, Texas, March 19, 1897.

THE DECAY OF THE PARTHENON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While everybody who has had the opportunity to examine the Parthenon within the last few years must agree with Prof. Sterrett in what he says about its perilous condition, and the imminent danger of its crumbling to pieces with the next earthquake unless thorough measures of reparation are completed before that occurs, still, I disagree with him in attributing this decay principally to the use of faulty blocks of marble in its construction. This I am able to do upon the authority of so eminent an expert in such matters as Sig. Giacomo Boni, the national inspector of monuments of the kingdom of Italy, who was my companion in Athens in 1894, and, while there, brought to his study of the Parthenon the experience and knowledge which have made his reports upon the condition of the ancient buildings of his own country of great value to his ministry.

It is true that there are schists in many of the blocks of the walls of the Parthenon, and doubtless Prof. Sterrett is quite right in stating that some of the present weakness of the structure is due to them. But the principal cause is the iron clamps with which all the blocks were joined together. So long as the walls were intact, and covered by the roof, these were inaccessible to moisture of any kind, but, once the protection was removed and some of the blocks were dislodged, however slightly, by the explosion of 1687 and the earthquakes and cannonadings they have since sustained, the way was open for the penetration of rain, dew, and frost. Immediately, of course, the clamps began to rust, and, in rusting, to swell. The result has been inevitable: slowly but surely they have burst the stone about them; and I believe it is almost, if not quite, literally true that there is not a block in the building in which one cannot trace one or more cracks radiating from the clamp inside to the outer surface, for the force of the swelling is such that not even the purest marble has resisted it, and one would probably be not far wrong in asserting that for this reason there is not a sound block in the building to-day. Nothing but cohesion holds the crumbling structure together, and the jar of an earthquake, or—are we to look forward to this possibility once more?—the shell of a hostile gun, might send the building into splinters in an instant. As Signor Boni explained to me, nothing but the most thoroughly waterproof treatment of every block can arrest this decay; the surface of the walls, both on top and on the sides, must be rendered impregnable to moisture, *and every crack plugged.*

Signor Boni having pointed out these facts, and the prophecies to be deduced from them, before the earthquakes of that spring, you can imagine the eagerness with which I hurried to examine the result of the first shocks, he having already left Athens. Half a dozen or more large pieces had dropped out precisely as he had prophesied they would, and, in many places which we had examined together, fragments had been shaken out of their previous adjustment, often slightly, it is true, but the fact itself was sufficient to show the danger the whole structure was in.

To return to Prof. Sterrett's statement, I only wish to add that in the fallen fragments I examined at that time the break was always a clean white one, showing that it was not due to schist, and one of the principal pieces fell out of one of the columns, in which, as he says, no schistous strata have been found. Consequently, his charge that the present ruinous condition of the building is due ultimately "to the employment in its construction of poor marble for interior and inside stones," seems to me undeserved, although in any case it is a pretty fine question to determine how much blame should be attached to builders for the selection of their materials, when their work successfully withstood all the elements which nature brought to bear upon it for over two thousand one hundred years, and then was ruined by the hand of man.

Respectfully yours, Edward Robinson.

Boston, March 26, 1897.

SLAVIC STUDIES IN AMERICA.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the discussion in the last *Nation* based on Dr. Leo Wiener's article on Slavic Languages, in the *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for March, it would be an injustice not to mention the work of Dr. Hermann Schoenfeld, in the Columbian University in this city. As much as three years ago, Dr. Schoenfeld organized classes in the Polish language and literature, which were well attended. A similar course in Bohemian has been offered, while courses in Russian have been actually given in the same institution by Dr. Peter Fireman, a native Russian. Dr. Schoenfeld has published 'The Partition of Poland' (New York, 1891), which has been translated three times into Polish, numerous articles in 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia' on Slavic literary and historical subjects, several extensive essays on Slavic subjects in the Illinois *Staats-Zeitung*, a history of Higher Education in Russian, Austrian, and Prussian Poland in the last Report of the United States Commissioner of Education. All of this work has been based to a large extent on original sources.—Yours truly,

C. Meriwether.

325 East Capitol Street,
Washington, D. C., March 24, 1897.

THE *WORLD* BOYCOTT.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Not for the credit of priority, but to show the working of the leaven in the lump, even near the edge of the crust, I want to say that I dropped the New York *World* from the list of periodicals taken by this library last November. The other "offence" has never been on the list.

Librarian Seattle Public Library.

Seattle, Wash., March 18, 1897.

Notes.

The 'Life of Abby Hopper Gibbons,' told, chiefly through her correspondence, by her daughter, Sarah Hopper Emerson, with illustrations; 'The Life and Correspondence of Charles Carroll of Carrollton,' by Kate Mason Rowland; 'Nippur; or, Explorations and Adventures on the Euphrates,' by the Rev. Dr. John Punnett Peters, in two octavo volumes, fully illustrated; Pellissier's 'Literary Movement in France during the 19th Century,' translated by Anne G. Brinton; 'The Religions of Primitive Peoples,' by Dr. Daniel G. Brinton; 'Thought and Life among the Ancient Hebrews,' by the Rev. T. K. Cheyne; 'Studies in Psychical Research,' by Frank Podmore, A. M.; 'The Revolutionary Tendencies of the Age: their Cause and their Ultimate Aim'; 'Chronicles of a Kentucky Settlement,' by William Courtenay Watts; 'Sketches Awheel in Modern Iberia,' by Fanny Bullock Workman and William Hunter Workman, with map and illustrations; a seventh edition, rewritten, of 'Authors and Publishers: A Manual of Suggestions for Beginners in Literature'; and a third edition, revised and enlarged, of Bernhard Berenson's 'Venetian Painters of the Renaissance,' are in the press of G. P. Putnam's Sons.

The same firm has arranged with the City of New York to print a limited edition of the 'Records of the City of New Amsterdam,' in six volumes of text and one of index, under the editorial supervision of Mr. Berthold Fernow. The Records embrace both periods of Dutch control of the municipality, viz., 1653–1664 and 1673–74. Their genealogical value is very great, for both Dutch and English. A certain number of copies will be for sale at the nominal subscription price of $10.50 for the set.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will shortly issue the 'Life and Letters of Benjamin Jowett,' by Evelyn Abbott, LL.D., and Lewis Campbell, LL.D.

Macmillan Co. announce 'The Social Teachings of Jesus: An Essay in Christian Sociology'; 'In the Tideway,' a Scotch story by Mrs. Steel; and 'The Myths of Israel,' an analysis of the book of Genesis as to its composition, by Amos K. Fiske.

Dean Farrar's 'Men I have Known,' in England and America, will be published in this country by Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

The Continental Publishing Co. are about to bring out 'Tales of the Sun-Land' [the "Sad Southwest"], by Verner Z. Reed, and a metrical translation of Vondel's tragedy of "Lucifer," by Leonard Charles van Noppen, with illustrations by the Dutch artist, John Aarts.

The Jewish Publication Society of America promises 'In the Pale: Stories and Legends of the Russian Jews,' by the Rev. Henry Iliowizi.

The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, has nearly ready 'The Street Railway System of Philadelphia: its History and Present Condition,' by Prof. Frederic W. Spiers, of the Drexel Institute.

The collected Poems of the Rev. Dominic Brennan, C.P., are announced by the Peter Paul Book Co. of Buffalo.

We read in the *Athenæum* that Chatto & Windus, London, are to issue soon, in two volumes, the work of the late Gen. Meredith Read entitled 'Historical Studies in Vaud, Berne, and Savoy, from Roman Times to Voltaire, Rousseau, and Gibbon.' It will contain (together with a memoir of the author, his portrait and other illustrations) many unpublished letters of distinguished personages.

Few more welcome visitors do we greet than the quinquennial 'American Catalogue,' and that for 1890–1895 has just been issued from the office of the *Publishers' Weekly*. Mr. Bowker draws attention, in his preface, to the fact that another lustrum will round out the century for the Catalogue, whose first volume included all American works in print in 1876. It is possible that this period may see the completion of an enterprise now in hand by the *Publishers' Weekly*, viz., the cataloguing from such sources as are available of all books published in this country in the early part of the century and not in print in 1876. This would be a truly poetic achievement. Mr. Bowker's enumeration of his colaborers shows the pre-

dominant part played by women in preparing this Catalogue.

'The History of Mt. Mica,' by A. C. Hamlin (published by the author), gives a careful account of the discovery and product of this interesting mineral locality, near Paris, Maine, notable for the occurrence of tourmalines in great abundance, of many colors, and of quality suitable for gems. Numerous colored plates exhibit the variety of tint and form of the finer crystals, many of which are now, through the zeal of Mr. Hamlin and the generosity of Mr. J. A. Garland of New York, preserved in the mineralogical cabinet of Harvard University.

Mayer & Müller, Berlin, send us a useful little guide to the institutions for the higher education in that capital, compiled by Wilhelm Spielmann from official sources ('Handbuch der Anstalten und Einrichtungen zur Pflege von Wissenschaft und Kunst'). It opens with a directory of Imperial and State authorities, from the Foreign Office (with its relations to archæology, African scientific exploration, German schools abroad, etc.) to the General Staff of the Army (cartography). The Royal Academies of Science and of Art, the University, the high schools, independent scientific institutes, collections in science and art, archives and libraries, associations, examination committees, etc., complete the work when we have mentioned an appendix giving the personnel of the University and the high schools, and an index.

'The Magazine and the Drama: An Index Compiled by James Harry Pence,' a pamphlet of 190 pages issued in a limited edition by the Dunlap Society, is a most useful volume of reference for the subject treated. From Poole and Fletcher a large amount of material has been drawn, which has been reinforced by the compiler's own work, and thus an author and subject key has been supplied to more than one hundred and seventy periodicals. Mr. Pence has done his work well, and will, it is hoped, find many imitators in other ranges of literature. It is regrettable that so valuable a little manual should be limited in possession to the members of the club, as it ought to be in all public libraries.

The sumptuously illustrated catalogue of Edmond de Goncourt's collection of Japanese, Corean, and Chinese works of art constitutes a quarto volume of more than 400 pages, the last 50 pages being devoted to a list of signatures of artists found on the various pieces of china, lacquer, bronze, iron, and ivory. A considerable number of paintings, sketches, and Oriental books, along with a large number of works in black and white, and a collection of miscellaneous articles of Oriental furniture and the like, make up the rest of this interesting collection, which bears, as a whole, and in all its parts, the mark of its collector's individual taste. The care devoted to cataloguing and describing it, the beautifully executed heliogravure plates, eight in number (by Dujardin), the excellent photograph of Edmond de Goncourt, which does duty as frontispiece, and the woodcut of him and his brother on its title-page, serve to prepare us for the personal note that we find in the following extract from De Goncourt's will prefixed in facsimile to the catalogue: "It is my wish that my drawings, engravings, knick-knacks, books, and in general all the objects of art which have made my life a happy one, should be saved from burial in a shivering museum, and from the idiotic stare of casual and indifferent passers-by. I require them all to be scattered under the auctioneer's hammer, so that the enjoyment which the acquisition of each one of them has given me, may once more be given by each one of them to some inheritor of my tastes."

In accordance with the International Institute of Bibliography at Brussels, Dr. Tullio Rossi Doria will publish at Rome a *Repertorio Periodico* of medical publications in Italy, using the Dewey system of decimal classification.

The best thing about the well-printed *Publications* of the Southern History Association (Vol. I, No. 1, Washington) is that it is a beginning. Appetite comes with eating, and the new medium will not fail to draw to itself matter of permanent worth. This quality appertains already to Dr. Stephen B. Weeks's survey of what has been done and is doing towards the promotion of historical studies in the South, from which we learn that Georgia alone has done nothing to put her colonial history into shape; that no State has published its census records for 1790; and that, of the 22 historical societies reported, only 6 have libraries, viz., Maryland (30,000 vols.), Virginia (13,000), Georgia (two, 12,000 and 20,000), West Virginia (21,500), Missouri (5,000). To be mentioned also is Mr. Theodore L. Cole's Bibliography of the Statute Law of the Southern States, Part i., Alabama. The number contains a report of the proceedings at the formation of the Society, and several of the papers read at the first meeting. The subscription price is 75 cents.

The rather thin March number of the *Geographical Journal* contains, besides an account, with several portraits, of the Nansen meeting in London, a continuation of Messrs. Munro and Anthony's narrative of their explorations in Mysia. This is followed by a paper by Mr. V. Cornish on the formation of sand-dunes, profusely illustrated, to which is added a report of an unusually interesting discussion of the subject by distinguished members of the Geographical Society. A timely sketch of Abyssinia, considering the important British mission now on its way to that country, emphasizes the national feeling of the inhabitants. Though they are divided into separate races with distinct languages, yet the invariable answer to the question to what nation does a man belong is, "I am an Abyssinian"; and further inquiry is needed to bring out the fact that he "belongs to the Amharans, the Agau, or whatever it may be." Attention is also called to the fact that the emigrants from South Arabia who brought with them their writing and language to Africa, were "a company of Sabæan merchants that aimed at the commercial exploitation of East Africa. The British East India Company and the modern Chartered Company of South Africa had their prototype one thousand years before Christ in the Sabæan African Company. It bore the name *habasat* (*i. e.*, association or company), the same from which the modern appellation Abyssinia is derived."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* opens with an account of the Western Sahara, and especially the region about Cape Juby. This is followed by a description of the Balfour Shoal in the Southern Pacific and its deposits, by Dr. John Murray. In a review of Nansen's book, Prof. Geikie says that "if the discovery of a deep Polar sea does not call for any modification of geological opinion as to a former connection of northwest Europe and southeast Greenland, and if it leaves the accepted results of glacial investigation just where they were, nevertheless it furnishes much food for thought both to geologists and biologists." There is also a report of his and Dr. Murray's addresses at the Nansen Edinburgh banquet.

We some time ago announced the intention of the Berlin Photographic Company (New York, 14 East Twenty-third Street) to issue photogravures, on a generous scale, of the masterpieces of the Museo del Prado at Madrid. We have just received from them a sample plate of the 110 embraced in the scheme, and it is no less a worthy than Velasquez's "Surrender of Breda," familiarly known also, from a prominent feature in the beautiful composition, as "The Lances." In size it approximates pretty closely the average (14x19) of the series, and is an admirable memorandum of the work in question, short of the color, for which we must yet await the progress of invention. Velasquez's canvases enter into each of the ten parts or groups into which the subscription work is divided, and number thirty-nine in all, but the great Italian painters, the Dutch and Flemish and German, are likewise much in evidence. The subscription price is $360, and publication will proceed throughout the current year. The entire collection will be a treasure.

Mr. Jacques Reich's ambitious etching of Daniel Webster (New York: Charles Barmore, 111 Fifth Avenue) is all but life-size, and follows a Boston daguerreotype of about 1845—Webster before the fall, therefore. In this particular lies its main value, for the artist has treated his subject externally, and the face lacks spirit and vitality. There was, perhaps, none too much of this in the Webster of that date, who was *privily* aiding the Conscience Whigs of Massachusetts to fend off the annexation of Texas; and the head in its true proportions is always impressive.

The Amherst (Mass.) Summer School of Library Economy will reopen on July 5 for a term of six weeks. There are no special requirements for admission beyond a reasonably thorough education and book-aptitude. Full information may be had by addressing Mr. William I. Fletcher, at the Library of Amherst College.

Three fellowships, of $600, $600, and $500 respectively, are offered by the Managing Committee of the American School of Classical Studies in Rome for the year 1897-98, as we have already announced. Blank forms of application, with particulars, may be had of Prof. C. L. Smith, No. 64 Sparks Street, Cambridge, chairman of that committee, returnable up to May 1, 1897, but no later. After the present year, all such appointments will be made upon examination.

The landscape-gardener's art in this country has suffered a serious loss by the untimely death last week of Mr. Charles Eliot, of the firm of Olmsted, Olmsted & Eliot of Brookline, Mass, the eldest son of President Eliot of Harvard University. He had a conspicuous part in the determination of the magnificent scheme of parks for the Metropolitan District of Boston now being rapidly developed, and this will be his greatest though not his sole monument. Mr. Eliot was a frequent and willing contributor to the *Nation*, as a reviewer of works relating to his specialty.

We notice with regret the death on March 11 of that veteran lexicographer, Prof. Dr. Daniel Sanders, at Strelitz, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. His chief labors have been in connection with his native tongue, beginning with his great quarto 'Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache' (1859-1865), to be succeeded by an extraordinary number of

complementary dictionaries; but he began author with a work on the 'Folk-Life of the Modern Greeks' (1844), and in 1881 he returned to this people in his 'Modern Greek Grammar,' in 1884 with his 'History of Modern Greek Literature' (in connection with A. R. Rangabé). He passes away at a political crisis when all these works, except, perhaps, the first, have renewed claims to popularity.

Our recent Note (p. 204 of No. 1655) on the newly discovered Hebrew text of Ecclesiasticus was disfigured by the error of reading "Ecclesiastes."

—The second volume of the 'Statutes at Large of Pennsylvania from 1682 to 1801,' compiled by James T. Mitchell and Henry Flanders, Commissioners, is the initial result of a work begun so long ago as 1883 (though not authorized by the State until some years later). It covers the years 1700-1712. The publication of the matter which will constitute the first of the series (the laws and illustrative documents prior to 1700) is deferred in the hope of obtaining additional material. In this work of gathering what Gibbons terms "the most instructive portion" of a state's history, Pennsylvania has followed the previous examples of Virginia, South Carolina, and Massachusetts; but the present compilation, thanks to the scholarship and industry of its true editor, Mr. Charles R. Hildeburn, has been carried far beyond these earlier works in completeness. Not merely are the laws printed *in extenso* from the original manuscripts (saving only where lost or mutilated, in which cases they are reprinted from the Act books), thus bringing to light more than one hundred laws which by carelessness had never before been printed; but also the old texts are corrected to such an extent as to make this the first authentic printing of the larger part of the early laws of Pennsylvania. Nor is this reconstruction of text by any means the most valuable part of the work, for attached to each law is what might be called its biography, and, where it was superseded by subsequent laws, its genealogy. Take for an example the law relating to fences: we are referred to the successive laws passed in 1705, 1721, 1729, 1763, 1782, 1784, 1800, 1805, and to thirty more successive acts. In addition, more than a hundred pages of the present volume are devoted to documents relating directly to Pennsylvania laws, being the Orders in Council, Extracts from the Board of Trade Journal, Opinions of the Royal Attorney-General, and other papers by which alone a true understanding of the laws can be reached. The importance of this is proved by the fact that, of the first ninety-four acts codified in 1700 and adopted by the Assembly *en bloc*, fifty-three were repealed by the Queen in Council in 1705; and it is further noted of several laws that they were never submitted to the Crown. The index is admirably full.

—Toronto has the credit of being the first Canadian university to undertake the publication of historical studies. The opening number of the series is a "Review of Historical Publications relating to Canada" for 1896 (and in part 1895). The editor, Prof. Wrong, and his staff of contributors seek to gauge the value of the heterogeneous works which crowd upon the market every twelvemonth, steering a just course between "the acerbity of a *Saturday Review* article and conventional newspaper eulogy." We fear we may be suspected of the latter vice when we dismiss with undiscriminating praise the instalment now before us. We shall, however, do our duty undismayed by fear of such censure. The reviewers enlisted are numerous, and include some of the best Canadian antiquaries and historians; for instance, Sir James Le Moine, Hon. David Mills, Dr. Bourinot, Dr. Stewart, the Abbé Casgrain, and Prof. Shortt, besides the editor himself. A glance at the table of contents shows that 1895 and 1896 have been years unusually fertile in the production of important books relating to Canada. Lorin's 'Frontenac,' Thwaites's 'Jesuit Relations,' Rochemonteix's 'Les Jésuites et la Nouvelle-France,' the eighth volume of Kingsford's 'History of Canada,' Casgrain's edition of the 'Levis Papers,' and Coffin's 'The Province of Quebec and the Early American Revolution' are a striking half-dozen monuments of sound scholarship. One satisfactory feature of the year's harvest is that the French of Europe are showing a disposition to aid Canadians in opening up the history of New France. The most spirited writing of this sort is Kerallain's 'La Jeunesse de Bougainville.' We trust that 1897 may be productive of material to furnish forth another equally successful Review of this sort, and that the same standard of careful examination will be maintained.

—In the fourth volume of the 'Jesuit Relations' (Cleveland: Burrows Bros.), Biard's narrative of 1616 is concluded and the action is shifted to Quebec. Despite the more heroic undertakings which proceeded from Notre Dame des Anges, we take leave of Port Royal with regret. The charm of novelty clings about the earlier mission, investing alike De Poutrincourt, the fathers, and the converts. We shall search in vain for another Membertou, innocent cause of the delusion that many sagamores would bring their tribes to see the truth. Biard's last chapters describe his experiences after capture by the English, when, taken to Virginia, he and Quentin nearly lost their lives. His subsequent captivity and return to France by way of England once dismissed, he reverts *con amore* to a final recital of French obligations to prosecute colonies in New France and to convert the natives. His ultimate appeal may be taken either as the epitaph of Port Royal or as the prophecy of St. Ignace. Mr. Thwaites interjects no comment between the end of the Acadian mission and the beginning of the Laurentian. Whereas Biard sums up in a Relation, Lalemant at the outset of his work furnishes us with letters only. Four of the five here printed were written at Quebec in 1625 and 1626. It took but a short time to make a correct diagnosis of the vast difficulties presented by the new task. In the same letter which describes the dedication of the first Jesuit Church at Quebec, Lalemant says of the savages: "Leur conversion ne nous donnerons pas peu d'affaire. Leur vie libertine et faineante, leur esprit grossier, et qui ne peut guere comprendre, la disette des mots qu'ils ont pour expliquer nos mysteres, n'ayans jamais eu aucun culte divin, nous exercera à bon escient." Yet he immediately safeguards himself from a possible charge of cowardice: "Mais pourtant nous ne perdons pas courage graces à Dieu." The fifth letter referred to is dated 1629, and describes a shipwreck on the Canso Islands. Lalemant gives a vivid picture of the ship's breaking up, and of how he and his companion, Noyrot, clinging to spars, raised their voices in the *Salve Regina* and the *In manus tuas Domine*. A welcome feature of the present volume is a photo-engraving of Jean de Brébeuf, reproduced from McNab's oil portrait. Surely that martyr earned his claim to such conspicuous recognition!

—It is not often that we are called upon to notice a book by an author of the tender age of six, but such is the number of years that have been counted by Myra Bradwell Helmer, who has written a tiny volume of 'Short Stories' (Chicago Legal News Co.). The stories are very pretty, and they will very likely appeal to youthful readers more deeply than many attempts made to amuse them by older writers. They were "talked" by the little girl, and written down by her mother just as they came from her lips. They are not wanting in moral and scientific instruction, as the following extracts will show:

"Ruby was a beauty—small blue eyes and yellow curls down to her waist. She was the piousest lady among the fairies. Ruby's sister was named Tulip. She was not so pretty as Ruby, because her hair was brown and her eyes were black, but still she was pretty. Tulip was next to her sister in goodness. Ruby was never seen to frown, nor Tulip either. When Ruby was dressed in her wedding clothes she looked very sweet. Her eyes were glowing with blueness and were shining brightly."

"When the fairy doctor came, he said one had got scarlet fever, the other diphtheria, and the other typhoid fever. He told the fairy godmother all about microbes and germs, and told her to boil the water. The fairy godmother said she did not understand: if the germ had the fever, why didn't the fever, which killed little boys and girls, kill the germ? And if the germ didn't have the fever, how could it give the fever; how could a thing give a thing it didn't have? The fairy doctor said: 'Nobody knows but God.'"

The price of this little book is twenty-five cents, and the proceeds are to go to the orphans and the sick babies. It is already in the third edition.

—Those who are familiar with Clarac's monumental 'Musée de Sculpture' will look with some amazement upon the announcement that a pocket edition of the work has just appeared. Such is, in fact as well as in name, the first volume of M. Salomon Reinach's 'Répertoire de la Statuaire grecque et romaine' (Paris: E. Leroux), to which he has given the sub-title "Clarac de poche," a book of about the bulk of Zola's 'Rome,' and sold at the modest price of five francs. It does not include the text, the attempt to compress which into reasonable proportions would have been alike impracticable and useless, as no one consults Clarac for the text nowadays. Instead of this, M. Reinach has given us two things that have been much more needed—one, a complete and well-arranged index, which the original lacks; the other, a brief but carefully considered list of the more important modern publications of the works illustrated, including photographs where they are to be had, and also such useful scraps of information as "disparu," "moderne," "le bas seul antique," etc., this list being compressed, by a system of abbreviation, into twenty pages. Of the plates, M. Reinach has omitted Nos. 1-110, as these are simply illustrations of the Louvre and its decorations, and also the last or iconographic section (pls. 1001–1136), for the reason that the small scale of the reduction would render this practically useless. The 890 plates which remain are the vital part of Clarac's work, and these are as useful now as ever—not for studying the modelling or the fine qualities of the sculptures, but for the comparison and identification of both types and single figures by such characteristics as the attitude, the arrangement of hair or drapery, and the like. In spite of the size of the

reductions, details are clearly defined; and both editor and publisher are to be thanked as well as congratulated for having thus preserved all that is most useful in Clarac's 'Musée' and placed it within reach of all students of ancient art. The second volume of this 'Répertoire,' which is promised at an early date, will be of exceptional interest, as it is to consist of outline drawings of six thousand Greek and Roman statues brought together by M. Reinach and edited by him, with a complete index. This volume will be uniform in style and price with the present one.

—The "Musée Social" of Paris, an institution founded by a wealthy French nobleman and directed by an independent committee of distinguished French scholars and men of affairs, "has for its purpose to put gratuitously at the disposal of the public information concerning all such organizations as have for their object and for their result the improvement of the material condition of the laboring classes." The character of its work has recently been brought to the notice of Americans by the mission of M. Paul de Rousiers and his colleagues, and recommended to their respect by the very substantial and instructive work of M. Paul de Rousiers himself on 'The Labor Question in Britain.' It may not be amiss to call the attention of American economists and politicians to the exceedingly interesting "circulars" which the Musée issues every month. These contain reports on a wide range of subjects, many of them, of course, suggested by current French legislation or industrial experience. But many are of general interest. Whenever there is a big Socialist or trades-union congress in Europe, the Musée sends an observer, who describes not only the formal discussions, but also the personalities and the environment, with a "detachment" and a liveliness which make his report very entertaining reading. The Musée Social cannot, perhaps, scatter these circulars broadcast outside France; but every considerable library ought to have a set of them, and the Musée is particularly glad to "exchange" them for other economic publications of every kind. The address of the Director is 5 Rue Las-Cases, Paris.

—A remarkable object-lesson in good government is given in Lord Cromer's report on the administration of Egypt for 1896. With admirable lucidity he deals with a great variety of topics, the most interesting being those directly relating to the condition of the fellah. This shows a continued material, intellectual, and moral improvement. By scientific methods of irrigation his land has been made more productive, and roads are being built and a system of light railways introduced by which he can transport his grain, sugar, and cotton easily and quickly to a market. Instead of the 200,000 men but recently called out annually for a hundred days of unpaid forced labor, but 25,000 are needed to watch the river-banks during the high water. The sanitary measures applied to the cities are being extended to towns and villages. Successful efforts have been made, through Government loans to small cultivators, to reduce the rate of interest charged them by the usurious village money-lender. The standard of the schools and colleges is continually being raised, and by the strict and impartial administration of justice not only is serious crime diminishing, but it "is year by year becoming more unpopular in Egypt." More striking still is the financial exhibit. In the first four years of the English occupation, 1882-1886, the annual deficit was nearly three and a half million dollars. In 1896 the surplus, after paying four and a quarter millions of debt, which at that rate will be wiped out in forty-four years, was a million and a half. The interest charge upon the debt, which the expenses of conversion and earlier deficits had increased by seventeen millions, has nevertheless diminished by two millions in fourteen years. In closing, Lord Cromer says that in the work of reform and good government he has had the hearty coöperation of the superior officials, whether European or Egyptian.

HOW TO FIGURE THE EXTINCTION OF A RACE.

Race Traits and Tendencies of the American Negro. By Frederick L. Hoffman, F. S. S. Published for the American Economic Association by The Macmillan Co., New York. 1896.

MR. HOFFMAN has prepared with great patience, energy, and zeal an elaborate brief in support of the proposition that the American negro, like the New Zealand Maori, is doomed to extinction. Much of his book, however, is of interest apart from any bearing it may have on the main argument. He has collected statistics relating to the moral, mental, physical, and material condition of the negro. If the accuracy of these figures shall stand the test of criticism and investigation, portions of the book will remain useful for purposes of reference. But if the negro in this country does not die out as Mr. Hoffman believes he will, the work as a whole will go its way along with the already almost forgotten articles which, a few years ago, demonstrated to the satisfaction of their authors that the negroes were increasing so rapidly that their ultimate and speedy preponderance in every Southern State was a melancholy certainty.

According to Mr. Hoffman, the abolition of slavery wrought the undoing of the American negro. In the chapter in which he sums up the conclusions to be drawn from his three hundred pages of statistical study, he says (pp. 311-312):

"Nothing is more clearly shown from this investigation than that the Southern black man at the time of emancipation was healthy in body and cheerful in mind. He neither suffered inordinately from disease nor from impaired bodily vigor. His industrial capacities as a laborer were not of a low order, nor was the condition of servitude such as to produce in him morbid conditions favorable to mental disease, suicide, or intemperance. What are the conditions thirty years after? The pages of this work give but one answer—an answer which is a most severe condemnation of modern attempts of superior races to lift inferior races to their own elevated position; an answer so full of meaning that it would seem criminal indifference on the part of a civilized people to ignore it. In the plain language of the facts brought together, the colored race is shown to be on the downward grade, tending towards a condition in which matters will be worse than they are now, when disease will be more destructive, vital resistance still lower, when the number of births will fall below the deaths, and gradual extinction of the race take place."

And in the last sentence of his book he declares (p. 329): "Unless a change takes place, a change that will strike at the fundamental errors that underlie the conduct of the higher races towards the lower, gradual extinction is only a question of time."

Mr. Hoffman of course does not deny that the negro in this country increased 13.5 per cent. during the decade ending in 1890. This rate of natural increase is fairly high. That of the American white was 14.6 per cent., while in Germany the rate was 12.2 per cent., in England 14 per cent., and in France less than 1.5 per cent. Nor does Mr. Hoffman look forward to an immediate decrease. He anticipates that by 1900 the colored inhabitants of the country will number nearly eight and a half millions, or a million more than in 1890. His argument in brief is, that the negroes are rushing into the cities in great numbers, that among urban negroes the death rate is greater than the birth rate, and that before long the losses thereby occasioned will overbalance any possible natural increase among those portions of the race which may still remain in the country districts.

The statistics upon which he relies to support his position he has been in large part compelled to collect himself from many and widely scattered sources. It follows that no one who has not made an independent examination as extensive and laborious as that of Mr. Hoffman himself can possibly tell whether many of the figures printed by the latter are typical or not, and whether he has given all the statistics he succeeded in gathering, as well those which bore against as those which supported the points he wished to make. It is consequently impossible to ignore the evidence, presented by many passages in the book itself, that the author, in spite of his assumption in his preface to the contrary, wrote with a strong bias against the negro. Space forbids us to do more in this connection than to refer the reader to his discussion of the negro as a taxpayer (pp. 300–309). He denounces the negro race for "shirking its duty towards the state," although the statistics he gives show that in Virginia, the State from whose returns he obtains his evidence that the negro is an "unscrupulous tax-dodger," the negro, who owns 3.1 per cent. (p. 298) of the property, actually pays 6.2 per cent. of the taxes (p. 300). That the white man, through the operation of a poll-tax or otherwise, contrives to make the negro pay in proportion to his means two dollars for his one, will convince most persons that, however much the negroes "are wanting in that sense of public morality which demands that a man shall pay the taxes which his income, property, or political privileges impose upon him," their unwillingness to yield up more than they do is not altogether unnatural.

The accuracy and fairness of some parts of Mr. Hoffman's work can be readily tested, and it is evident that more care could have profitably been exercised in its preparation. We do not refer to such obvious typographical slips as that (p. 19) where he is made to say that "Even in counties where the negroes outnumber the whites fifty to one, the principal offices of the county are in the hands of the latter." There are, of course, no such counties in the United States. What he wrote or intended to write must have been *fifteen* to one. Even then the remark was a loose one, for Issaquena County, Mississippi, is the only one in which the negroes constitute as much as fifteen-sixteenths of the population. Of more significance is the curiously misleading character of the tables on pages 20 and 21. Mr. Hoffman has deemed it of "sufficient importance to abstract from the census returns a table for the principal Southern States, showing the concentration of the colored population in certain counties which at the same time contain but a very small proportion of whites." This table gives the white and co-

lored population in 1890 of sixty-nine counties, and for each of them is figured out the number of negroes to every one thousand whites. These proportions vary from 1,676 to the 1,000 in Marshall County, Miss., to 14,183 to the 1,000 in Madison Parish, La. Upon what principle this table was compiled it is not possible to discover. Apparently the author intended to include those counties in which the negroes were at least approximately twice as numerous as the whites, yet he has omitted forty-five in each of which in 1890 the whites constituted less than a third of the population. Among those left out is Issaquena, Miss., in which the negro preponderance, as we have seen, is relatively heavier than it is in any other county in the United States. The omissions are most capriciously made; thus, in Alabama, eleven out of the twelve counties in which there are at least two negroes for every white man are given, and in South Carolina fifteen out of sixteen appear in the table. On the other hand, in Georgia thirteen out of twenty-four are omitted, and in Mississippi ten out of twenty-five. It is true that the imperfections in this table have no bearing one way or the other upon the author's argument. It is because they do not that we have felt it to be only fair to him to call attention to them, inasmuch as the lack of care displayed in the preparation of this table tends to exonerate him from a much graver criticism which, as we shall presently see, might otherwise be made upon the book.

The basis of his case is, that the negroes are crowding into the cities to die off. The negro population of the cities has, of course, increased greatly. So has the white population of the cities of all civilized countries. Mr. Hoffman asserts, however, that the movement to the cities upon the part of the negroes is abnormally great, and is one of the distinctive "traits and tendencies" of the race. While slavery existed, the negro population of even the Southern cities was relatively small. The negroes were mostly slaves, and, speaking generally, slave labor was profitable only when employed in agriculture or in domestic service. The slaves were therefore kept mostly upon the plantation. When freedom came, the desire upon the part of many of them to see something of the world was natural. The only way in which they could gratify this wish was to go to some city or town. The figures given by Mr. Hoffman show that they did so in great numbers. He gives the total and the negro population of sixteen Southern cities in 1860 and in 1890. In them the negroes constituted in 1860 18.85 per cent. of the population, and in 1890 29.08 per cent. Mr. Hoffman does not show when the greater part of this excessive movement of the negroes to these cities took place. It is very essential to the force of his argument that he should show it. If it is a thing of twenty-five or thirty years ago, and has since for the most part ceased, it is of very little importance. If it is still going on as rapidly as ever—much more, if it is increasing in speed and volume—a main part of the author's contention has been made good. He appreciates this fact, and he says (p. 12), "During the last decade this migratory tendency of the colored population has been more pronounced than ever, affecting not only the large cities, but also those of proportionally small colored population."

We shall consider the cities of "proportionally small colored population" presently. How was it in the sixteen cities he selected as sufficiently representative to make the comparison between 1860 and 1890 a fair one? By constructing for them tables for 1870 and 1880 similar to those given by Mr. Hoffman for 1860 and 1890, it will be found that the percentage of negroes to the entire population, which, as before stated, was 18.85 in 1860, had by 1870 risen to 27.74, an increase of 8.89. Between 1870 and 1880 another gain of .81 of 1 per cent. was made, while between 1880 and 1890 the percentage rose from 28.55 to 29.08, or but .53 of 1 per cent. In these cities, at least, "the migratory tendency of the colored population" "during the last decade" has *not* been "more pronounced than ever." Nearly seven-eighths of the entire increase in the proportion of negroes to whites in these cities, upon which increase Mr. Hoffman lays so much stress, took place prior to 1870, and barely more than one-twentieth of it between 1880 and 1890. In these places the movement had long ago spent its force and has now almost entirely stopped.

Has it, as Mr. Hoffman says, in the last decade been "more pronounced than ever in the cities of proportionally smaller colored population"? There were in 1880 thirty-five cities in the country each of which had upwards of five thousand colored inhabitants. All the cities used by the author to show the greater rate of increase of the colored than of the white urban population are included among these thirty-five except Birmingham, Ala., which in 1880 was not separately returned. We have followed Mr. Hoffman's example and included the population of Birmingham in 1890 in the figures below, because to include it makes the difference between what he says the census returns show, and what those returns in fact do show, less than it otherwise would be.

The white and colored population in 1880 and in 1890 of Birmingham and of all cities having in 1880 over five thousand colored population was:

	White.	Colored.
1890	7,048,939	746,764
1880	5,079,486	553,494
Increase	1,969,453	193,270
Increase per cent.	38.77	34.92

How, then, does Mr. Hoffman persuade himself or his readers that the negro population of the cities is increasing more rapidly than the white? Unfortunately, the story is a long one. It is necessary to tell it, however, if we are to understand with how much reservation some of the fundamental assertions of this book must be taken. In the first place, by confining his comparisons to the cities which in 1890 had at least ten thousand negro inhabitants, he includes those cities the number of whose negro inhabitants had grown rapidly during the decade, and excludes those which, while in 1880 in the same class, had since grown slowly or not at all. For example, in 1880 Chattanooga had 5,082 negro inhabitants and Alexandria 5,380. In 1890 Chattanooga had 12,563 and Alexandria 5,113. Chattanooga figures in his tables; Alexandria does not. Nine of the thirty-six cities whose population in 1880 and 1890 is included in the table above given by us are, as a result of the methods Mr. Hoffman has followed in making up his tables, excluded from them. In these nine cities the white population during the decade increased 27.74 per cent., and the negro 26.55.

There were in 1890 twenty-seven cities with more than ten thousand negro inhabitants each. Mr. Hoffman arbitrarily omits four of these, namely, Petersburg, Wilmington, N. C., Macon, and Montgomery. It so happens that the negro population of each of these cities is relatively very large. In the four taken together, both in 1880 and in 1890, the negroes were in a considerable majority. Each of them is surrounded by a "Black Belt" of rural counties. They are, therefore, the very places in which the racial tendency of the rural negroes to go to the cities should, if it exists at all, manifest itself. If the critics of his book were disposed to judge Mr. Hoffman as severely as he does the negro, the fact that such tendency did not manifest itself in those cities might be suggested as an explanation why he does not include them in his tables. In them the white population increased during the decade at the rate of 33.01 per cent., the negro at the rate of 23.42 per cent.

There are left twenty-three cities. In comparing them Mr. Hoffman makes the mistake of contrasting the entire population of the District of Columbia in 1890 with the population in 1880 of that portion of the District then included within the cities of Washington and Georgetown. The mistake is the more curious as, in the comparison he had made between 1860 and 1890, he had shown that he was aware of the fact that in 1890 the city of Washington had included the entire District of Columbia. It so happens, moreover, that this mistake worked in favor of the thesis he was endeavoring to sustain, as the percentage of negroes in the rural portion of the District was in 1880 considerably larger than was the case in the two cities. Using the figures he uses, without supplying any of his omissions or correcting his mistake as to the District of Columbia, the population in 1880 and in 1890 of the twenty-three cities included by him in his tables was, according to him, as follows:

	White.	Colored.
1890	6,352,204	627,953
1880	4,525,008	451,191
Increase	1,827,196	176,762
Percentage of increase	40.38	39.18

It appears, therefore, that as a result of the arbitrary selections and omissions, and of the mistake in comparing the population of the District of Columbia, the negro rate of urban increase seems to be nearly as great as that of the whites. Still, even then it is not quite so great. How does it happen that in Mr. Hoffman's pamphlet he claims to show from these very cities by the use of these very figures an apparently greater negro than white increase? This is the result of another curious accident. It so happens that Mr. Hoffman has preferred to consider the cities in two classes instead of one, and has treated separately all the cities with twenty thousand negro population in 1890 as constituting one class, while the other class is made up of all those cities with from ten to twenty thousand negro inhabitants in 1890 which he includes at all in his comparisons. He makes it appear, by so doing, that the negroes had increased faster than the whites in each class of cities. He assumes that this means that they increased faster in all the cities taken together. So will doubtless most of his readers. Ordinarily such would be a reasonable conclusion. It is, however, not a necessary one. To take an extreme case, let us assume two villages with a population in 1880 and 1890 divided between the races as follows:

	No. 1.		No. 2.	
	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.
1890	2,000	450	3,000	40
1880	1,000	200	1,000	10
Increase	1,000	250	2,000	30
Increase, per cent.	100	125	200	300

Combine these two villages and the result would be:

	White.	Colored.
1890	5,000	490
1880	2,000	210
Increase	3,000	280
Increase, per cent.	150	133⅓

In Mr. Hoffman's group of smaller cities the whites were in 1880 nearly nineteen times as numerous as the blacks, and in the larger cities less than nine times. Both races in the smaller cities increased more than twice as fast as in the larger, so that when Mr. Hoffman's two sets of cities are combined, it turns out that the whites really increased faster than the negroes in all his cities considered together.

We have followed Mr. Hoffman's method of comparing in 1880 and in 1890 only those cities in which the negro population was considerable. Obviously, however, even if the result of such comparison had shown, as it did not show, that the negroes in those cities had increased more rapidly than the whites, his case would not have been proved. The question is not whether in particular cities which, by the very fact of their having a large negro population, are shown to be those which for one reason or another are especially attractive to the negroes, the latter have increased more rapidly than the whites, but whether they have so increased in all the cities of the country considered as an aggregate. In Mr. Hoffman's selected cities the negroes increased, according to his figures, 39.18 per cent. The population of all the cities of the country having in 1890 twenty thousand inhabitants or upwards was in that year 48.86 per cent. greater than it was in 1880.

The negro dwellers in the cities are becoming more and more numerous; so are the white; to move from the country to the city is nowadays a human not a race tendency. Unfortunately, the mortality among urban negroes is very great. Their poverty, the prejudice against them, and the conditions under which they are as a consequence compelled to live, explain some of the difference between their death-rate and that of the whites. Mr. Hoffman to the contrary notwithstanding, we are persuaded that the average negro inhabitant of the city is compelled to live under conditions less favorable to healthful existence than does the average white resident of the same place. Yet, after all allowance is made on this score, it remains true that the negro death-rate is alarmingly high, and that it is so high is owing in a large measure to the low standard of morality still so general among the race. Unfortunately, there is as yet very little statistical evidence that the moral standard of the race is rising. Perhaps it is too soon to look for much improvement in this respect. Thirty years may seem long to individuals; they are but a moment in the history of a race. It may be that the American negro is doomed to extinction. Mr. Hoffman, however, has not convinced us that any such result is in the slightest degree probable. Predictions as to the future movements of population are of very little value even when those who make them are absolutely unbiassed, and have reached their conclusions after an impartial, careful, and complete study of all the available data.

Nathaniel Massie, a Pioneer of Ohio: A Sketch of his Life and Selections from his Correspondence. By David Meade Massie. Cincinnati: The Robert Clarke Co. 1896. Portrait and Map. 8vo, pp. 285.

A DOUBLE interest attaches to this sketch of one of the pioneer settlers of Ohio. As a man, Massie did not differ greatly from many others who passed from Virginia into the Western territory, led by interest and by a certain restlessness of character. In his case the interest was strong. He was a surveyor by profession, and found good profit in surveying and locating the grants made to the soldiers of the Revolution. He was himself an owner of land in the Ohio region, and, by purchasing at low rates the soldiers' rights, acquired so large a holding that he became embarrassed, and died deeply involved in his ventures. As a surveyor he stood high; as a pioneer settler he shared in the dangers of frontier life, and thought nothing of killing an Indian in open battle or in cold blood. His descendant dwells upon the brutal exploits of the whites against the Indian, and, under a veil of romance, seeks to excuse and justify the massacre of the weaker race attempting, according to its lights, to retain possession of the country which had so long belonged to it. In connection with his land schemes Massie founded the first town in the Virginia Military District, now known as Manchester, and engaged in frontier trade, exchanging salt for furs, and shipping salt, flour, and pork to New Orleans.

In addition to the personal interest, this collection of letters has political value. The editor seems to insist that it was as a politician that Massie's highest claim to be honored rested, and that the admission of Ohio as a State was at once a triumph of Democracy and a full vindication of the State party of which Massie was a leader. Triumph over what? There was no tyranny or oppression to triumph over, and a Territorial government under the Ordinance of 1787 bore heavily upon no interests or individuals, save upon land speculations. That ordinance provided mechanically for the development of a Territory into a State, and gave the highest possible protection against tyranny by keeping out the curse of slavery. If Massie, and those who were associated with him, are to be judged by their efforts to raise Ohio into full statehood, the reasons given for their action should be weighed, and their methods tested, by sincerity and disinterestedness. Unfortunately, the letters of Massie are few in number and fragmentary, and it is from the letters of his associate and leader, Worthington, that the motives of the State party may be learned. The journals of Worthington are still in existence, and may soon be printed. Until that record is available, Massie's statements must be accepted as the best account of the methods of his party.

In 1798, the Territory, then under the governorship of St. Clair, became entitled to a representative general assembly. A so-called legislature had existed, and not infrequently obliged the Governor to give a formal acquiescence to its acts, which he did unwillingly and under protest. These acts went so far beyond the proper sphere of the powers of this legislature that, on a reaction, most of its laws were repealed, leaving, however, the ill feeling excited by the somewhat querulous and monotonous complaints of St. Clair. The opposition to the Governor was strongest in the two counties of Ross and Adams, and from those counties came his ablest and bitterest assailants, Massie, Worthington, and Tiffin. Massie had already come into conflict with St. Clair in an attempt to remove the seat of the county court to his own town of Manchester, where he was the largest holder of land. The position of the Governor in this question was unassailable, and Massie's move had every appearance of a land speculation. Tiffin became the Speaker of the new House of Representatives, and Worthington was active as a member of the leading committees.

The desire for a wider field of action was already evident. The leaders, Massie and Worthington, went so far as to propose a petition to Congress praying that the representative of the Territory in that body might vote as well as debate—a privilege not permissible under the Ordinance, and which, if granted, would confer upon a nondescript Territory equal powers on national questions with the States. The Territorial Legislature sat from September to December, 1799, and no less than eleven of its acts were vetoed by the Governor. In something of a huff, Worthington expressed his dissatisfaction with the Government, and urged that the Territory be divided, as that would bring the Legislature to his settlement of Chillicothe.

St. Clair was not opposed to such a division, and indeed no opposition on his part could have prevailed to prevent Ohio from becoming a State in the proper time. But he had seen enough of Territorial politics to recognize that a few men held great influence, and were using that influence to further their own interests and ambitions. The proposed form of government might be democratic, but it would be an oligarchy in execution. The large landholders, disposing of land on credit, exercised an undue power over the votes of those indebted to them—an abuse against that freedom of elections intended by the Ordinance. With the memory of the Spanish intrigues in Kentucky present to his mind, St. Clair feared that there had not been developed among the settlers on the Ohio a sufficiently strong attachment to the Union. He further felt that the majority were Republicans, followers of Jeffersonian principles, to whom the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions would be very acceptable. Hence he thought the proposed division untimely and impolitic, as well as based upon private interest. Worthington went to Philadelphia, pursued by St. Clair's warnings against him as a "very designing" and not "entirely that candid man I once represented him." The Territory was divided, and at Chillicothe the Legislature met. At once began an agitation by other towns desirous of the honor, and especially the profit; an agitation promising little peace to the new province.

The opposition to the Governor was strengthened by the support of the notorious Symmes, who fancied that he had many grievances against St. Clair in connection with his land grant; and by a refusal of the Governor to accede to the formation of new counties by the Legislature. These elements commanded sufficient influence to delay, but not to defeat, the confirmation of St. Clair when again nominated to the executive. Worthington met with a defeat in the success of St. Clair, and in the removal to Cincinnati of the seat of government. But the comment of the Governor on the conduct of France was some compensation for this setback, and became a good weapon against him in the hands of those who saw in the election of Jefferson the full success of Republicanism. Petitions against St. Clair were circulated through the Territory, and again did Worthington go to Philadelphia to secure his removal under charges that now seem trivial, such as receiving small fees for marriage and ferry licenses. Certain acts of the Legislature, relating to the boundaries of the Territory and the laying out of counties, to which St. Clair had given his assent but had not originated, were subjects of complaint; but the greatest stress was laid upon the Federalism of the Governor, making him a fit subject to be burned in effigy. The

attack was so largely one of partisan politics that it is impossible to overlook the fact that Massie, Tiffin, and Worthington were deeply interested financially in their contest for statehood. In Worthington's case, personal reasons added to his dislike of the Governor, for he had been passed over in the militia appointments and had been brought to book for some land fees wrongfully assessed. To denounce the now aged St. Clair as a tyrant, and to plead Republican fervor, answered better than any serious charges of misgovernment that could have been found. Before success was assured, the parcelling out of offices began, and in the event the three leaders took the three highest offices—rewards of "disinterested partisanship."

In this early instance of a Territory passing to a State are to be found the same influences and conflicts of interests that have become familiar in more recent times. In a mining camp as well as in an agricultural settlement, sooner or later a few active and ambitious minds will see good reasons for becoming politically independent, so far as dependence upon a majority can confer that independence. The first suggestion and the basis of the agitation will be found more frequently in private interests than in public considerations, and the admission of the State into the Union is more or less tainted with jobbery of some description, private or political. In the case of Ohio the movement may have been justified by the results, but this does not free Massie and his associates from the charge of self-interest. Their denunciations of tyranny, Federalism, and monarchy were cloaks for land speculations, and the methods fell so little short of bribery and intimidation as readily to be confused with practices that nearly a century of electoral reform has not entirely suppressed.

The proof reading of this volume was carelessly done, and errors abound. The interest of the letters, however, makes up for many shortcomings.

Travels in West Africa: Congo Français, Corisco and Cameroons. By Mary H. Kingsley. With illustrations. Macmillan Co. 1897. Pp. xvi, 743. 8vo.

"To go puddling about obscure districts in West Africa after raw fetish and fresh water fishes" is Miss Kingsley's characteristic way of stating the object of her travels. Her success can scarcely be doubted. Of "puddling" she certainly had her fill in swamps, lagoons, rivers, and forests perpetually dank with rain and mist. She has added materially to our knowledge of the religious conceptions of the natives of the West Coast by numerous facts gathered at first hand from savages still little influenced by civilization. Her natural-history collections contained several species new to science, the insects alone furnishing eight new species, "for two of which it has been necessary to establish new genera." She was a keen and interested observer, however, of other things than fetish and fishes, and records her impressions of the West Coast and its inhabitants with extraordinary vigor and faithfulness. Her views upon slavery, polygamy, the gin-trade, the best methods of treating the negro by the trader, the planter, and the missionary, are stated decidedly and fearlessly, although they often run counter to the opinions of philanthropists and the supporters of missions. It is evident from Miss Kingsley's narrative that she had in no ordinary degree the qualities essential to the successful African traveller—endurance, courage, resource, sympathy for and tact in dealing with her black companions, and, above all, freedom from worry, and humor. With this last quality, invaluable in a land where disease lurks in every breath drawn by the white, her book fairly bubbles over from preface to appendix. Miss Kingsley's style is racy and unconventional, and she does not hesitate to use frequently the curious trade English of the West Coast, or to coin a word if neither language has one expressive enough for her. Altogether the book is unique, not only because it is more like the familiar conversation of a bright woman than a set narrative, but also because of the region described, the object of the travels, and the traveller herself.

Miss Kingsley does not give a continuous account of her journeying in this, her second, visit to the West Coast, but selects the most novel or interesting incidents. Among these was a trip to the island of Fernando Po, made for the purpose of studying the fetish of the Bubis, its native inhabitants. Another was the ascent of the great Peak of the Cameroons, remarkable as a feat of endurance, but disappointing from the fact that, when the summit was reached, it was "only, alas! to find a hurricane raging and a fog in full possession, and not a ten yards' view to be had in any direction." In no part of her book are Miss Kingsley's descriptive powers shown to greater advantage than in these chapters. Two months of the summer of 1895 were devoted to a journey up the Ogowé River in the Congo Français in search of fishes. Her farthest point was a French mission station some two hundred miles from the mouth, reached by steamboat and canoe. A most pathetic picture is drawn of the loneliness of the wives of these missionaries, one of whom spoke of the relief a certain sand-bank gave her. "'A relief?' I said. 'Yes, do you not see that until it shows there is nothing but forest, forest, forest, and that still stretch of river? That bank is the only piece of clear ground I see in the year, and that only lasts a few weeks until the wet season comes, and then it goes, and there is nothing but forest, forest, forest, for another year.'" The return journey to the coast included a land march through the unexplored region between the Ogowé and a river flowing into the Gaboon. Miss Kingsley's sole companions were natives, mostly Fans, the most dreaded of all West African tribes, but "full of fire, temper, intelligence, and go," and accordingly her favorites. A part of the way was through a forest so dense that "all day long we never saw the sky once." At times the beauty of this wood from the climbing plants is beyond adequate description. "They form great veils and curtains between and over the trees, often hanging so straight and flat, in stretches of twenty to forty feet or so wide, and thirty to sixty or seventy feet high, that it seems incredible that no human hand has trained or clipped them into their perfect forms. Sometimes these curtains are decorated with large bell-shaped, bright-colored flowers, sometimes with delicate sprays of white blossoms." Occasionally she encounters a troop of gorillas, "the most horrible wild animal I have seen." One of these was in a native plantation, and, when disturbed by an inopportune sneeze, "they squattered across the open ground in the most inelegant style, dragging their long arms with the knuckles downward." But when the forest was reached they swung themselves through it "from bough to bough, in a way that convinced me that, given the necessity of getting about in tropical forests, man has made a mistake in getting his arms shortened. I have seen many wild animals in their native wilds, but never have I seen anything to equal gorillas going through bush; it is a graceful, powerful, superbly perfect hand-trapeze performance." Elephants, also, more than once crossed our traveller's path, and she describes in her characteristic way their intense aversion to the smell of the civet-cat, which greatly affects a certain shrub. "I once saw an elephant put his trunk against one of these scented bushes, have it up in a second, and fly off into the forest with an Oh, lor! burn-some-brown-paper! pocket-handkerchief-please expression all over him." More dangerous still than these or the more numerous hippos and crocodiles were the natives. In the first village to which the little party came, "it was touch-and-go for twenty of the longest minutes I have ever lived" whether they would be welcomed or be killed and eaten.

Of the scientific value of Miss Kingsley's chapters on fetish we do not profess to be competent to judge, but their interest, even to the lay reader, is great. She brings out clearly the distinction between the different spirits, and shows how the fear of misfortunes lies at the foundation of all the African's religious belief. The origin of teeth-filing, so prevalent in tropical Africa, she says, is to distinguish man from the animals. "You often hear a native of tribes that go in for filing or knocking out teeth say contemptuously of those who do not follow the custom, 'Those men have teeth all same for one with dog.'" She suggests that the terror with which twins are regarded is due to the same cause. Her estimates of the negro, scattered through the volume, but given more in detail in the valuable appendix on trade and labor, are more favorable than those of most writers. "The African is far from being the brutal fiend he is often painted—a creature that loves cruelty and blood for their own sake." Nor is he a drunkard. "I have no hesitation in saying that in the whole of West Africa, in one week, there is not one-quarter the amount of drunkenness you can see any Saturday night you choose in a couple of hours in the Vauxhall Road." The great inferiority of the African to the European, she believes, lies in the lack of the "mechanical idea," and she criticises severely the kind of instruction employed generally by missionaries. It tends, she says, "to develop his emotionalism, his sloth, and his vanity, and it has no tendency to develop those parts of his character which are in a rudimentary state and much want it; thereby throwing the whole character of the man out of gear." In other words, before he is taught to read and write, he should be taught how to work. Even with such instruction she has little expectation that the negro race will advance much beyond its present culture-level, certainly not in the line of European culture. Climate and "swampy country" are against it.

Some valuable hints are given to travellers in respect to the preservation of their health and to the treatment of fever, of which 85 per cent. of the West Coasters die or return home with their health permanently wrecked; and there are descriptive lists of the author's collection of reptiles and fishes, by Dr. A. Günther, and of the insects by W. F. Kirby, of the British Museum. The book is well illustrated, but, strange to say, has no map.

Lectures on French Literature, delivered in Melbourne. By Irma Dreyfus. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

THE author of this work forestalls a very

obvious remark on it by the prefatory admission that it does not pretend to be anything but a "conscientious compilation"; and more than this, for aught that we know, may not have been expected by a Melbourne audience. To follow great critics instead of attempting independent judgments is undoubtedly a safe method, and simplifies the toil of preparation; but, as Coleridge says, "Opinions formed from opinions—what are they but clouds sailing under clouds, which impress shadows upon shadows?" The names of Nisard, Villemain, Sainte-Beuve, Hallam, etc., appear again and again, with long quotations, very little attempt having been made to blend their views with the writer's otherwise unassisted conclusions; so that some parts of these lectures are mere pickings put together with moderate skill. With the exception of Taine, no later authority than those mentioned seems to have been laid under serious contribution.

Apart from these extracts, the book contains summaries of most of the important productions of French literature from the 'Chanson de Roland' to Molière, with commentary of the sort suitable for popular lecturing—neither broad nor deep, but in the main sympathetic, and indicative of an intention to confirm such literary opinions as possess an undisputed prescriptive title to respectability. But as the author draws attention to the soundness of her classifications, it may be asked why Commines is torn from his natural associates (Joinville, Froissart, etc., in Lecture III.) and thrust at the head of the next division, which treats of Charles d'Orléans, Villon, Budé, and Erasmus; or why, again, 'La Satire Ménippée' incongruously introduces a lecture (X.) chiefly devoted to women—Louise Labé, Mme. de la Fayette, etc.

Not many serious errors occur in the book, and yet even a Melbourne audience might justly resent being told that the 'Vision' and the 'Crede' of Piers Plowman are from the same hand (p. 20). Nor should one omit mention of the fact that in quoting Charles d'Orléans's "Le Temps a laissié son manteau," and the "Ballade des Dames du temps jadis" of Villon, the unwarrantable repetition of a verse spoils the rondeau character of the former, while the ballad appears in the text shorn of its *envoi*. If hearers require these familiar quotations, it would surely have been advisable to inform them that the epigrams in "Marotic style" of Rousseau (p. 88) are by Jean-Baptiste, not by Jean-Jacques; also, that "M. Suard, Perpetual Secretary of the French Academy," to whom indebtedness is acknowledged (p. 363) much as though he were a contemporary, joined the immortals of another sphere than ours in 1817.

The translator's part has been done with unusually scrupulous fidelity to the original, for in many passages it shows no attempt at substituting an English construction for a French one. Occasionally a bit of slang is thrown in, just to give an off-hand look to the English version; but our charity will not go the length of recognizing in "up to the nines" a tasteful rendering of Mme. de Sévigné's pretty phrase, "à coiffer tout le monde" (p. 364).

Domestic Service. By Lucy Maynard Salmon. New York: The Macmillan Co. 1897.

THE subject treated in this book is of as perennial interest as that of poverty; interest that varies from the languid curiosity of fortunate housekeepers to the active and poignant emotions of those who know not how their daily bread is to be provided, or who submit to see their substance diminished by dirt, waste, and confusion, for fear that even worse things may befall them. Let none of them suppose, however, that any relief is provided by this dissertation. Miss Salmon does not claim that "all or even any one of the perplexing questions connected with domestic service will be even partially answered by it." Her modest hope is only that the facts which she has gathered will afford a broader basis for general discussion than has been possible without them, and that by studying them some housekeepers may be enabled to decide more easily some economic questions.

For the purpose of securing a statistical basis for her essay, Miss Salmon resorted to the expedient of sending out circulars to employers and servants, asking for their opinions and experiences in various directions. About 1,000 employers and 700 servants responded (5,000 sets of blanks having been sent out), furnishing, it is hardly necessary to say, an ample variety of materials for comparative examination. We do not observe, however, that the general results arrived at from tabulating these returns differ at all from those which most employers have reached through conversations with their acquaintances. Indeed, it is far from improbable that many a woman has made the "servant problem" a subject of conversation a thousand times, and thus carries with her a wealth of wisdom as great as that attainable through the use of these statistics. They have some of the interest of gossip; but we cannot assign them that of science.

Some other figures obtained by Miss Salmon merit a little attention. According to the census of 1890, domestic servants constitute but 2.32 per cent. of the total population, and only about 4 per cent. of the population of the fifty largest cities. Nine-tenths certainly, possibly nineteen-twentieths, of the families of the country, therefore, enjoy exemption from trials with servants, although presumptively the exemption is for the most part involuntary. On the other hand, Miss Salmon calls attention to the increasing use by mistresses of devices for freeing themselves from slavery to their servants, by getting much of the traditionally domestic work done outside of the house. The hebdomadal nuisance of washing is to a considerable extent abated by the institution of laundries; and the invention of the tin can and the glass jar has opened indefinite possibilities for the supply of food either already cooked or needing little preparation for the table. Perhaps in these directions the most hopeful solutions of the trials of housekeepers are to be sought.

Miss Salmon makes some comparisons between the lot of the domestic servant and that of the teacher which are open to considerable exception. She computes that the average servant is able to earn in money about $168 a year, out of which nearly $150 can be saved. This leaves but $18 a year for clothing and other personal expenses—a sum hardly sufficient in many cases for church fees. She reasons that because the board and shelter of a servant by her employer is worth $250 a year, that sum should be taken as what the servant would have to pay if otherwise employed—a conclusion refuted by the ordinary rate of wages earned in shops and factories. The great majority of the female employees in such establishments live at home, where their share of the family expenses is a comparatively light charge. Computing the average salary of female teachers in the public schools at $545, Miss Salmon assumes that their expenses for board, washing, and lodging amount to $285 a year. But as a large proportion of these teachers live with their families, this estimate should be materially reduced. Nor should we overlook the facts that the school hours are not more than five or six a day, instead of from morning to bedtime in the case of servants, that the employment is for five days in the week instead of seven, and that the vacations and holidays occupy three months, more or less, out of the twelve.

Not the least interesting part of this book is the chapter on domestic service during the colonial period. We are apt to forget that bondage in one form and another prevailed everywhere in this country down to the beginning of this century, and even later. "During the colonial period, service of every kind was performed by transported convicts, indented white servants or 'redemptioners,' 'free-willers,' negroes, and Indians." There were bondmen even on the *Mayflower*, whose names do not appear among the signatures to the celebrated compact. While in many cases the term of service was not for life, in most other respects the condition of servants was practically that of slavery. The indentured white servants, or redemptioners, who sold themselves into service to pay for their passage, constituted a very large class. It is said that they outnumbered negro slaves in Virginia and Maryland until the latter part of the seventeenth century. Samuel Breck mentions in his 'Recollections' that in 1817, in Pennsylvania, he went on board a ship from Amsterdam and bought three Swiss servants; and numberless instances of similar purchases could be cited from early records and memoirs.

In New England it was not surprising that the colonists were induced to enslave the Indians. Emanuel Downing wrote to John Winthrop in 1645 expressing his doubt whether "yt be not synne in vs" to suffer the Indians to maintain the worship of the devil, when they might be exchanged for Moorish slaves, "if vpon a Just warre the Lord should deliver them into our hands." The true motive appears in his complaint that it was impossible to thrive without a stock of slaves, for the white servants insisted on freedom to plant for themselves. But the Indians, although extensively used, were not ideal servants, and Miss Salmon aptly quotes Lowell's comment:

> "Let any housewife of our day, who does not find the Keltic element in domestic life so refreshing as to Mr. Arnold in literature, imagine a household with one wild Pequot woman, communicated with by signs, for its maid of all work, and take courage. Those were serious times indeed, when your cook might give warning by taking your scalp, or *chignon*, as the case might be, and making off with it into the woods."

Upon the whole, when we review the prodigious improvement in the condition of the serving class that has taken place within the space of a few generations, we may well feel that the problem of domestic service, from the point of view either of mistress or of servant, has lost most of its terrors, and may be left to work itself out under the influence of mutual forbearance and good will.

The Unconscious Humorist, and Other Essays. By E. H. Lacon Watson. New York: George H. Richmond & Co., 1896.

MR. WATSON'S volume is a collection of desultory essays, fifteen in number, on life in general. This is the second time of publica-

tion, for they have already appeared once in reviews. The author likes this form of writing, he says, because, in a volume of essays, "there is no continuity of thought, no definite plan." This, if true, would not commend essays to readers, however attractive the form might be to writers. But it is not true, and the author does not mean it. What he really means is, that he should like to write essays in a vein of pleasantry, but the mistake he makes lies in thinking that this is his forte. He begins with specimens of this style, promising us some "delicate, yet not worthless, trifling," but unfortunately he is not a master of the art. He accordingly often leaves us in doubt as to which of his remarks are serious, and which gay. He declares that Johnson was "not a great or deep thinker," that to judge soundly is a "natural instinct," and he notes the fact that a person at whose serious efforts we laugh rarely succeeds when he attempts to be entertaining. In "L'Allegro" he suggests that consistency, constancy, and conviction are out of fashion, and that no one who "aims at greatness" will pay much attention to them; in "Il Penseroso" he repudiates the theory that sadness necessarily argues indigestion, and he becomes almost serious on the subject of war. At p. 83 he observes that people are apt to plume themselves on the possession of just those qualities in which they are ludicrously deficient, leaving it for them to point out that he may be himself at times a case in point. In "Bicycle Tours—and a Moral" he demonstrates an Epicurean thesis—that what makes a happy life is the sum of its happy hours, and not the attainment, after years of suffering, of the goal of a youthful ambition, for this may, when attained, prove wholly unsatisfactory. In the "Waters of Castaly" he writes a consecutive essay in which he ceases to be an essayist, and merely expresses his ideas in a simple and direct way. In our opinion he would do better to forswear humor altogether.

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Aubrey, Frank The Devil-Tree of El Dorado. New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.50.
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Bremner, C. S. Education of Girls and Women in Great Britain. London: Sonnensche n.
Browne, Irving. The House of the Heart. Buffalo: Peter Paul book Co.
Burdett, H. C. Burdett's Official Intelligence for 1897. London: Spottiswoode & Co.
Christian Worship. Ten Lectures Delivered in Union Theological Seminary. Scribners. $1 50.
Clark, F. T. The Mistress of the Ranch. Harpers. $1.25.
Corelli, Marie Ziska. Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Craufurd, Rev. A. H. Christian Instincts and Modern Doubt. Whittaker. $1 50.
Ebert, Prof. H. Magnetic Fields of Force. Part I. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Eldridge, P. P., and Watts, W. B. Our Rival the Rascal. Boston: Pemberton Publishing Co.
Fea, Allan. The Flight of the King: Being a Full, True, and Particular Account of the Miraculous Escape of Charles II. John Lane. $7.50.
Foley, P. K. American Authors, 1795-1895. Boston: Printed for Subscribers.
Fontaine, Arthur. Les Grèves et la Conciliation. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Frederic, Harold. Seth's Brother's Wife. In the Sixties. In the Valley. The Lawton Girl. Scribners. Each $1.50.
Gill, W. A. Edward Cracoft Lefroy: His Life and Poems. John Lane. $1.50.
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Humphreys, A. L. The Private Library. London: Strangewavs & Sons.
Hurst, Julius H. Stephen Lescombe, Bachelor of Arts. Putnams. $1.50.
Jókai, Maurus Eyes Like the Sea. Putnams. 50c.
Kelsey, Prof. F. W. Cæsar's Gallic War. 8th ed. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. $1.25
Larrabee, F. D Functions of Government. Minneapolis: Kimball & Storer.
Lathrop, Rose H. Memories of Hawthorne. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Maitland, Prof. F. W Domesday Book and Beyond: Three Essays in the Early History of England. Cambridge: University Press; Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $4.50.
Million, J. W. State Aid to Railways in Missouri. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
Miller, Olive Thorne. Upon the Tree-Tops. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Müller, Prof. F Max. Contributions to the Science of Mythology. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $8.
Ogle, W. Aristotle on Youth and Old Age, Life and Death, and Respiration. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
O'Neill, John. The Night of the Gods· An Inquiry into Cosmic and Cosmogonic Mythology and Symbolism. Vol II. London: David Nutt.
Price, Sadie F. The Fern-Collector's Handbook and Herbarium. Henry Holt & Co. $2 25
Ramsay, Prof. W. M. The Cities and Bishoprics of Phrygia. Vol. I. Part II. West and West-Central Phrygia. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Rideal, Samuel. Water and its Purification. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Scott, Prof. W B. An Introduction to Geology. Macmillan. $1.90.
Setchell, Prof. W. A. Laboratory Practice for Beginners in Botany. Macmillan. 90c.
Stapfer, Prof. Edmond Jesus Christ during His Ministry. Scribners. $1.25.
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A handsome PHOTOGRAVURE FRONTISPIECE picture of EDGEWOOD, Donald G. Mitchell's home at New Haven; also an appreciative article by WILLIAM WINTER on MITCHELL AND HIS WRITINGS, together with an engraved Portrait.

ARSÈNE ALEXANDRE writes entertainingly of CARAN D'ACHE, and a Portrait and several examples of the clever French artist's work accompany his text.

SOME HOBGOBLINS IN LITERATURE, by REBECCA HARDING DAVIS, and HOMER AS AN ANTISEPTIC, by HAMILTON W. MABIE; two attractive essays.

Mr. EDWARD S. MARTIN writes about the NEW SPRING BOOKS, and all the usual departments are included—THE READING CLUB, conducted by Miss LOUISE STOCKTON; THE NEWS IN ENGLAND, by J. M. BULLOCH; NOTES OF RARE BOOKS, by E. D. NORTH; THE LITERARY QUERIST, edited by ROSSITER JOHNSON; and The Rambler's timely comment.

NEW BOOKS are reviewed by PAUL LEICESTER FORD, BLISS PERRY, F. C. MORTIMER, LAURENCE HUTTON, PHILIP G. HUBERT, JR., ELISABETH L. CARY, RICHARD BURTON, GEORGE MERRIAM HYDE, and OTHERS.

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NEW YORK

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 8, 1897.

The Week.

CONGRESSMAN HEATWOLE of Minnesota has introduced a resolution to provide for a currency and banking commission to be composed of four citizens eminent in trade, political economy, and banking, to be appointed by the President, two Senators to be appointed by the Vice-President, two Representatives to be appointed by the Speaker, and the Comptroller of the Currency. Of the nine members, five will be in official and four in private life. This is substantially the plan proposed by the Indianapolis Conference, and is in accord with one of the suggestions of the President's inaugural address. Much will depend upon the view taken by Speaker Reed as to the expediency of such a commission, but it is not likely that he will oppose any bona-fide attempt to bring new light upon the currency question, which is all that Mr. Heatwole's resolution proposes. Whether Congress shall follow the advice of such a commission will be an after-consideration. One thing is certain, that a do-nothing policy rushes the country upon another Presidential campaign like the last one, with the results even more doubtful; and as we approach it the business of the country will be thrown into shadow as by an approaching eclipse. Every man who has a dollar to lose feels the chill even now, and is turning over in his mind plans and methods for meeting the possible catastrophe.

The resolutions adopted by the New York Chamber of Commerce on Thursday against the tariff bill derive great significance from the fact that a majority of the members are Republicans and protectionists, and that the body as a whole is extremely conservative. We believe that this is the first time in the history of the Chamber that it has ever spoken against any pending tariff measure. When a body of this character declares that the Dingley bill is "excessive, and likely to invite reaction harmful to business and to the best interests of the country, and that it should be carefully revised in the direction of a reduction of the rates of duty proposed, to the end that a system of tariff taxation may be adopted that shall be reasonably permanent, and that shall insure to the business interests of the country a certain measure of immunity from early change," it may be affirmed that the business community is profoundly stirred. The point most strongly insisted upon by the report which accompanies the resolution, is that such a tariff as this cannot be considered permanent, and that it will only be provocative of an early reaction, "rendering all business calculations and enterprise uncertain and hazardous." Strange to say, this view of the new and excessive duties on wool has begun to impress the wool-growers on the Pacific Coast. The Portland *Oregonian* of March 24 has two columns of interviews with wool-growers and dealers in its own State deprecating such excessive duties, and declaring that in their opinion no such tariff can remain long on the statute-book. They say that they would rather have a duty of 8 cents on clothing-wool with the prospect of permanence than 11 cents with the prospect of an early reduction or repeal.

The retroactive clause of the tariff bill, as passed, provides machinery for identifying and tracing and impressing a lien on goods passing through the custom-house before the passage of the bill, in the form of Treasury regulations authorizing the custom-house authorities to keep "samples" of goods imported. There is no power to issue such regulations now, and will not be until the bill passes. When the bill passes, the goods will be gone, and samples of them, therefore, cannot be retained. However, the plan is, to have Treasury regulations issued to collectors under the general power given by the revised statutes, directing them to take measures to identify all invoices, so that a second duty may be imposed as soon as the bill passes. It is also suggested that under these regulations "samples" of goods may be retained. The objection, of course, to retaining samples is merely that it is illegal. No doubt importers are now consulting their lawyers as to whether retaining some of their property as it passes through the custom-house, on the plea that the revised statutes give the Secretary of the Treasury power to make "regulations," would be a felony on the part of the Collector or his deputy, or would be simply a gross trespass, for which a jury might give heavy damages. No doubt Mr. Kilbreth, the Collector of this port, who is a lawyer, is making inquiries about the matter also. The hint is kindly thrown out that in the case of certain articles, such as furniture, the Collector will not be compelled to keep a chair or bureau, but may take other means to comply with the regulation. We trust the importers may fight for their rights. If they do not begin soon, they will have none left before long. The unscrupulous politicians who are engineering the retroactive scare, care nothing what becomes of trade and commerce or revenue; what they want to do is to prevent people importing until they give the word; and the fact that thus far they have succeeded only in stimulating withdrawals from bond, and that the Wilson act has thus wiped out the deficit for March, has made them crazy with the rage of baffled ignorance and spite.

The question of the constitutionality of a retroactive tariff has never been before the Supreme Court, and no human being can be certain whether the present contrivance would be upheld or not, though a decision sustaining it would certainly be a surprise. Any one can foresee, however, that such an act would meet with many difficulties in the way of enforcement. After goods are once through the custom-house, and sold by the importer, the possession of a sample will not enable the custom-house to know where they are, nor to find them. A detective armed with a sample of Piper Heidsieck, or any one of the hundred common brands of champagne or other wine, or with a piece of red calico, travelling over the country to find the rest of the importation and impress the "lien" on it, would have his hands full. This fact shows that the real object of the amendment is not so much to get more duties as to depress the ardor of the importer.

Mr. Dingley's sullen retreat before the colleges and libraries, in the matter of the tax on books and apparatus for their use, has given the false impression that he had made his surrender complete. The *Independent*, for example, congratulates him on having given way all along the line and restored free books in foreign languages and free art. He has done nothing of the kind. He still maintains that we "publish an abundance" of books in foreign languages, and taxes all that come in to the tune of 25 per cent. In this respect he hits students and readers harder than did the McKinley bill. As for free paintings and statuary, those were concessions to the corrupt and vulgar rich, which a moral and paternal tariff could not think of continuing. So, at least, the thing is explained by that high authority on art, the Philadelphia *Textile Record*. That elegant connoisseur declares that a tax on art is necessary in order to protect, not American artists, but "the hordes of rich and ignorant Americans who travel in Europe." The more Mr. Dingley's concession of free books and apparatus for the use of colleges is examined, the more it seems either an intended bit of trickery or a provision so carelessly drawn as to prove practically nugatory. The amendment exempts from duty "scientific apparatus, instruments, books, charts, and chemicals, *such as are not published or made in the United States*." This leaves the door wide open to illiberal construction, and customs officials always interpret the law as illiberally as possible.

A library might think to get in duty free the great Oxford Dictionary, as it is issued, or the newest edition of Meyer; but dictionaries and encyclopædias are made in the United States, hence on goes the duty. A really skilful Collector could no doubt shut out a first-folio Shakspere, on the ground that Shakspere is "published" in this country. Not to multiply instances, colleges and libraries will do well to be alert, therefore, to make sure that they are not being deluded in this matter. Two lines of policy are open. The Senate may be asked to make the bill more tolerable, or else invited to load it up with more offences and outrages so that it will either break down of its own weight of abuses, in the very act of passage, or excite such a powerful and speedy reaction that the whole thing will be swept away by an indignant people.

It appears that the wool-growers are not satisfied with the Dingley bill after all. They have got rates of duty on wool which the manufacturers consider ruinous, and which they intend to fight in the Senate, but, lo and behold, their spokesman, Judge Lawrence, declares that these rates are not high enough, and calls a meeting of his crowd at the Ebbitt House, in Washington, to be held on the 13th of April, to present to the Senate committee the request of the wool-growers "for the promised most ample protection for wool." The reason why the Dingley rates are not satisfactory is set forth at length by Judge Lawrence in the last number of the *Wool and Cotton Reporter*. He says that the ad-valorem rate on carpet-wool in the McKinley tariff (32 per cent.) was too low, and that the price of foreign wool has declined since that time, and hence that the duty ought to be higher and ought to be specific instead of ad-valorem. Moreover, some of this carpet-wool is used for making coarse clothing. Fashion has changed so that shaggy garments are liked by all classes, and not by the poor merely. There is no knowing how far this preference may extend. Thirty-two per cent. is fatal and inadmissible. The duty ought to be eight cents per pound specific, he says. Moreover, the duty on clothing-wool is too low, according to the same authority, and the "skirting clause" is all wrong. It admits the light shrinking part of the fleece without additional duty, and it deprives our own wool-sorters of employment. "Why," he exclaims, "shall the wishes of a million wool-growers be disregarded in favor of a few manufacturers?" In conclusion, he says that "a tariff which does not protect is no better than free wool."

Notwithstanding all that Judge Lawrence affirms as to the inadequacy of the Dingley bill, it seems as if the Senate finance committee would give even less than that measure provides. The Washington correspondence of the *Wool and Cotton Reporter* says that three members of the sub-committee of the Senate finance committee are opposed to the high rates of the Dingley bill. Those members are Senators Aldrich, Allison, and Platt of Connecticut. Aldrich and Platt represent woollen-manufacturing States. Although some wool is grown in Iowa, Senator Allison is opposed to high duties on wool and on other things as well. He is a low-tariff Republican. He does not court new experiments like that of 1890. He and his colleagues think that the duties on clothing-wool should not be higher than six cents per pound. Imagine the consternation of Lawrence when he hears this. But that is not all. According to the same authority, "there are members of the House committee who are ready to accept a reduction by the Senate as quickly as it is made, and who could not be counted upon to make any serious stand for the House rates when they went into conference. Of course the suggestion of six cents a pound is a minimum rate, designed as a basis for compromise. The manufacturers interested in this movement hardly expect to obtain so low a rate as this on clothing-wools, but they are bent upon forcing the rate down to eight cents per pound, and they believe they will succeed." It is evident that we have not heard all the music that the wool tariff is capable of furnishing even yet.

The March Treasury statement discloses a surplus of about $9,000,000. Customs receipts for the month have been surpassed only twice in our history. Just see what comes of having an advance agent of prosperity take hold of the government. The Wilson bill no longer means debt and deficit in his hands. Of course, this is no tribute to the wretched Wilson. Anybody can make a tariff; it takes a master to turn a ruin-breeding law into a fruitful source of revenue by simply threatening to repeal it. But it is not revenue that Mr. McKinley really desires, else he would leave the Wilson bill alone. He himself has laid down the correct principle in the following words: "Lower duties stimulate importations, encourage foreign purchases, and thus swell the revenue from customs sources." ('Speeches and Addresses of William McKinley,' p. 231.) That was why the high duties of the McKinley bill were specifically declared to be for the purpose of reducing the revenue. Now comes Mr. Dingley with higher duties for the avowed purpose of increasing the revenue. What a pity that he did not consult the President—or at least read his masterly orations on the tariff—and thus learn that the thing was impossible. Perhaps Mr. McKinley will send a message to the Senate advising them of Mr. Dingley's confusion on this point, and reaffirming his own view that the way to increase the revenue is to lower duties.

There is no mistaking the meaning of the elections which were held in many Western cities on Monday. In all of them the same tide of reaction from the Republican vote of last fall is perceptible that was discernible in the town elections of New York and in the more recent ones in Connecticut. For some reason or other, the people are dissatisfied with the party which they put in power a few months ago and are turning against it. The most striking evidence of dissatisfaction comes from Ohio, the State of President McKinley and the supposed stronghold of the new tariff bill. The tide here against the Republicans is so strong that the Democrats have carried nearly all the cities of the State, including the President's home, Canton. They have carried Cincinnati by 7,000 plurality, though the city gave McKinley a plurality of 20,000. They have carried Columbus by a small plurality, though the city gave McKinley a plurality of over 3,000. They very nearly carried Cleveland, though the city gave McKinley a plurality of 3,500, and though their candidate was a very weak and unfit man, who was running against a candidate for reëlection who had given fair satisfaction. They have carried Springfield, Dayton, and Zanesville, and cut down the Republican vote in all other localities. There seems to be no exception to the general rule of large Democratic gains.

The municipal election in Detroit resulted in the first check ever experienced by Pingree since he entered upon his remarkable political career several years ago. As mayor of the city, term after term, he became its practical dictator, and he was almost justified in saying that he was the municipal government, so generally and so completely did he have his way. Last year he resolved to extend his power throughout the State. He captured the Republican nomination for the governorship, against the bitter opposition of most of the party managers, and was elected by a plurality nearly 24,000 larger than McKinley's because he did not conceal his sympathy with free coinage, and so drew the votes of many Bryanites. His next step was to announce that he proposed to hold on to the mayoralty while discharging the duties of the governorship, and he actually succeeded in filling this double rôle for a number of weeks before the courts could effectively interfere. When finally forced to choose between the governorship and the mayoralty, he decided to keep the State office and name as his successor in Detroit a man who would be his mere tool. But this was straining his power to the breaking-point, and his candidate failed of elec-

tion by a few votes, although Pingree carried the city by nearly 10,000 majority last November.

Next to the tariff, the pooling bill just introduced in the Senate is the most important measure before Congress. The lawyers concerned in the railroad-rate question petitioned the Supreme Court to advance the Joint Traffic case, in order that it might be decided as soon as possible. But even a decision in their favor would have no effect on the great mass of Western traffic agreements which collapsed with the Trans-Missouri decision. Nor is it likely that the five Judges of the court who have practically declared Congress to be omnipotent over the whole subject will make any material modification of their views. It is the omnipotent right of Congress to "regulate commerce" by making any contracts it pleases crimes, which is at the root of the whole trouble, and nothing but legislation permitting traffic agreements will make it possible to secure any stability in the business of transportation, which means, of course, stability in the prices of all articles transported. The bill, in substance, permits traffic agreements such as those just declared illegal, under the supervision of the Interstate Commerce Commission, from which there is to be an appeal to the courts on the question of the reasonableness of rates. If this bill could pass, it would do all that can be now done to settle a matter which has hung like a pall over the business of the country for twenty-five years, and which the anti-Trust decision makes more serious than ever.

Since the decision in the Trans-Missouri traffic case, attorneys of the roads affected have formulated a new agreement, which, however, does not seem yet to have been adopted. It is significant as indicating the opinion of the best railroad lawyers in the country as to the extent of the powers over their rates left in the railroads by the decision. The agreement defines a certain rate territory; provides for a rate bureau and the election by the presidents of the roads of a board of commissioners of five members; the compilation, distribution, and interchange of the tariffs, and general freight statistics of the various roads; and for divisions of joint through rates (*i. e.*, the division of the money received by several roads for one service). The following clause explains itself: "Nothing herein shall be so construed as to establish or otherwise affect rates on freight traffic, and it shall be the duty of the Board of Commissioners so to exercise the power conferred upon it as to discourage, and so far as possible prevent, a violation of the interstate laws, or any other federal or State law, or the provisions of the charters of any of the parties hereto." This agreement shows that the advisers of the roads construe the decision as taking away from them all power to make agreements with one another to maintain rates, however reasonable, or to keep them stable. The agreement is one simply to communicate information to each other.

The arbitration treaty, as originally drawn, provided that "all questions in difference" which the two countries might fail to adjust by negotiation, should be submitted to arbitration. The Hoar amendment, adopted last week by a vote of 54 to 13, provides that "any difference which, in the judgment of either party, materially affects its honor or its domestic or foreign policy, shall not be referred to arbitration under this treaty except by special agreement, nor shall any question as to the continuance in force of any treaty which has previously been made. It is further explicitly specified and agreed that all agreements entered into by the contracting parties under this treaty shall be signed by the President of the United States and receive the approval of the Senate by a two-thirds vote before it becomes binding upon Great Britain or the United States." The first branch of this is meant to save the Monroe Doctrine; the second to except the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and the third reserves the right of the Senate to dissent from any agreement for submission to arbitration that may be made by the executive.

Whether England will agree to the treaty with such amendments cannot now be known. The first provision is not of great importance. The Monroe Doctrine can never be submitted to arbitration, because it means whatever our Government decides that it does mean, and it is never stated in the same form by any two of its supporters. A proposition the exact nature of which cannot be formulated by its advocates, cannot be submitted to a court. "Honor" and "domestic or foreign policy," too, mean whatever we think they mean, and Lord Salisbury wanted some such clause inserted originally. The last clause is a notice that the Senate means to have a finger in the pie, and will not allow Lord Salisbury and Mr. McKinley to refer any matter without its permission. The exception of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is more serious, for this presents a subject eminently fitted for arbitration. It is a matter in actual difference between the two countries, and has been the subject of a long correspondence. Moreover, it presents a question more like one of ordinary law than most international questions—whether one party may withdraw from an agreement essentially reasonable and beneficial to both, for reasons affecting, or supposed to affect, itself. The whole object of the treaty is to arbitrate just such questions, and, therefore, to begin by saying that, not only will we not arbitrate anything that may strike us unfavorably at the time, but we will incorporate in the treaty itself a refusal to arbitrate the question which just now seems to be best fitted for arbitration, is, to say the least, to hazard the treaty.

The civil-service reformer whom Mr. McKinley put at the head of the Treasury Department is living up to his principles. The appointments of assistant secretaries sent to the Senate by the President last week were the selections of Mr. Gage, and they are precisely the sort of appointments needed for these responsible positions—those of men who have had long experience in the service of the Government, and have displayed their fitness for the work now set before them. Mr. Spaulding, after preliminary training, held under Harrison the same office that is now again given him, while Mr. Howell has made his way up by his own merit from the humble place of messenger in the department. We think this is the first time that an assistant-secretaryship of the Treasury has been given as a promotion to a man who entered at the bottom, but such appointments will not long be novelties. The merit system only needs to be tried in this final development of its principles, and it will justify itself by the results here as everywhere else.

The decision of the New Jersey Supreme Court last week, declaring unconstitutional the partisan Republican law for controlling the governments of Jersey City and Newark, was based on the prohibition by the Constitution of the State of "any local or special law regulating the internal affairs of towns or counties." It is chiefly notable as a judicial rebuke to the New Jersey Republicans for attempting the very thing for which they have so often raged (provisionally and in platforms) at the New Jersey Democrats. Something may undoubtedly be said against spring elections in Jersey City and Newark, but the court holds that they cannot be abolished in the partisan way attempted. Republican leaders are reported to be "stunned" by the decision. Had not Boss Sewell told them the law was a clever move, and guaranteed that the courts would uphold it? One of the stunned leaders must be, we should say, Gov. Griggs, who favored and signed the bill which the Supreme Court now tells him is clearly unconstitutional. There must be many other things in the course of the Republican Legislature just adjourned to stun the Governor. But who is more to blame than himself? When he began making notoriously unfit appointments, the Republican leaders took it as notice that the reign of "magazine politics" was over, and that there was no use in even pretending any longer to be better than the Democrats. The result is a wasted session and bright Democratic hopes of carrying the State again.

TARIFF-MAKING EXTRAORDINARY.

THE tariff bill which the House passed on Wednesday of last week, without knowing or caring what it was, is in many respects the most extraordinary measure of the kind ever heard of. It is without a parallel in the manner of its framing. It was drawn in secret by eleven men (or, rather, six men) who had not even been sworn in as members of this House. The sentiment of the present House was not consulted—indeed, as was shown in the debate, was in many points of the bill distinctly ignored and affronted. All accounts agree that if the House had been allowed to vote on certain amendments, the bill would have been radically changed. But it was not allowed to vote on them. Thus a bill drawn in its entirety before the present Congress even met, was to be imposed from the outside on the House, without adequate debate or opportunity for amendment, and then the Senate and the country were to be told that this was the spontaneous voice of the House of Representatives!

Who framed the bill? Ostensibly, the eleven Republican members of the ways and means committee of the last House. Still more narrowly, six of those members voting down five. Accurately, tariff beneficiaries pulling the strings that move their puppets in the committee. How can eleven men agree on all the details of a complicated tariff? They cannot. All they can agree upon is, as the old cabinet member said when asked how thirteen men could unite in any given policy, that they would rather keep their offices than lose them. Mr. Dingley, for example, is on record as bitterly opposed to the leading schedule of his own bill. The Dingley bill of the last Congress, with duties on wool and woollens at about half the rates now proposed, was his idea of what the tariff should be. But now he has been outvoted and humiliated in his own committee, and is forced to get up in Congress and defend schedules which he privately denounces as monstrous. This is but typical of the contests which raged within the committee on all important schedules. Let it be understood, therefore, that the bill now before the Senate is the work, not of the House, not of the committee on ways and means, but of six men, now one set and now another, subject to the cajolings or threats of those who expect the tariff to put money in their purses.

In view of these admitted facts, the demand that the Senate and the country take this bill as the product of perfect legislative wisdom is a piece of the coolest impudence. Mr. Cannon said, the day before its passage, that the House would now adjourn every three days, the members scattering to Old Point Comfort and elsewhere to rest from their arduous labors, while the country would rise and demand that the Senate pass the bill instanter and unaltered. But this must have been only Mr. Cannon's little joke. The only rising the country, or the party, will do will be to demand that the Senate amend the bill into something like decency. At any rate, it is perfectly certain that the Senate will amend the bill extensively. If the House committee had three months to work on the tariff, the Senate finance committee may reasonably demand two. A sub-committee of four is, in fact, already at work on a measure of its own. To oppose the tariff made in the House by six men, a bill will be offered in the Senate made by three men.

These three Senators will do well to take advice as to their work from a source which Mr. Dingley and his colleagues seem strangely to have neglected. We refer to the recorded views of William McKinley. That eminent authority on tariff legislation must be utterly opposed to the whole proceedings in the House respecting the tariff. The Senate has only to read the following extract from his speech made in the House on April 15, 1878, to be assured that President McKinley will uphold Senators in withstanding Mr. Dingley's inconsiderate attempts to "unsettle trade," strike "terror to the commercial classes," and commit an "act of criminality":

> "If a change is necessary in the present tariff system, or in some cases a reduction is demanded for the general good, then I answer that such reduction or change should be the work of time, and not hastily or inconsiderately made. Any change, however seemingly trifling, will seriously operate upon the business interests of this country, will *unsettle trade and disturb values. Even a discussion of the question is a terror to the commercial classes;* and we have discovered, since the report of the sub-committee of the committee of ways and means was given to the House and to the country, a marked disturbance in every avenue of trade and labor.
>
> "There can be no justification for an immediate change of the present system. If a new policy is to be inaugurated, or departures are to be made from the old, then they *should have reference to a period of time in the future sufficiently remote from the present to enable business men and trades-people to prepare for the new order of things* and adjust their trade conformably to it. We want in this country *no sudden shock to further paralyze business.* A law passed now, to go into effect at once, as proposed by this bill, or in the near future, would be *without justification on the part of this House, and, I may almost say, would be an act of criminality.*"

The truth is, that the action of the House on the Dingley tariff was throughout perfunctory in the extreme. The debates were without life. A quorum was secured each day with difficulty. An air of listlessness and indifference pervaded both sides of the House. The bill was passed as by those saying, "Thank God, we are well rid of a knave." Now the Senate and the conference committee are looked to for the real tariff bill. This one is confessed in the act to be only a rough block made ready for future carving. A real revenue bill, such as Mr. Dingley might easily have drawn, could have been passed speedily and without serious objection. The huge nondescript he has chosen to bring forth satisfies nobody, certainly not himself; it will be subject to amendment beyond recognition, to interminable delays and intrigues; and, when it finally becomes law, will have as good a right to be known as the Allison bill, or the Wolcott bill, or the Tillman bill, or the Pritchard bill, as to bear the name of Dingley.

THE PROGRAMME FOR CURRENCY REFORM.

THE *Tribune*, which certainly cannot be accused of excessive enthusiasm over the plan of currency reconstruction, admitted editorially on Sunday that "the proposal to appoint a monetary commission, with instructions to report a bill or bills next October, can now be considered without fear that the measure will obstruct the passage of the revenue bill in the House." We believe that if the Republican party and the President honestly mean to redeem their reiterated pledges, immediate action by the House on this question is imperative. Let us see what will be involved by such prompt consideration of the currency-commission bill, and what by its postponement to another session. A currency commission named in the present session would take testimony during the long congressional vacation, and would presumably present its bill when Congress reconvenes early in December. Its propositions would doubtless be reinforced by Secretary Gage's first annual report to Congress, and possibly by Mr. McKinley's message. The bill would, in accordance with the usual custom, be referred to committee, would be reported some time during January, and, at best, would not pass Congress until well on in the ensuing spring or summer. This was exactly the history of the tariff-commission bill of 1882. That commission was appointed in accordance with a bill introduced March 20, 1882, passed May 9, and approved May 15. The commission made its formal report in the following December; a measure framed partly on the basis of the commission's recommendations was introduced that month, reported from committee January 11, and finally enacted on the 3d of March. Between the first consideration of the bill to appoint a select commission and the enactment of the legislation with a view to which the commission was appointed, almost exactly a year elapsed.

Such is the outlook, even with prompt consideration of the currency commission bill. But postponement means a very much longer lapse of time before the final measure could in any case pass into law. Deferred until next session, even the commission bill would hardly reach formal discussion before January. No commission could possibly report before the winter session of next year; the actual currency-reform bill, then, would not be on its way to actual passage until well on in 1899. Now, it is true that even then the present Administration would have two years more

of life, but the life of the present Congress would be nearly ended; and it is Congress, not the President, from whom the measure of relief must come. It will be no unusual experience to find an anti-Administration House of Representatives returned in the elections of 1898.

Once actually passed, a measure for the reformation of our currency would rest in little danger from a future opposition Congress; first, because it is always easier to pass a law than to repeal it, and, second, because an executive veto would thereafter stand as a safe protection. But unless such a measure is passed by the present Congress, it will very possibly be thrown forward again and left to the mercy of a Presidential contest. Currency reform has at least ostensibly been made an Administration policy; an opposition House of Representatives is not apt to take up such measures with enthusiasm. We are perfectly well aware that in some quarters such a long and indefinite postponement would be accepted as no misfortune. The *Tribune* is evidently one of these secret enemies of the entire project. In the same editorial from which we have already quoted, that newspaper, after confessing that the time is ripe for consideration of the commission measure in the House, advances three pretended arguments for postponement: First, the measure might cause such differences in the Senate as would jeopardize the tariff bill; second, the currency discussion might disturb the trade revival anticipated by the *Tribune* from the new protection schedules; third, the time to secure currency reform is during industrial prosperity, not when business is in the dumps.

But there is a short, simple, and conclusive answer to each of these three arguments for delay. The *Tribune* disingenuously assumes that the measure now proposed to be considered is the actual currency-reform bill. Nothing of the sort is true. Only appointment of an expert commission is desired. That our present currency is objectionable and full of danger is conceded almost unanimously. As to the proper measure of reform, opinions unquestionably differ; but except Mr. Sherman and the *Tribune*, we know of no statesman or newspaper of any consequence asserting that the present system is satisfactory. The President certainly put himself on record, in his inaugural address, against perpetuation of the existing evils. A long and almost unbroken line of protests against the present laws has been contributed by the Treasury Secretaries, of both parties, during fifteen years. Mr. Sherman himself has taken ground decidedly in favor of a different and more rational system; though, after his usual fashion, he has on other occasions occupied a position diametrically opposite. To assume, in view of all these facts, that a bill to appoint commissioners for mere purposes of examination, inquiry, and advice will jeopardize all other legislation, is nonsense. In any case, the commission bill would not be likely to reach the Senate before the tariff debate was ended.

The plea that a currency-commission bill would upset business is too childish for serious consideration. All that is needed for answer is the query whether business interests have such reason to be satisfied with the recent working of the present system that a plan to investigate its notorious defects would cause alarm. The third point, that currency reform can be better planned in times of high prosperity, is contradicted by the experience of every civilized community. At such times measures of legitimate reform can rarely get a hearing, simply because the very fact of profitable business lulls the community into a false security. In 1872, in 1880, in 1891, warnings enough were given that the whole basis of our paper currency was precarious and doubtful, but the warnings found no listeners until disaster, long invited, came. The specie-resumption act in 1875 and the repeal of the silver-purchase law in 1893 were the outcome of the experience of hard times as truly as was the English Government's resumption law of 1819. It is, moreover, a question of considerable interest whether, without adequate provision now for currency reform, the industrial revival so confidently predicted by the tariff-tinkers can be reasonably expected. If such revival fails to come, through deliberate neglect of the promised reform, it needs no prophet to point out the certain fate of this Administration.

THE ANTI-PROPERTY CRAZE.

The decision of the Supreme Court in the anti-Trust case has had one good effect: it seems to have suddenly "shut up" several newspapers which have for some time been doing their utmost to foment the craze against property that has been this winter sweeping through the country. They have stopped bellowing about Trusts and monopolies evidently because they begin to see from this decision what all this will result in. A decision that a railway-traffic contract was illegal would not have mattered much to anybody; but a decision that such a Congress as ours is omnipotent over the whole mass of contracts which regulate trade and commerce throughout the country, and that we are now living under a law which makes all contracts illegal if a majority of the Supreme Court think them better out of the way, is another matter. That this is really what the decision amounts to is shown not only by the nature of the construction put upon it by the four dissenting judges, but by the fact that the old test of reasonableness is formally repudiated without any substitute being advanced. The moment reasonableness and unreasonableness are abandoned as the test of a contract's validity, there is nothing left but the decision of the court, based on whatever notion it pleases to follow. Instead of living under a system of constitutional law and settled rules of property, all the business of the country is in the hands of judges who are to administer a sort of new criminal equity of their own (determined by what used to be called in England the "length of the Chancellor's foot"), under which we are to be sent to jail for acts of which no one can tell in advance why they are not perfectly innocent, and even beneficial in their effects.

No one who does not read the newspapers with some care for the purpose of getting at the actual drift of public sentiment can form an idea of the violence which has marked the anti-property craze during the past year. We have had nothing at all like it before in this country, and it has sprung up and raged with all the fury of a true craze, coming no one could exactly say whence, and tending no one could exactly predict whither. When we said in the beginning of it that if we were going to have a campaign against Trusts and monopolies we needed to have pointed out first how we were suffering from them, we were denounced as being the poor man's enemy, and were told that it was no wonder that there was widespread discontent if such doctrines were taught. All last summer and autumn the idea was encouraged on every side that there was a tremendous demand for a crusade against Trusts, monopolies, and corporations. It was announced that the anti-Trust laws already passed had never been enforced because all the attorneys-general and district attorneys were corrupt, and Heaven was implored that McKinley would do the good work which the damnable treachery of Cleveland and Olney had prevented. The craze was enormously stimulated by the heavy Bryan vote, the Bryan campaign having been openly directed not against gold, but against property and the defence by the courts of the rights of property.

When the Legislatures met this winter, the avalanche of bills launched against property was something startling. Not only new and more stringent laws against Trusts, but laws against department stores, laws against bargain-counters, laws against railways, laws against banks, laws against corporations were heaped up on the Speakers' desks, as if the statute-books of the various States were not already full of stringent laws against all forms of oppression by capital. In this State, already heavily taxed, the Comptroller recommended, and the Assembly has unanimously passed, a graduated inheritance tax, so as to get another "whack" at the rascals who inherit property; and another bill directed at foreign corporations was prepared to break up the abominable practice of forming corporations under the laws of New Jersey—a bill which the crafty capitalists of New Jersey had to counteract

by getting a fresh law of their own secretly passed while the anti-Trust lobby had its back turned.

The craze was running its course splendidly down to the moment of the anti-Trust decision, and it was speedily becoming clear that it was directed really not against Trusts, but against any form of property. To those who are affected with the craze, in its legislative form—a body of very irresponsible and ignorant men hardly known outside the obscure "circles" from which they get into politics and the Legislature—property means rich men, and their business is in some way to make rich men bleed. That is what legislation and taxation mean to them. They are not thrifty, and their idea of power is to use it as a substitute for thrift. Consequently, when they were told that Trusts and monopolies and combinations and corporations ought to be attacked in the interest of the people, they were tickled to death. Previously they had been told that attacks on property were immoral, an idea which sadly interfered with their aims; now they were assured that property itself, or at least most of the operations by which property is accumulated, were immoral, and a mandate was given them to attack it. The craze was evidently calculated to be popular with the whole political class.

It has been stimulated, too, very much by the extreme cowardice of the owners of property. In this city they have for generations been so accustomed to find it easier to "get along" by means of corruption in some form, that they never dreamed of making a fight. When you say to a New York millionaire, "Why don't you resent? Why don't you struggle? Why don't you protest?" he almost always smiles a sad smile, and explains that "that isn't the way to do it." His way of doing it is to buy exemption from the law for himself, and thus foster the very inequalities which in their turn serve as fuel for the craze, and so increase the power of the political bosses who plunder him. Now the decision of the Supreme Court goes to the bottom of the matter, and shows us what attacks on property come to. Here is a statute which nobody dreamed applied to railroads, which is construed so as to throw into the hands of the very class from which the Tweeds and Crokers and Platts come, a power over the network of contracts which are the source of property itself, and without which property could not have any existence. Hitherto what reasonable contracts were made the law merely enforced. Now we are told that hereafter what contracts we shall be allowed to make Congress will tell us, and this in a decision affecting property valued at $11,000,000,000, or many times the whole national debt.

What will come next nobody knows, but that we are face to face with a craze far more serious than any that has preceded it, few will be inclined to deny. The Granger craze affected railroads; the greenback and inflation and silver crazes affected the currency and the national honor; the Jingo craze endangered peace; but this one threatens the whole economic fabric, and, what is more, it is a double craze: it produces legislation involving in confusion everything in the States, and at the same time leads Congress to legislate on the same subjects. To judge by experience, the political class will not give it up until they find out that it is not a genuine political movement, but a craze. But this we cannot teach them by playing into their hands as we have been doing hitherto. It is a fortunate circumstance that among the contracts affected by the anti-Trust decision may be even those of newspapers.

FICTION-FIENDS.

THE action of the Carnegie Free Library of Allegheny, Pa., in excluding certain writers of fiction from its shelves excited so much interest and discussion that the librarian, Mr. W. M. Stevenson, has thought it well to explain the matter. This he does in the March *Library Journal*. The novels in question were not so much excluded as refused renewal when read to tatters. Nor was the reason assigned that the stories were immoral; they were simply silly, slovenly, not strictly literature at all. Some of the novels which the library, under this ruling, decided not to replace when worn out were the works of Mrs. Holmes, Mrs. Southworth, A. C. Gunter, and E. P. Roe. The local press took the affair very hard, especially the laying of audacious hands on the "native author named Roe": did the librarian mean to give the lie to Matthew Arnold? And how could Mr. Stevenson be sure that he got all the silly novels out? He frankly confessed that he could not. Some were still on the shelves, but solely for the reason that they were made of "a little better paper"; as soon as they are worn out they, too, will be excluded.

It might be argued that this is really to make wood-pulp, not literary quality, the standard. But we are not interested in this question, nor in other aspects of the Carnegie Free Library's action, so much as in some of the incidental observations made by Mr. Stevenson on the habits of the fiction-ridden classes. One of his discoveries was that of a sort of free-for all competition among school-children to see who could read the most novels in a given time. One heroic boy averaged a volume a day of Alger, "Optic," and the like, for several weeks running. "A prominent educator" disapproved of this, which is not strange. That is the way in which "fiction-fiends," as Mr. Stevenson suggestively calls them, are made—not born. His study of them in their native haunts for six successive years leads him to deny a theory advanced by "librarians of standing," and, we may add, by others. This is the theory that devotees of Mrs. Holmes and E. P. Roe will "gradually rise to something better." Librarian Stevenson's experience is that this is absolutely false. He has "never yet discovered a case of improvement. Once the habit is formed, it seems as difficult to throw off as the opium habit."

No one would be surprised at this, we imagine, were it not for the lingering power of two respectable fallacies. One is that reading in itself is a virtue. Old-fashioned parents have been known to say complacently that if their boy is reading he surely can be taking no harm; the acuter moderns are often as much alarmed at absorbed reading, as they are at preternatural quiet, on the part of their children. There is a presumption of mischief on foot in either case. Something, after all, depends on the thing read. But what of all the great men who have confessed to a youth of reckless indulgence in novel-reading? Was not Thackeray "a lazy, idle boy" who delighted in 'Thaddeus of Warsaw'? That is the second fallacy. Genius may disport itself for a time in cheap and silly reading, but that scarcely proves that cheap and silly fiction breeds genius. The exuberant and expanding power of a great talent may have its fling with books that are no books and literature that is meretricious; but the fact that it succeeds in escaping unscathed is no evidence that the regimen is just the thing to foster talent and taste. Temporary loitering by future great men among foolish books is a very different thing from the prolonged, the satisfied, the sottish reading of inane novels by the true fiction-fiends.

Why they should be thought likely to free themselves from the lengthening chain which they drag at each new story, it is hard to see, when one thinks of it. Nowhere else is immersion in the dull, the inferior, the vulgar, thought of as harmless, much less as a necessary preparation for appreciating the bright, the superior, the elevated. If we saw a child smearing the walls of his nursery with staring reds and yellows from his paint-box, we should not say, "Let be, there is a fine artistic taste in the making." But, under the influence of the respectable superstitions already mentioned, parents contentedly watch their children drenching and drowning their minds in ill-written books, as if this were the predestined way to form a good literary taste. The examples of cultivated and illustrious men who became cultivated and illustrious in spite of similar youthful indulgences, are urged in excuse, with as much solemnity, and with about as much relevancy, as the good woman displayed who announced that her son was to be a philanthropist, as she had observed that philanthropists were generally wealthy.

Nobody can stop the reading of fiction (if anybody wants to), but we can do something to prevent the nourishing of fiction-fiends. Everywhere fiction furnishes the

great bulk of popular reading. The public library in Salem, Mass., with all the noble literary traditions of that town, reports 84 per cent. as the proportion of fiction circulated last year. In Carnegie Free Library, situated, as Mr. Stevenson points out, "in the heart of Presbyterianism," in what is largely a residence city, with a university, three theological seminaries, and excellent public and private schools, the percentage of fiction circulated is still higher—90 per cent., in fact. Not to stop novel-reading, but to stop indiscriminate novel-reading, is the thing to aim at. It is unfortunately true that there are thousands of readers to whom a novel is a novel, and one is as good as another. They do not crave the vicious or the suggestive in fiction—they scarcely recognize those or any other qualities when they meet them—but they love to surrender themselves in complete vacuity to any kind of a tale that will keep them from thinking. The thing they need to be saved from is their dead monotony of indifference. By a blow on the head, if necessary, they must be given the idea that one novel, one piece of writing, is better than another. They may have to take it on authority at first, and find out the reasons why later. Therefore we think it highly desirable that public libraries should begin giving them this blow on the head. It might start obscure but, in the end, salutary trains of thought in their minds if all libraries were to follow the example of the Carnegie Free Library, and say to them, "No, madam (or sir), we have not the immortal works of Fleming or Clay or Southworth, but we can give you Scott or Hawthorne or Thackeray."

THE RETURN OF BRADFORD'S HISTORY.

THE return to America of Gov. William Bradford's manuscript history of Plymouth Plantation is an event of unusual interest. Years ago the desirability of its transfer was suggested, but it was not until last November that steps were taken towards the formal request which has now resulted in its delivery, by the Chancellor of the Diocese of London, to Ambassador Bayard.

This precious record of the Pilgrims in Holland, of their voyage in the *Mayflower* to Plymouth, and of their plantation there, covering the years 1602 to 1646, is entirely in Bradford's handwriting. The volume is a folio of two hundred and seventy pages, measuring twelve inches by seven and a half, backed with white parchment, soiled, and showing marks of much use. It was begun about the year 1630, "and so pieced up at times of leisure afterwards," until 1650. After Bradford's death in 1657, the manuscript was used freely by Nathaniel Morton in compiling his 'New England's Memoriall' (Cambridge, 1669), and in his records of the Church at Plymouth, 1680. On one of the blank leaves at the front is the inscription: "This book was rit by goefner William Bradford, and gifen to his son mager William Bradford, and by him to his son mager John Bradford, rit by me Samuel Bradford, March 20, 1705."

A quarter of a century later it passed into the hands of the Rev. Thomas Prince, who was then assiduously gathering materials for his New England Library, the book-plate of which is pasted on another leaf. With the book-plate is the following note:

"Tuesday, June 4. 1728.

"N. B. Calling at Major John Bradford's at Kingston near Plimouth, son of Major W^m. Bradford formerly Dep Gov^r of Plimouth Colony, who was eldest son of W^m. Bradford, Esq. their 2^d Gov^r & author of this History;—y^e s^d Major John Bradford gave me several Manuscript Octavoes w^e He assured me were written with his said Grandfather Gov^r Bradford's own Hand. He also gave me a little Pencil Book wrote with a Blew-lead Pencil by his s^d Father y^e Dep Gov^r. And He also told me y^t He had sent & only lent his s^d Grandfather Gov^r Bradford's History of Plimouth Colony wrote by his own Hand also, to Judg Sewall; and desired me to get it of Him or find it out, & take out of it what I think proper for my New England Chronology; w^e I accordingly obtained, and This is y^e s^d History, w^e I find wrote in y^e same Hand-writing as y^e Octavo Manuscripts above s^d. "Thomas Prince.

"I also mentioned to him my Desire of lodging this History in y^e New England Library of Prints & Manuscripts, w^e I had been collecting for 23 years, to w^e He signified his willingness—only y^t He might have y^e Perusal of it while he lived.

"T. Prince."

During Prince's life, and after his death in 1758, his books were deposited for safe-keeping in the steeple-chamber of the Old South Church in Boston. Here the Bradford manuscript was found by Governor Hutchinson, who used it in preparing his 'History of the Province of Massachusetts-Bay,' published in 1767, and this is the last mention of its presence in America. How or when it disappeared can only be surmised. At the time of the British occupation of Boston, the Old South Church was used for a riding-school by the soldiers. Among the books carried away by them was Governor Bradford's "Letter-Book," which was taken to Halifax and used for wrapping-paper in a grocer's shop, where the remaining fragments were found and rescued some time afterwards. For eighty years the "History" was given up as lost.

In 1844 there was published in London the first edition of a 'History of the Protestant Episcopal Church in America,' by Samuel Wilberforce, Bishop of Oxford, in which extracts were made from a certain manuscript history of the Plantation at Plymouth, referred to as being in the library of the Bishop of London at Fulham Palace. This was followed by Rev. J. S. M. Anderson's 'History of the Church of England in the Colonies,' the second volume of which appeared in 1848, and in this work references were made to "Bradford's MS. History of Plymouth Colony," in possession of the Bishop of London.

The later history of the manuscript is well known—how, in 1855, it was identified as the long-lost waif from the New England Library; how widespread an interest was excited by its discovery; and how it was transcribed, and published by the Massachusetts Historical Society as a special volume in 1856, under the able editorship of Dr. Charles Deane. Finally, in 1896, a facsimile reproduction was issued in a sumptuous folio volume, edited by John A. Doyle of All Souls College, Oxford.

Much credit is due to Senator George F. Hoar for starting the movement that has led to the restoration of the volume. The act of our English cousins in complying with the request is a pledge of mutual good feeling, which, it is hoped, will ever be preserved unbroken.

THE PLAGUE IN BOMBAY.

BOMBAY, March 1, 1897.

THE plague began in Bombay early in September. Its presence in the city was sedulously concealed. Neither police nor municipality thought fit to let it be known that the Great Death had entered the town. Yet only by the spread of this knowledge could means be taken to prevent the growth of the disease. No adequate means was taken. The plague was allowed to run its course from the beginning. It grew under official reticence, as it flourished in the gloom of the tenements where it started. Dirt, darkness, and concealment strengthened it. The native inhabitants personally provided the first, their houses the second, the municipality the third.

But in September the disease progressed slowly. No alarm was felt. A few more deaths than usual were registered from day to day. The plague took its own time, rooting itself gradually but firmly, unimpeded by natives or Europeans. The former did not know what was killing them. The latter suspected the truth, but remained passive. No notice was issued to the tourists, who were even then beginning to embark for their winter's holiday; and no care was taken to separate the plague-patients from others. But further concealment shortly became impossible. The natives grew anxious. They died mysteriously, awfully; and they died in increasing numbers. The news got abroad. The reluctant municipality found it necessary to publish a statement. Toward the end of September the announcement was formally made that the bubonic plague was in the city. The natives began to slip away. The daily trains leaving the city became somewhat crowded. Little was said, but the people feared. However, there was as yet no general appearance of terror. The October tourists arrived as usual. They made inquiries, but were all met by the smiling hotel-keepers with the same answer: "The Little Sickness? Ah, it is not important. A few cases perhaps among the natives. There is really no cause for apprehension." So the tourists filled the hotels and drove along the Esplanade, visiting the bazaars, and taking their afternoon's outing on the Queen's Road. Beside the Queen's Road the burning-ghâts of the Hindus were more steadily occupied than before; and here and there in the bazaars a shop or two would have the shutters closed. The visitors did not notice either fact. The papers were still very quiet about the matter. Why frighten away trade? Keep still. That was the motto of the municipality and of the papers.

It was now the last week of October. The bazaars were still full. The exodus of a few thousand made no appreciable difference in the appearance of a town of nearly a million. Fifteen deaths a day from plague were reported, twenty deaths, thirty deaths. Then happened the incident in connection with the Queen's statue. This statue, the pride of Bombay, was found one morning smeared with tar and decorated with a necklace, especially insulting, of native slippers. The perpetrators of the act have never been discovered, but the excitement produced was intense and lasting. From this time on, the underlings of the native population, ignoring the deaths of the past, attributed those that occurred and were still to occur to the fateful wrath of the Queen, whom the ignorant regard as a divinity armed with occult powers. Then finally, after weeks of inaction, in face of a danger recognized too late, came the demand for se-

gregation. The demand was made by the papers, but, with one or two exceptions, it was made timidly. Would it not be better to segregate the plague-patients? asked the Anglo-Indian editors. This inquiry met with a howl of indignation on the part of the native papers and the native populace. Segregate the sick, intrude on domestic privacy, violate caste feeling? Infamous proposal! The proposal was dropped for the time, or only weakly renewed. So the plague increased.

But now the tourists had caught the alarm and were off at once. The landlords could not keep them by any soft persuasion. The Little Sickness got at last its true name. One spoke of it no longer, but whispered of the *mahimari*, the Great Death. The populace, fearing more the suggestion of segregation than the disease itself, departed in larger bodies. Every outgoing train was full. The coasting steamers carried sick and hale alike to other seaport towns, returning, as in the case of the infected third-class carriages on the trains, which no one thought of disinfecting, to pick up new crowds, and, with the germs of disease lodged in compartment and cabin, to make sick those that were well, and carry the plague again to other ports. People began to die more rapidly, more suddenly. A reign of terror set in. For now the credulous natives had conceived a new idea—an idea absurd, fantastic, but deeply implanted in the minds not only of the lowest classes, but of the higher stratum represented by the small dealers and the domestic servants. This was that the Queen, in revenge for the insult offered to her statue, had demanded the livers of thirty thousand inhabitants of Bombay. Who can say whence originated so silly a tale? But to these childish natives it was no tale, and there was no foolishness in it. It was dread reality. Hence, said they, this strange demand for segregation; hence the proposal that the sick should be taken to the hospital. Who that enters the hospital returns? The sick are butchered to avenge the Queen. So they fled. Whole families, men, women, and children, taking their sick with them, crowded to the railway stations. Often the sick died upon the train; often, before the family reached the station. Then they were left in the street.

Meantime stricter measures of relief had been taken. The natives were told peremptorily that all their sick must be carried to the hospital, that segregation would be enforced by the police, and by the military if necessary, and that every home must suffer the visits of the newly appointed vigilance committee. Not without a struggle were these things accomplished—a struggle that revealed to the depths how superficial is the civilization of the uneducated masses of the country. Most prominent in all attempts to combat sanitary regulations were the Mussulmans. They met in a huge assembly to "discuss" segregation. After the plan and its necessity had been fully explained to them, they gave their answer unanimously: "Down with the hospital. We will not be segregated. Prayer is our medicine. The mosque is our hospital." This was the reply of the Mohammedans. The Hindus, more timid, said nothing, but they ran away more than ever.

December came, and with the colder weather the plague assumed more formidable proportions. Then for the first time the Europeans applied themselves seriously to the work of cleansing the foul city. It was a fearful task. Squalid lanes, burdened with filth; dark, ill-ventilated houses, saturated with drainage and continually damp—such were the resting and breeding places of the plague. The committee that heroically labored to cleanse these stables reported a curious fact. Bombay is well supplied with water, a tap in every house. This very abundance of fresh water was one of the worst features of the case, for the shiftless tenants were found in many instances to have turned on the tap at some remote period and never to have turned it off again. Day after day water continued to run or drip in the vile little dens of their nasty hovels, falling constantly on the mud floor, and breeding all the disease that darkness and slime can engender. Many of the rooms had no light at all. The committee's first task was to break a hole in the roof and admit the sun; then to solder the tap and prevent more water from running upon the reeking floor. All this was met with angry protests, but it was done. The tenants were ordered to go to the street for water. Their houses were dried. The committee made several frightful discoveries. It was no uncommon thing to find a plague-patient hidden in the house; not uncommon, either, to find a dead body with a living patient beside it, both concealed in the same room, neither case having been reported to the police. Many of the houses were simple sinks of drainage, their floors covered with refuse and soaked with urine—animals and men having the same habitation and the same habits. As fast as possible these nurseries of the plague were cleansed. Wherever a death occurred, a red ring was painted on the front wall of the house. On some of these wretched tenements one saw four, five, even seven or eight such rings; and the house was still inhabited.

By the end of December more than a third of the population was fled. The disease was now firmly established in half a dozen places in the North and in several in the South. The upper towns of the Deccan became secondary plague centres. From Karachi the pestilence spread up through Sind. Here it assumed new violence. For in Bombay a patient might live two or three days, but when the plague first broke out in Karachi the sick man lived only three hours from the time the disease manifested itself. No dispersion abroad, however, loosened its grip on Bombay. It raged there, and has continued to rage, with even new power, sparing not even the children, as it did three years ago in Hong-Kong, but carrying off natives of every age.

Something beastly about it makes the plague peculiarly loathsome. The suffering is great, though not more severe than in many other diseases. But its aspects are disgusting. It is a disease of pigs and rats. One saw the latter lying dead everywhere about the city, their entrails plucked out, picked to pieces by the ravenous crows, the scavengers of Bombay. And the people fell in the streets like the rats. So great was their aversion to the hospital that, when a poor wretch found on himself the sure sign, he would wander up and down, secretive as an animal, till he suddenly dropped dead. The chief sign of the disease is a swelling beneath the armpits. When this appears there is no more hope. Nor is it well to live, for the few that have survived became hopelessly paralytic. But the known instances of survival are confined to Europeans and Eurasians. In the case of natives death usually comes at the latest within a few days of the appearance of the first signs, headache, fever, vomiting, and glandular swellings. But the period of incubation may be much longer than this, for eleven days have been known to elapse between the time when one victim, a Parsee, left town to locate himself in a perfectly healthy environment in the mountains and the time when the disease declared itself, after which the patient lived but three days.

The new year began in mourning. The native town was like a vast cemetery. The copper-bazaar, the gay centre of Hindu life, echoed only to the wail of them that accompanied the dead. On the Kalbadevi Road, where, so dense is the customary throng, one cannot ordinarily drive at all without stopping every moment, one could now pass at a gallop from end to end, and never touch a living creature. Day and night the acrid smoke from the burning-ghâts floated across the city. Their fires never went out, yet there were more corpses than could be burned, waiting their slow turn. The Mohammedan graveyards too were full. There are a couple of them, one on the Queen's road, one on the Grant Road, both in the heart of the city. Some day they may be instrumental in bringing a renewal of the plague upon Bombay. Even now the awakened municipality is trying to persuade the Mussulmans to bury their dead out of town. This request is met with stern refusal.

In the last two months the events of November and December have merely been repeated with greater effect. More have perished daily. According to carefully estimated (not the official) numbers, a thousand a week died of plague in Bombay in the latter part of December, nearly two thousand a week in February. Otherwise there is no change except in the new field of action on the part of the plague. Till the middle of December only the natives, a term embracing Hindus and Mussulmans, were attacked. Then the Great Death seized on the Parsees. By the middle of January they too were in swift exodus from the town. The woful city is now nearly depopulated, yet, despite diminished numbers, the death-rate from the plague has almost doubled within the past month.

But death is not the only ill of the plague, for indirectly also the suffering has been great. Trade has left the town; all ports are closed to it. Merchants sit idle; mechanics starve. Many are living on borrowed money, at one hundred and eighty per cent. interest per annum. What poor man recovers his feet when once the usurer of India has him fast? Most heavily does the loss of business weigh upon the artisans of the bazaars, whose work in gold, silver, and copper finds now no purchasers. The dealers in fancy goods, the shawl sellers, the ivory-workers, the carvers of sandal-wood, suffer most bitterly. They sell absolutely nothing. Even in the best seasons they lived from hand to mouth, but it was their own hand. They live now from the hands of charity or in that of usury. The menial classes have left town to such an extent that necessary sanitary labor cannot be properly performed. Since the middle of December the domestic servants have been running away, frequently leaving their wages, and many families are wholly dependent on the services of coolies taken directly from infected districts. Most of the city sweepers and cleaners have fled also, and but few remain to do work so imperative for the preservation of the city from other forms of disease; though, as if all were left to the plague, other sicknesses than this are rare. The grave-diggers too and the carriers of the dead are hard to obtain, and funerals must often be delayed on this account. But such delay means risk of life to others. In the case of

some of the religious bodies only a particular caste, few in number, may do this work, and in these circumstances it is occasionally impossible to find bearers to whom the corpse may be intrusted. Then sometimes fear descends suddenly upon the bearers, even as they walk with their burden of danger through the deserted streets, and they set down the body of him that has died of the plague and escape in haste, lest death come upon them from the dead. Such are but a few of the varied forms of distress that the plague has brought in its train.

Thus far the Europeans, including Anglo-Indians, have escaped with very few deaths. Some of those registered as such in the papers are really deaths from among the Eurasians, whose habits are rather those of natives than of Europeans. Of the latter, a few brave physicians and nurses have died; but it is generally conceded that, unless a European has been for some time in direct contact with plague-patients, he is safe. Not to speak of the personal habits of Englishmen as contrasted with those of the natives, the former live in cleaner houses than do any of the natives or Parsees, and eat more strengthening food. For weakness, as well as diet, invites disease; and in this year of famine the native population has lived as only natives and cattle can, picking up the scantiest sustenance and half-starved for more than six months. As for the Parsees, although their personal habits are more wholesome than those of the Hindus, yet their domestic arrangements are often not much above the native standard. For this reason the vultures on the Towers of Silence have feasted in the last two months as they never feasted before; for when the plague finally began to work among the Parsees it worked quickly and steadily. In this Parsee mode of disposing of the dead there lies, moreover, a new danger to the unhappy town. The birds are often satiated, and will not perform their office; while the corpses of the dead lie exposed, naked, polluting the air, till the vultures again grow hungry. Of tourists there are not many left anywhere in India; in Bombay there are none, for more than a few hours at a time. They are apparently in no great peril, but it is perhaps well for them to hurry through the city and take to the steamers as quickly as possible.

E. Washburn Hopkins.

MURAT.

Paris, March 24, 1897.

Count Murat has just given to the public an important episode in the life of Murat, under the title of 'Murat, Lieutenant of the Emperor in Spain (1808), from his Inedited Correspondence and Original Documents.' This correspondence was left him by the Count de Mosbourg, who died only a few years ago, having done good service in French diplomacy, and having in 1870 been sent from Carlsruhe, where he was minister plenipotentiary, to Vienna, where he took for a while the direction of the French embassy. M. de Mosbourg was very well known and much liked in Paris society. He was the son of a compatriot and comrade of Murat, whom the latter attached to his fortune when he became Grand Duke of Berg, and whom he made Count of Mosbourg and minister of finance of the principality. In 1808 Count Mosbourg followed Murat to Naples, and remained minister of finance to the new King throughout his reign. When Joachim lost his crown and his life, M. de Mosbourg returned to France; he continued to be the faithful adviser of the ex-Queen, who had taken the name of Lipona (an anagram of Napoli); he entered the Chamber of Deputies after the Revolution of 1830, and was made a peer in 1837. He had prepared materials for a complete Life of Murat, but died before having accomplished his work. His son, who was in the diplomatic service, did not use the documents which his father had left him; he bequeathed them in turn to Count Murat, who has undertaken to give us an account of the period of 1808, during which Murat was Napoleon's lieutenant in Spain. He has placed at the beginning of his work an introduction from the hand of the first Count de Mosbourg, which is too apologetic, and cannot be considered as of great historical value. If we wish to have the real Murat before our eyes, we must not be satisfied with such pages, but must seek in a number of memoirs many sketches taken from life.

Joachim Murat was born March 25, 1767, at Bastide-Fortunière, a small village in the neighborhood of Cahors, of which his father was postmaster. He was the sixth child, and the third of three boys. As his father was also an agent of the Talleyrands, who had great estates in the country, he was destined for the Church, where it was hoped that the Talleyrand family would assure his future; but, seeing a regiment on the way from Auch to Carcassonne, he enlisted on February 23, 1787. We can trace from this date all his movements; you will find them in a curious volume, recently published, on 'The Family of Napoleon,' by M. Frédéric Masson—a volume of which I shall have to speak by and bye. I will only say that Murat, whom Masson paints as having an "*air casseur*, black hair, eyes like coal, and an iron constitution," threw himself with a sort of fury into the revolutionary movement. He says in a letter to the Convention "that he is a true sans-culotte, son of a peasant"; he changes for a time his name of Murat into that of *Marat*, one of the gods of the sans-culottes. His great fortune began at Mondovi, when he charged with the 20th dragoons the remains of the Piedmontese army, the old Stengel having fallen on the battlefield, and when Napoleon sent him to the Directory to take the news of his victory. "Murat," says Bourrienne, "by the beauty of his exterior, his physical strength, the elegance of his manners, the pride of his look, and his brilliant audacity in battle, resembled less a republican soldier than the knights depicted by Ariosto and Tasso. The nobility of his face made you promptly forget the vulgarity of his birth." Compare this portrait with that drawn by the Countess Potocka when Murat was in Poland: "Prince Murat announced that he would visit me, and came with a numerous following. He was a large man, or rather a tall man, with a *soi-disant* handsome face, yet displeasing, as it lacked nobility and was entirely devoid of expression. He had the majestic bearing of the actors who play the part of kings."

In his Introduction, M. de Mosbourg gives a letter written by Murat to his father from Alexandria on July 28, 1799. He announces the brilliant successes obtained by the French over the Ottoman army (he spells *ottomane* "hotomane"); he had been himself wounded by a pistol-shot, but adds that he is not disfigured. "Say to the belles, if there be any, who, after a year's absence, have kept a *cœur sensible* for me, that Murat, if not as handsome, will ever be as brave in love." This is the same Murat who sent to Countess Potocka, by an aide-de-camp, the key to little apartments in her own palace, where he wished her to meet him. The Countess pretended not to understand and sent the key to her mother. On the famous day of the 18th Brumaire, Murat played a most important part, and may be said to have made an Emperor. Napoleon gave him his sister Caroline for a wife. We find in the appendix to the volume the preamble of the marriage contract; the witnesses were Napoleon, First Consul; Joseph Bonaparte, minister plenipotentiary of the French Republic at Rome; Lucien Bonaparte, Minister of the Interior; Louis Bonaparte, chef de brigade.

Murat's deeds from the 18th Brumaire to Tilsit belong to history. It was only after Tilsit that Napoleon resolved to intervene in Spain, and to include the Spanish Peninsula in the vast system of kingdoms which should be the vassals of France. He supposed that his alliance with the powerful empire of the north would make it easy for him to place members of his family on every throne. Charles IV. had occupied the throne of Spain since 1788. He was married to the Infanta Maria Louisa of Parma, his cousin-german, who had absolute power over him. She was herself under the influence of Manuel Godoy, who was her lover, and whom she had made Prime Minister. Godoy had married Doña Louise de Bourbon, cousin-german of the King; he was, to use the words of Napoleon, the true King of Spain. The inner dissensions of the Spanish court scandalized Europe; the King and his son, the Prince of the Asturias, were hostile to each other, and each of them implored the help of Napoleon against the other. Napoleon committed an immense mistake in interfering in Spain. Haunted by the memory of Louis XIV., he said to his ministers: "I have made France greater and more powerful than she was under Louis XIV. Ought I not to repeat with him, 'There are no longer any Pyrenees'?" He saw more clearly afterwards, and he confessed at St. Helena, that he was wrong in dethroning the dynasty of the Bourbons. To be sure, Charles IV. was "usé," but Napoleon could have given a liberal constitution to Spain under Ferdinand, his son.

Godoy opened the doors of Spain to Napoleon, allowing him by a military convention to send 25,000 men to Lisbon by land, and to introduce 40,000 more if the English entered Spain in force. Junot crossed the frontier of Portugal with 28,000 men. At the same time Murat received the command of an expedition to Madrid, but he was kept in the dark about the object of his expedition as well as of the negotiations which were taking place between Napoleon and the Spanish court. Nominally, Napoleon was at peace with the King of Spain, but Murat received orders to occupy the citadel of Pampeluna. Murat believed that Napoleon intended to exile Godoy, to marry a princess of his own family to the Prince of the Asturias, and to make an expedition against Gibraltar. He was surprised when he was ordered to occupy the Spanish fortresses on the frontier.

Murat was well received in Spain, being looked upon at first as a liberator, as the man who would put an end to the insolent tyranny of Godoy. On his way to Madrid, at Castillejo, Murat heard that a palace revolution had taken place at Aranjuez. Charles IV. had been forced to abdicate; Godoy, who had been in danger of his life, had been imprisoned. Murat entered Madrid at the head of

forty thousand men. As soon as he heard this news, Napoleon offered the throne of Spain to his brother Louis, then King of Holland, and spoke of joining Holland to France. In his letter of March 27, 1808, to Louis, he asks him to answer categorically, "for it was necessary that such a thing should be done before avowing having thought of it." Louis refused the offer; but this letter shows conclusively that Napoleon had from the beginning intended to dethrone the Bourbons of Naples. He refused to recognize Ferdinand as King after the revolution of Aranjuez, and affected to consider the abdication of Charles IV. as forced. Murat was kept in ignorance of the real projects of Napoleon. He had, however, spontaneously refused to recognize the Prince of the Asturias, and had offered Charles IV. an asylum in his army; he had extended his protection to Godoy.

Savary arrived with the Emperor's instructions. He confided to Murat that the Emperor destined the crown of Spain for one of his brothers, that it was necessary that King Charles IV., the Queen, the Prince of the Asturias, and Godoy should all be persuaded to come to France, where he would obtain from the royal family the cession of the Spanish throne. Murat was surprised, but said that he would, "though with regret, work on this new plan." Savary persuaded the Prince of the Asturias to go towards Napoleon and to meet him in France. In leaving Madrid, Ferdinand became, in fact, the prisoner of Savary. He travelled, escorted by French troops, to Burgos, to Vittoria; there he remained a little while, waiting for an answer to a letter which he had sent to Napoleon. The answer came from Bayonne (April 16, 1808), obscure and vague. Ferdinand, more perplexed than before, rushed on, against the advice of his friends and notwithstanding the attitude of the Spaniards, to Irun and Bayonne. Napoleon told him, at their first interview, that the Bourbons would cease to reign in Spain, and offered him in exchange for his rights the throne of Etruria and the hand of one of his nieces. On April 25, Napoleon, speaking of Ferdinand, wrote to Talleyrand: "The King of Prussia is a hero in comparison with the Prince of the Asturias. He has not yet spoken a word; he is indifferent to everything, very material, eats four times a day, and has no notion of anything."

The comedy of Bayonne, where father and son rivalled each other in servility to Napoleon, has been often told. It was followed by the bloody insurrection of Madrid and by the long and terrible drama of the Spanish war. Murat left Spain at the end of July, 1808. Had he ever thought of becoming himself King of Spain? Count Murat dares not answer this question in the negative. Napoleon, who afterwards made him King of Naples, could as well have made him King of Spain, and Murat would probably have defended the crown of the Peninsula better than the mild and timid King Joseph. Did Murat, during his short stay in Spain, compromise in any way the interests of France? The 'Memorial of St. Helena' insinuates that the Grand Duke of Berg thought more of his own interests than of the interests of Napoleon; but the conduct of Murat at the Restoration did not induce in the 'Memorial' any indulgence for Murat. It seems to have been the special object of Count Murat, in the somewhat confused and laborious volume which he has published with the help of the documents left by M. de Mosbourg, to exonerate Murat from the accusation of the 'Memorial.' I will add that in the 'Memorial' Napoleon is very severe on himself, in this affair of Spain, and does not hesitate to condemn his policy as the greatest blunder of his reign.

Correspondence.

PIONEER WOMEN STUDENTS IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication in your issue of March 25 on the experience of an American woman at the University of Göttingen will, I imagine, prove of great interest not only to the large number of American ladies who are either at the present time studying in Germany or are preparing to do so, but also to the students of the sterner sex who, during the last few years, have watched with interest and sympathy the persistent struggles of American girls to gain recognition at German universities.

Not more than six or eight years ago the presence of a woman in the class-room was of rare occurrence, and many an American student will be instantly reminded by this letter of bitter experiences which their American sisters were obliged to undergo in their efforts to obtain admission to university work. As I read the letter, the experience of two American girls at the University of Leipzig came quickly into my mind; the account of trials and disappointments was given me by the ladies themselves. At that time there were few American women attending lectures in the University; in our department but two. According to their statement there was no law governing the admission of women, but the individual professors admitted or denied admission according to their personal whims. I presume the conditions are much the same at the present time.

Of her efforts in gaining admissions to lectures, one of the ladies, Miss F——, met with the following success: Professor S—— received her with the utmost consideration when she called, and urged her kindly to attend freely any lectures that would be of interest to her; Professor W—— gave her a cool reception, but did not deny her request; but Professor H——, the moment she made known her desires, treated her with the most unmistakable rudeness. He stormed and stamped, raged at the impertinence of American women in presuming to take such steps, and finally refused her and (to make it more evident) all other women admission to his lectures as long as the law gave him the necessary power. This last adventure, quite naturally, caused Miss F—— many bitter tears.

Not long afterwards I happened to be speaking to Professor W—— of the American ladies attending his courses. "I see you have some of my countrywomen in your courses," I ventured to say. "I presume you are in sympathy with this new movement on the part of women?" "*Na*," answered the Professor, "I can't quite admit that. Fräulein F—— came to me and asked whether I was willing that she should attend my courses; and I told her it was a matter of indifference to me—she could attend if she liked. I will tell you privately, however [this was addressed to me], I don't quite like women in my class."

A report was current in the University at that time to the effect that a certain Junior Professor of Latin, who had one or more young ladies among his hearers, happened to speak of Minerva in one of his lectures. At the mention of this name he hesitated, gave a shy glance in the direction of the ladies, and remarked: "*Gott sei Dank!* We have disciples of this most favored goddess still among us." The Herren Studenten enjoyed the joke immensely; not so the ladies.

But the effort to obtain access to the lecture-room was by no means all the difficulty that lay in the path of the plucky lady students of that day; the attitude of the student body was not always encouraging. This aspect of the case interested us particularly, and observation easily proved to us that, in general, the presence of women in the class-room was not agreeable to the students. They were then inclined to look upon the sphere of woman as something quite different. Openly, the bearing of the students was not often rude, but privately the *Amerikanerinnen* were subject to not a little criticism. Miss F——, for example, passed under the name of *Walkūre*, though no one could ever defend the appropriateness of the term, since Miss F—— was by no means fierce and warlike in appearance. The other lady was called *Minerva*, a name which possibly originated in the story given above; at any rate, the appellative was appropriate, for she was a student of rare ability.

The young ladies usually entered the hall either a little early or a little late, in order to avoid the crowd of students; at their entrance a student would occasionally whisper under his breath: "Da kommt die Walkūre," or some remark in like vein, but never anything that was really objectionable. At the *Kneipe*, the conversation often turned upon the *Amerikanerinnen*, but the presence of American student-members, in all probability, served to temper the more unpleasant remarks. As the year wore on, we all noticed that these lady students attracted less and less attention; in fact, the ladies became a matter of course. I imagine their presence in the lecture-room is now—even after so few years—a familiar sight in most German universities.

The American lady students deserve great credit for their persistence and courage in this particular work; they are not only "pioneers" for the cause of higher education of women in this country, but also benefactors of the ever-increasing number of German women who are, as yet modestly, demanding greater advantages for education. G. T. F.

Brunswick, Maine.

ANOTHER HOMERIC QUESTION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As our educators are everywhere making earnest efforts to secure for our colleges uniformity in entrance requirements, I want to see if the leaders in the movement can be induced to throw the weight of their influence against a pedagogical mistake of the first magnitude, which yet is so firmly rooted that it will need resolute attack from our most influential men to overthrow it. I refer to the practice of making Homer one of the authors to be read by boys preparing for college. It really seems so plainly opposed to every sound educational maxim that one might suppose it to be necessary only to call attention to it in order to effect a change. For in what other study do we find such an extraordinary violation of natural procedure as this way of passing at once from Xenophon's 'Anabasis' to Homer—from the work selected as the easiest for beginners to the one that is at the furthest remove in all the things

important for a beginner, save in the one matter of simplicity of the ideas presented?

What does a beginner need in such a language as Greek? He needs to get a firm and sure hold on the forms. He must get a good stock of words, and must learn the main principles of syntax. And, as he proceeds along these lines of work, he wants to be certain that what he has learned can be reasonably depended upon; otherwise he feels that he is building on a shaky foundation, and that makes him lose confidence. If he cannot perceive the reign of law in what he is learning, his mental corner-stone is pulled from under him. Hence he should, in Greek as well as in Latin or French or German, be kept at work *in the standard dialect* until his acquaintance with it is fairly satisfactory. And when he does pass to another dialect, is it not sound sense, and therefore sound pedagogy, to take up the one that will create the minimum of wrench between the old and the new? This means that the natural transition from Attic prose is to *Herodotus*, and surely the themes of which he wrote are as well worth reading as are those in Homer. But when a boy reads three or four books of the 'Anabasis' and is then put into Homer, he finds himself almost in a new language, with no sure guide as to forms or syntax, and he soon begins a guessing process which takes the place of steady and orderly progression. And yet this violent transfer is forced upon boys even in this enlightened age, and that, too, in the very language that is acknowledged to be the most difficult of the four that are usually studied in our colleges; the language that is most successfully assailed because of the poor results obtained after years of hard study.

Just imagine a class in French or German plumped into a dialect with no more foundation in the modern language than boys have in Attic prose after reading the traditional three or four books of the 'Anabasis.' "Oh, that would be irrational, of course." Undoubtedly, but not as much so as is the prevalent custom in Greek. It reminds one of the long use of τύπτω, an irregular and defective verb, as the chosen model for teaching the regular Greek verb. It is perfectly amazing to think what multitudes of scholarly teachers were content to use τύπτω.

What reasons can be given for this use of Homer in a preparatory course? Is it done to make sure that a boy who does not continue his Greek shall have read *some* of Homer in the original? Hardly. The courses, being "preparatory," are arranged for those who intend to pursue the study. Is it because of the great place Homer holds in literature, that the boys may early feel his power and charm? If so, the end is probably defeated ninety-nine times out of a hundred. If the pupil is faithful and industrious, the task is too laborious and progress is too slow. Or if (as is very likely) he rides a "pony," his literary gain is exceedingly slight. The teacher wanted him to

> ". . . hear, like ocean on a western beach,
> The surge and thunder of the Odyssey,"

and to secure this end a tub of salt water is brought in (to use an illustration of Prof. Gildersleeve's), and we try to believe that by dabbling in it the boys are getting a sight of the ocean!

Is it for the sake of learning more Greek? I respectfully submit that for every step forward in Homer a boy is likely to slip back two or three steps in his slim knowledge of Attic prose, unless the teacher tries to prevent this by constantly requiring the Homeric dialect to be expressed in terms of Attic. But this is not "literature" by any means, and it assuredly degrades Homer by making his great poems a *corpus vile* for the beginner to practise his crudities upon.

Once more, if the object is to gain a wider (if not an increased) knowledge of Greek, and for the linguistic training to be gained from a comparison of the language in these different stages, how can it be other than a most grave pedagogical blunder to attempt such a wide leap with youngsters whose Greek legs are not yet by any means steady under them, even in the plain and beaten path of the 'Anabasis'?

If the teacher will put Dr. Church's 'Story of the Iliad' and 'Story of the Odyssey' into the hands of the beginners (in their first year or two), they will have a far better appreciation of Homer as literature than very many college graduates have; and then, if Homer is reserved to a late period of the course, there is some reasonable chance that, with a vocabulary based on Attic prose, Herodotus, and the tragedians, the student may learn to read Homer with a fair measure of real enjoyment.

I have heard school-teachers say that they objected to reading Homer, but the colleges compelled them by requiring it for entrance. I have heard college professors (I could name one man of the very highest repute) say that they prefer to have only Attic prose read in the preparatory schools, but the school-teachers will cling to Homer! One thing is certain: if the colleges quit examining on Homer for entrance, the schools are not going to teach it; and if the Committee of Twelve will take the matter in hand they can soon settle it.

ADDISON HOGUE.
WASHINGTON AND LEE UNIVERSITY, LEXINGTON, VA.

Notes.

HARPER & BROS. have nearly ready a new novel by Mr. Howells, 'The Landlord at Lion's Head'; a new edition of Johnson's 'Pope,' edited by Kate Stephens; and 'An Experiment in Education,' that is, of children, by Mary R. Alling-Aber.

Charles Scribner's Sons announce 'Architecture of the Renaissance in Italy,' by William J. Anderson; 'Spitsbergen,' by Sir Martin Conway; 'Sporting Adventures in South Africa,' by Dr. Schultz; 'With the Royal Headquarters 1870-71,' a view of the Franco-German war from the Prussian staff, in the new "Wolseley" series of military books; and 'The Early Greek Philosophers,' all the existing, even fragmentary, texts, collected and edited by Prof. Arthur Fairbanks of Yale.

Frederick Warne & Co. have begun the publication of an extensive work, with numerous colored plates, in four volumes, on 'Favorite Flowers of Garden and Greenhouse,' edited as to the cultural directions by William Watson, F.R.H.S., assistant curator at Kew.

Thomas Whittaker will be the American publisher of Capt. Hinde's 'Fall of the Congo Arabs.'

Dodd, Mead & Co. will issue Miss Harraden's 'Hilda Strafford,' and 'The Great K. and S. Train Robbery,' by Paul Leicester Ford.

'The Housing Problem,' by Dr. E. R. L. Gould, will be the next addition to T. Y. Crowell & Co.'s "Library of Economics and Politics."

R. H. Russell announces 'Cuba in War Time,' by Richard Harding Davis.

A restoration of Pompeii ('Pompei vor der Zerstörung'), by C. Weichardt, architect, in a folio work whose plates will depict also the ruins and individual objects found in them, is announced by K. F. Koehler, Leipzig (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The work is intended to have a popular character, as well as to possess a professional and archæological interest.

The enterprise of A. W. Sijhoff, Leyden (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), by which twelve of the oldest and most precious Greek and Latin manuscripts were to be reproduced in facsimile, has passed the initial stage. Volume one, 'Vetus Testamentum Graece,' from the Codex Sarriavanus-Colbertinus as dispersed in the libraries of Leyden, Paris, and St. Petersburg, appeared in January. It can still be furnished at forty dollars, but the price will be raised on the appearance of volume two, Codex Bernensis 363, consisting of Horace's Odes, fragments of Ovid's Metamorphoses, etc., including even part of Bede's History. The death of the projector, Dr. W. N. Du Rieu, has led to the engagement of his successor in the headship of the University Library at Leyden, Dr. S. G. De Vries, to carry on the work. The Codex Bernensis requires 394 pages in photogravure, large quarto. Bound in mediæval style, it will be priced at $48.

No one will grudge Mr. Harold Frederic the handsome uniform dress just given by the Scribners to his five novels, 'In the Sixties,' 'In the Valley,' 'The Lawton Girl,' 'Seth's Brother's Wife,' and 'The Damnation of Theron Ware.' The size, typography, and binding are all in excellent taste, and the volumes will adorn the shelves of any library.

The Harpers continue their uniform edition of Thomas Hardy with 'The Well-Beloved: A Sketch of Temperament,' provided with an etched frontispiece by H. Macbeth-Raeburn and a map of Wessex; and their uniform edition of Mark Twain with his 'American Claimant, and Other Stories and Sketches,' in which our old friend Col. Mulberry Sellers has the floor.

Prof. Edward Orton's 'Account of the Descendants of Thomas Orton, of Windsor, Conn., 1641' (Columbus, O.: The Author), is a conscientious and painstaking work, of no great bulk, that commends itself to every member of the clan. It has been composed and arranged, however, in complete indifference to or ignorance of the approved method of genealogic exposition, and is a shining example of how not to do it. Thomas Orton was one of the founders of Farmington, his descendants of Litchfield, Conn. To avoid Gov. Andros's requirement that all New England wills should be probated in Boston, Thomas disposed of his estate in his lifetime, as one may now cheat the odious inheritance tax. Most widely known of his posterity bearing his name have been the late William Orton, the energetic president of the Western Union Telegraph Company, and the late Prof. James Orton, the scientific explorer of South America.

Dr. Osgood Mason's 'Telepathy and the Subliminal Self' (Henry Holt & Co.) is a popularly written book containing a medley of facts in the varied field represented, of telepathy, double consciousness, clairvoyance, and the manifestations of the mysterious generally, in the midst of which the writer is none too discriminating. He seems to accept the hypothesis of the Subliminal Self, which originated with Myers, but does not make it

entirely clear that he fully understands it. The cases cited are trustworthy, and the book is good as far as it goes.

Binet's 'Alterations of Personality' (Appletons) is a work of a very different character. It has been out in the French since 1892, and, though late in appearing in English, it should be warmly welcomed. "It contains," in the words of the Introduction by Prof. Baldwin, "an authoritative statement of the best results by one of the investigators who had done much to discover them. It should have a wide reading by educated persons who are not psychologists, but who yet wish to know the sort of experiments the psychologists and medical men are making in this extraordinary department of investigation."

Not the least of the remarkable developments of the activity of the American Library Association appears in its Annotated Lists, *e. g.*, to quote the title of the first now before us, 'Annotated Bibliography of Fine Arts (Painting, Sculpture, Architecture, Arts of Decoration and Illustration),' by Russell Sturgis and Henry Edward Krehbiel (New York: The Library Bureau, 280 Broadway). This thin octavo volume fills but 89 pages, of which the very minute index by Mrs. Mary E. Haines of Brooklyn demands a sixth part. Nevertheless, a thousand works are here classified and briefly estimated for libraries, clubs, and private students and purchasers. Political economy is to be next taken up by other specialists, during the present year, and American history will not be neglected. No one will question the competence of Messrs. Sturgis and Krehbiel (the latter in the domain of music) to edit such a list as this, which, in the nature of the case, is not to be looked upon as all-inclusive. However, we are surprised to find Riemann's 'History of Music,' the most thorough and up-to-date short work on the subject, omitted.

The Annotated Lists take on an humbler size, for the pocket, and the newest of these is 'Books for Boys and Girls,' selected by Miss Hewins, the well-known head of the Hartford Public Library, who has before done good service in this juvenile department. As in the larger list just noticed, publisher and price are stated, but the date and other bibliographical details are omitted. Books for children under eight or ten have a special mark.

'Les Trois Girondines (Mme. Roland, Charlotte de Corday, Mme. Bouquey) et les Girondins,' by M. Armand Ducos, a grandnephew of the Girondists Ducos and Fonfrède, is an historical study (printed two years ago at Bordeaux, but recently put on the market by Chevalier-Maresq of Paris) of sufficient interest to deserve mention in this place. Besides discourses, candidly enthusiastic and eulogistic, on the character, aspirations, and fate of the Girondists and of the three heroic women who were wedded to their cause and shared their fate, the volume contains a number of historical documents, partly hitherto unpublished, and a complete register (*martyrologe*) of all the members of the Convention designated, properly so or by a wider acceptation of the term, as Girondists — sixty-eight in all, of whom thirty-five were executed, while seven died by their own hands and twenty-six escaped with their lives. In an additional list are given the names of seventy-three other *conventionnels* who suffered imprisonment for protesting against the proscription of the Girondists. The story of the heroic self-sacrifice of Mme. Bouquey in concealing the seven refugees at St.-Émilion is fascinating and at times thrilling. There are several illustrations of the historical places and personages.

The twenty-first annual report of the Trustees of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts shows an approach to equilibrium in its budget, but also the pressing needs for space and endowment which such an institution may always be expected to have. Yet some of the bequests are significant; one, of $93,000, being the larger part of the estate of a long-time grammar-school principal in Boston. The Museum received the land that it occupies from the State, which gives it no moneyed support, nor does the city. Attendance at the Museum notably fell off during the year 1896, and it is suggested that bicycling may have been a partial cause of the decline; we observe, in this connection, that the women visitors to the print-room have disproportionately dropped off. Among the acquisitions of the past year we observe two volumes, from W. J. Linton, containing 200 proofs from blocks of his own engraving or of the assistants or successors of Thomas Bewick. The additions to the classical antiquities, especially by purchase, exceed those of any former period. Some of these have been "published" by Helbig and Michaelis.

Of the Annual Report of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institution for the year ending June 30, 1894, recently published, the Report of the National Museum forms a volume of about 1,050 octavo pages, in which part i., the routine report of the assistant secretary, with lists, etc., occupies nearly one-fourth, and the remainder, part ii., is composed of papers describing and illustrating collections in the museum. All the half-dozen articles in the second section of the volume are of importance in archæology and ethnology. That of Prof. O. T. Mason, of 358 pages and nearly 300 illustrations, on "Primitive Travel and Transportation," is the largest and perhaps of widest interest; "The Swastika," by Thomas Wilson, covers 254 pages, and "A Study of Primitive Methods of Drilling," by J. D. McGuire, 133. The drawings for all of the papers are mainly from objects in the Museum collections, which in this manner are placed within the reach of students to whom they would otherwise be inaccessible.

The First Annual Report of the Commissioners of Fisheries, Game, and Forests of the State of New York, for 1895, a handsome quarto of 376 pages, is well calculated to interest those from whom the commission gets its support and encouragement. The volume is filled with authoritative information concerning the preserves, laws regulating them, the habits, distribution, and abundance of the game in the woods or the waters; this, with the style of make-up and illustrations, will insure the volume welcome and preservation in the library. The commission has evidently been getting the best and making the most of it; but, in connection with the stocked and planted species, we should like to see more efforts toward stocking or planting, or otherwise increasing, supplies of their most acceptable foods, since it is upon these that anything approaching a permanent success must depend. An artist's advertisement on the colored plates grates on the eye like inscriptions that disfigure the scenery in the country.

The State Board of Agriculture of North Carolina has published an interesting volume, 'North Carolina and its Resources' (Raleigh), with many plates, to which the traveller as well as the intending immigrant may refer with profit. The book is written with a justifiable feeling of State pride. The contents in brief are: History, geography, and climate; forests, minerals, and economic interests, including an account of the great piedmont water-powers and their new cotton factories, of trucking on the coastal plain, and of fishing in the sounds, followed by government, education, and "resorts," and closing with a description of individual counties. Many of the illustrations from photographs are remarkably well reproduced.

The second volume of the *Annales* of the Meteorological Observatory of Mont Blanc contains papers on a greater variety of subjects than might be inferred from its title. The director, Joseph Vallot, contributes a record of observations made simultaneously at three stations—Mont Blanc, Grands Mulets, and Chamonix—during 1890, '91, and '92, and also, in a separate paper, describes the difficulties of making scientific observations at great altitudes. There are several memoirs on actinometry, and one on the geological constitution of Mont Blanc. Of special interest to engineers is the description of the application of photography to the survey of the Mont Blanc group, and the account of the progress of the map of this region. The volume contains some interesting illustrations, and the views of the "Cuisine de l'Observatoire" and of the cosey "Chambre du Directeur" seem to show that home comforts are not entirely wanting even on the summit of the Alps. A third volume is announced to appear shortly, and a fourth is in preparation.

The Royal Botanic Garden of Calcutta has published volume 6, part 1, and volume 7 of its Annals, containing descriptions of new and rare Indian plants and of the Bamboos of British India. Both volumes are illustrated by numerous excellent lithographic plates.

The Sociedad Geográfica of Madrid has recently established a Section of Commercial Geography which has begun the publication of a *Revista de Geografía Colonial y Mercantil*. This journal will be devoted to Spanish colonial and commercial interests, and will contain a bibliography and book notices. It is intended to issue eight numbers a year. The first two numbers for 1897 contain timely papers on Cuba and on the Philippine Islands.

The Instituto Geológico de México has just issued a large quarto bulletin giving a geological sketch of the republic ('Bosquejo geológico de México') with sections and a colored map. It must take a valued place in scientific literature. It includes several itineraries by members of the Institute, and a synopsis for the whole country by Director Aguilera, with a special account of the eruptive rocks by Ordónez; the latter parts being fuller statements of the 'Datos para la Geología de México' published in 1893. A very brief table of contents, no index, and a uniform page-heading make it difficult to use this volume as fully as it deserves.

Petermann's Mitteilungen for February opens with an account, by Prof. Andrussow, of the Karabugas or Black Gulf on the eastern shore of the Caspian. It is connected with this sea by a narrow strait some three miles long, through which there is a constant inflowing current. The remarkable salinity of its water seems to be occasioned chiefly by the great evaporation; the common theory of a vast underlying deposit of rock salt not being supported by recent observations. The fishes, which at certain seasons of the year come in from the Caspian in great numbers, speedily die, but some algæ have been found; and there seems little reason to doubt that some of the lower forms of animal life exist

in the gulf. Several charts are given showing the delta-like growth of the connecting channel within the past fifty years. This is followed by a description of the great submarine earthquake last June off the coast of Japan, by which 27,000 people lost their lives.

The *Annales de Géographie* for March contains a statistical paper on Italian emigration, in which it is stated that there are now more than two million Italians in foreign lands. Brazil had, in 1892, a little over, the Argentine Republic a little under, half a million, and France and the United States had each about three hundred thousand. The province of Venice contributes the greatest number, and Rome the least, while the number of permanent emigrants is considerably greater than those who only temporarily leave their homes. The present annual emigration is very nearly equal to the excess of births over deaths. This paper is followed by an account of the geographical results of the Toutée expedition from Dahomey to the middle Niger, and a description of the oases of Touat and their approaches from southern Algeria, apropos of recent military operations in this region. The latter article is accompanied by a map and several illustrations.

The death is announced from Copenhagen of the Danish teacher and novelist Anton Nielsen. Nielsen was born near Fuglebjerg, Zealand, Denmark, May 5, 1827. After teaching in various places he became in 1868 principal of a high school on the island of Fünen, a position which he retained until his retirement some years ago. In addition to his undoubted ability as a writer of peasant stories, Anton Nielsen is of interest as having been the first of the so-called school-teacher writers, a product of the peculiar Danish high-school system. He made his début in 1860 with 'A Mormon Story,' which was followed in quick succession by a number of tales dealing with Zealand peasant life. These books enjoy an immense popularity among the Danish peasantry, for whom they were specially written, and by their close observation and truthful presentation they appeal also to the most cultivated taste. Several years ago Nielsen published a book on this country entitled 'A Summer in America,' which combines the snap and superficiality so frequently found in a tourist's sketch of an unfamiliar land. It is, however, wholly free from the ill nature of many other Scandinavian accounts of us.

—Just as announcement is made that *Bibliographica* draws to an end with another number, the *Zeitschrift für Bücherfreunde* makes its promised appearance (Bielefeld: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The new monthly modestly deprecates any comparison with the "wonderful" elder, but it really fills the line of succession admirably in conception, being as handsome in its way, if not as luxurious, and giving assurance of embodying matter of permanent worth as well as momentary delectation. One always felt that the monographic *Bibliographica* must run out, but we see no reason for anticipating any deficiency in the supply of the *Zeitschrift*. Its pecuniary support is more questionable, if we may trust the introduction, in which the editor ranks Germany behind most other European countries in respect to the passion for fine libraries and the love of books as books. "The most famous bibliophiles of our day," he says, "bear French names," and with the Germans the theatre ticket is more readily purchased than a book. We can but glance at the table of contents of a number which we strongly recommend our readers to examine for themselves. The leading paper, by W. L. Schreiber, is on the Block-book of the Apocalypse, with facsimile illustrations in black and white and in color; the Count zu Leiningen-Westerburg discourses a bit on Ex-Libris, again with pictorial examples, including the present Emperor William's bookplate; The Get-up of Modern Books is the theme of Fedor von Zobeltitz, with more pictures; and we close with mention of Oscar Hecker's account of the fate of Boccaccio's library. This precious collection—classic, Petrarchan, and personal—had largely been accumulated by Boccaccio's laborious copying of manuscripts. His care to prevent its dispersion was frustrated, but Mr. Hecker has had the good fortune, on the heels of other investigators, to find six codices now first identified as Boccaccio's—one (a Statius) pieced out by his own hand, another (an Apuleius) a holograph. The story is romantic, but it defies condensation. Mr. Hecker's success paves the way to further discoveries. He gives facsimiles of the Statius and Apuleius, as well as of the previously known Terence. All are now together in the Laurenzian Library at Florence.

—Mr. T. W. Higginson's "Cheerful Yesterdays" in the *Atlantic* for April, dealing with the "birth of a literature," is of more than usual interest. The literature of which it treats is that of the New England of fifty years since. The article is made more entertaining by appearing in the same number with a very good study of "Bryant's Permanent Contribution to Literature," by Mr. H. D. Sedgwick, jr. The Knickerbocker literature, as contrasted with that in which the most famous names are Emerson, Hawthorne, Whittier, Holmes, Longfellow, and Lowell, was imitative in character; both were animated by the determination to make "our own age and land" "classic to ourselves." The quotation is from a master-of-arts oration of Robert Bartlett of Plymouth, delivered at the Harvard Commencement of 1839. In 1840 the *Dial*, used by Hawthorne according to his own account as a soporific, appeared, and the *Dial* was the herald of a movement in which dulness certainly played no part. The paper carries us back to a condition of society for which no counterpart in any age of the world can probably be found. One of its peculiarities, which we do not recall as a noticed trait of other literary or artistic societies, was its hostility to coarseness of all kinds. Many stories illustrative of the effect of this on foreign visitors have been told, and one or two of them have got into print. Mr. Higginson quotes Fields, who played the part of a New England Murray to the rising authors whose works he published, as saying that he liked Dickens better than Thackeray, "because Thackeray enjoyed telling questionable stories, a thing which Dickens never did." Thackeray was in reality greatly astonished by this quality, which was then an almost unknown thing in any literary coterie. An honest and innocently intellectual world it seems, looking back upon it now, and if the looser manners of the present day have done anything to make the literature of our time better we have not observed it. We take the opportunity of mentioning the fact that Mr. E. L. Godkin's article on the Nominating System is in reality a chapter in a systematic work on Democratic Government, which is now appearing by instalments in the pages of the *Atlantic*.

—*Harper's* opens with an illustrated article by John Bache McMaster on "Washington and the French Craze of '93," accompanied by a high-colored frontispiece of the great banquet given to the illustrious Citizen by his American admirers, at which he was crowned with the liberty cap. The Genet incident, which lasted a long time, and convulsed the country, was a genuine craze, and there is a certain gloomy satisfaction to be got out of recalling the fact that our great-grandfathers could make as great fools of themselves as any of their descendants. If Genet's speeches and letters be examined, they will be found to contain much the same stuff as Bryan's orations of last year were made of—more picturesque, of course, and less vulgar, but based on the same hatred of law and order, and the same wild belief in overturning everything and beginning anew. When a French prize-master held an English prize taken in our waters by a French privateer (the United States being neutral) against the process of our courts, the French consul, a party to the transaction, was dismissed by Washington; on this, Genet wrote to Jefferson that he "declined to admit the validity" of Washington's act, under the Constitution, and added: "I do not recollect what the worm-eaten writings of Grotius, Puffendorff, and Vattel say on the subject. I thank God I have forgotten what these hired jurisprudists have written on the rights of nations, but the fundamental points of your liberty and our own are engraved on my memory, and I demand of you, sir, to ask the President to procure an examination by the Legislature of the sovereign people of Massachusetts." In 1794 he returned to the obscurity from which he had emerged. This was one of our first crazes, and differed perhaps from those of to-day in having been got up and fomented by men of more education than would now allow their names to be connected with such a movement. "From Home to Throne in Belgium," by Clare de Graffenreid, is an illustrated article of some cleverness; Lieut. Richard Mitchell's "Our Trade into South America" is one of the "new navy" articles, which always suggest the question why, if these young gentlemen are always so much interested as they seem to be in trade and commerce or law and railroads, they do not stay on land and go into some peaceful pursuit.

—In *Scribner's*, Mr. Lewis Morris Iddings has another article on the Art of Travel, accompanied by illustrations. This time he deals with the subject of ocean-crossings, a matter as to which Baedeker gives little advice. Mr. Iddings, who is not a sentimentalist, defends the system of fees, and explains a good many points with regard to them that are worth considering. He insists, very justly, that the only comfortable frame of mind towards the servants who minister to the traveller, is the same indifference which they cultivate toward him. This attitude, he thinks, comes naturally only to those who are of an ancestry accustomed to personal service, and he declares that "a kind word does not touch them." According to our experience, that depends a great deal on the servants. There is almost as much difference among them as there is among their superiors. English servants, whom he perhaps has in mind, differ altogether from Germans or Italians. F. B. Sanborn's "Odysseus and Trelawney" (illustrated) is a paper which contains a good many facts about two characters now almost forgotten, and a description of the once famous cave which served as their headquarters in

Greece. There seems to be no doubt that, hero or not, Odysseus was not above a crime on occasion, and, *pace* Mr. Sanborn, this does not detract from, but rather tends to heighten, romance.

—The *Century* is a serious magazine, and the current number has a character of almost funereal pomp, owing to its being a Grant number. There is a Grant Tomb frontispiece, and a letter containing Gen. Sherman's opinion of Gen. Grant; then there is a depressing picture of the General "and party" at the Bonanza mines, equipped for the descent; then comes Gen. Horace Porter's Campaigning with Grant; this is followed by another article by Gen. Porter on the Tomb, while we have also a facsimile of Grant's despatch to Halleck, in which "I propose to fight it out on this line if it takes all summer" occurred; an article on Grant and Buckner called "A Blue and Gray Friendship," by John R. Procter, and finally an article, half a page in length, on "A Veto by Grant," by John A. Kasson. This is a very creditable preparation for "Grant Day," but somewhat diminishes the space available for the treatment of other topics. "Thackeray in Weimar," by Walter Vulpius, is the most noticeable literary paper.

—M. Alidor Delzant, having already shown what sympathetic appreciation could achieve in dealing with the papers left by Paul de Saint Victor to his literary executors, has done a similar work in his preparation of two catalogues of books left by Edmond de Goncourt to be sold at auction under the clause in his will cited at length in our last issue. One catalogue covers the collection of tracts and out-of-the-way books concerning the eighteenth century—the tools, M. Delzant calls them, of the Goncourts, who certainly deserve to share with Arsène Houssaye the credit of having "almost invented" the eighteenth century. The second catalogue is remarkable for the number of presentation copies which it contains—special editions, often of one, three, or five copies on large paper, and accompanied by various flattering tributes to the inseparable brothers; and it contains the works of almost every writer who has achieved fame in France since 1870. The citations and hints, so carefully scattered through both of these catalogues by M. Delzant, do more than anything else could to explain the remarkable influence exercised by the brothers upon the recent course of literature in France; and, taken together with M. Delzant's own book, 'Les Goncourts,' published eight years since, these catalogues are invaluable aids in solving many of the riddles of the modern French school of whimsical and esoteric moods in literature and life. Edmond de Goncourt jotted down upon title-pages and fly-leaves in his eighteenth-century books brief characterizations and swift moods that came to him while at work. Of these, M. Delzant has given the most illuminating, and has added here and there touches from 'La Maison d'un Artiste,' serving to complete an impression which has the "actuality" without the lack of significance attaching to an instantaneous photograph.

—Some of Edmond de Goncourt's comments exhibit an almost scientific detachment in the appreciation in detail of manners and tastes of the eighteenth century. In one book he notes that it "contains out-of-the-way information as to aristocratic family and social life." Genard's 'School of Man' (1752) he characterizes as "a sort of eighteenth-century La Bruyère." One of his treasures is an autograph letter of Caffieri the sculptor, "an unpublished document in which the sculptor records the prices paid him for statues and busts." In a pamphlet on curios we find noted that it is "the most instructive account of the taste for curios in the eighteenth century." Another book is declared to be "full of the deepest interest as to the cost of living and of maintaining a Parisian establishment in 1700," and Goncourt jots down his delight in "a catalogue of the most charming bits of preciousness (*jolités*) of the eighteenth century." But there is no lack in Goncourt's light and airy notes of a certain whimsicality which has been inherited and exaggerated by the *Décadents* and the Symbolists, who plainly have taken their cue from the Goncourts without precisely understanding them. There is, perhaps, a touch of irresponsible trifling in Edmond de Goncourt's flashes of joy over bygone auction-sales, fashion-books, small talk about actresses, dancers, picture-dealers, and the like, which indicates that he may have much to answer for. Still, these things in him are redeemed by real lightness of touch, as in his characterization of one book as "Livre fou de la plus grande rareté," or where he jots down in 'Le Maître à danser,' "From this rare book we learn that Louis XIV. of blessed memory could dance *la courante* better than any one else at his court"; or, again, when he says, apropos of six autograph letters of the painter Périé-Candeille, "One of these contains a curious postscriptum concerning Candeille's beard—that historic beard which so amazed his contemporaries." Goncourt piously notes in a pamphlet entitled 'Les Modes' (1797), "This is a very rare booklet, in which my coquettish maternal grandmother is delicately satirized for her eccentric costumes," and he absolutely gloats over possessing one of the only two extant copies of the published inventory of this same Mme. de Courmont's bric-à-brac. Both of the brothers treasured various sumptuously bound plans of the house once occupied in Paris by their grandfather Huon de Goncourt. The catalogues also bear evidence of a special interest taken in the two Paters, Jean Baptiste and Antoine, as well as in Watteau, which serves to remind us of certain points of contact between the brothers Goncourt and the profounder spirit of Walter Pater.

DALTON AND THE ATOMIC THEORY.

John Dalton and the Rise of Modern Chemistry. By Sir Henry E. Roscoe. Macmillan.

A New View of the Origin of Dalton's Atomic Theory. By Henry E. Roscoe and Arthur Harden. Macmillan. 1896.

JOHN DALTON, the author of the modern atomic theory, was born in the little Cumberland village of Eaglesfield in September, 1766, and died in Manchester in 1844. Several accounts of his life have been published, and to one of them, that by Dr. Lonsdale, which appeared in 1874 as one of a series of "Lives of Cumberland Worthies," Prof. Roscoe acknowledges his indebtedness, and, following "where he has led," hopes to "place before a somewhat larger audience than he appealed to, and in a more condensed form, the chief points of interest in John Dalton's life, both as a man and as a chemist." The result is before us in the small volume of some two hundred pages whose title is first of those which stand at the head of this review, and we may say at once that it is a very satisfactory and graphic narrative of the man and his work.

Dalton's parents were Quakers; his father a poor hand-loom weaver, "a 'feckless' kind of man"; his mother being the stronger character, from whom he doubtless "inherited much of his peculiar power." Dalton received his first instruction in the village school from a Quaker schoolmaster, who "was evidently a superior kind of man, and not one of the old sort who hammered the Latin grammar into the boys' heads by a process of birching elsewhere." The boy was fortunate in attracting the attention of this master and in winning the interest of Mr. Elihu Robinson, a Quaker gentleman of means and of unusual scientific and literary ability, who happened to be resident in the remote Cumberland village. The boy was not brilliant or quick, but possessed tenacity of purpose, and already showed the germs of that power of abstract thought which afterwards made him famous. Mr. Robinson assisted him in his studies, and under this tutorage young Dalton was stimulated to such progress that he "began about twelve to teach the village school, and continued it two years"—a school containing pupils of all ages from infants to boys and girls of sixteen or seventeen. After this experience, he spent a year in farm labor, with problems set by Mr. Robinson for his diversion in the long evenings, and then joined his older brother at Kendal as assistant in a school for Friends, of which a cousin of the Daltons was principal. Four years later the brothers succeeded to the management of the school, and in 1793, after twelve years of teaching at Kendal, Dalton went to Manchester to take a position in the new academy or college which had been founded by Manchester Presbyterians in protest against the religious exclusiveness of the English universities—for at that time the doors of both Oxford and Cambridge were closed to Unitarians and Quakers. This position Dalton held for only six years, and then, at the age of thirty-three, he resigned in order to devote himself to scientific research, maintaining himself by giving private lessons in mathematics and natural philosophy at two shillings a lesson. His method of teaching was one that took little time from his own work, "for, having set his pupils to their lessons, and having given them a hint how to proceed, he would leave them pretty much alone, believing in the doctrine, which he had practised throughout his life, that self-education is the only true one." In addition to his tutoring, he did some work as professional or consulting chemist, and frequently gave courses of lectures in Manchester, and, as his fame grew, in London, Edinburgh, and elsewhere. Manchester was his home through the remainder of his life, and he died there at the age of seventy-eight.

An undemonstrative, silent man, "Dalton never took part in any social, much less any political matters; his interests and energies were wholly absorbed by his scientific work. Asked by some one why he did not take part in public affairs, he replied, as he had done on the subject of marriage, 'Oh, I never had time!'" He was not churlish or selfish, but

"was wanting in the larger sympathies engendered by a liberal and academic education. As in his science, so in his social relations, he worked in a narrow groove, and scarcely understood or appreciated action of a wider character. Self-reliant, and firm in his own opinion to the verge of obstinacy, he put little trust in the work of others. He discouraged the proposal of the Council of the Manchester Society to found what has now become one of the most complete libraries of periodical scientific literature in the kingdom, by saying, 'I could carry all the books I ever had on my head.'

. . . He was not a brilliant exponent of scientific truth; . . . some of his expressions were uncouth and scarcely appropriate to the subject. Thus, for instance, Dalton generally spoke of 'the great elements, oxygen, nitrogen, and hydrogen, which pervade all nature, as *these articles;* describing their qualities with far less earnestness than a London linen draper would show in commending the very different *articles* which lie on his shelves.'

"But the originality of his ideas and the importance of the facts he had discovered gained him acceptance as lecturer at the Royal Institution, before whose critical audiences, accustomed to the eloquence of Davy and the refinement of Wollaston, he gave two courses, in 1803–4 and 1809–10. On the first occasion he made the acquaintance of Davy, of whom he writes, 'He is a very agreeable and intelligent young man, and we have interesting conversations in an evening. The principal failing in his character is that he does not smoke.'"

Dalton's simplicity and plainness of speech receive a good illustration in an anecdote of his presentation to King William the Fourth. Asked what he thought of the King and what he had said, "Dalton replied that the King asked him, 'Well, Dr. Dalton, how are you getting on in Manchester—all quiet, I suppose?' To which he said, 'Well, I don't know—just middlin', I think.'" Taken to task by his friend for his lack of court manners, Dalton said, "Mebby sae; but what can yan say to sic like fowk?"

In person, Dalton was robust and muscular, and slightly above average height. Dr. Lonsdale says:

"The massive contour of Dalton's head impresses you with the stamp of intellectual power and a capacity for the highest of human efforts. His prominent evebrows shaded the deep-set eyes of quick discernment. . . . In his marked nose, rather massive jaws, and firm, deep chin, you saw the sturdy race of the 'north countrie,' not altogether free from an air of severity at times; these, however, were somewhat toned down by lips less masculine than usual, and a physiognomy that offered blandness as well as firmness and penetration."

Many honors came to Dalton in later life; in 1822 he became a Fellow of the Royal Society, having refused to make the necessary application earlier, though urged to do so by Davy twelve years before; membership in foreign academies was conferred on him, and in 1830 he was elected foreign associate of the French Academy; Oxford gave him the degree of D.C.L. in 1832; and a Civil-Service pension was granted him in 1833—a sum of £150 a year "by the richest nation on earth to the most gifted of persons and the chief scientific leader of his epoch," as Lonsdale says. In Manchester his memory is preserved by a fine statue which stands in the entrance to the Town Hall with one of his great pupil and follower, Joule, and by a scholarship fund of £4,000 which was raised by public subscription in 1853 for the encouragement of scientific research.

Dalton was a philosopher rather than an experimenter. His apparatus, "a collection of old penny ink-bottles, of rough home-made thermometers and barometers, his small balance and weights," etc., was crude even at that time, and, when every allowance is made for the inadequacy of his resources, "it is evident that there must have been some inherent deficiency, either in his mind or his hands, which disqualified him for accuracy in experimentation." It is a striking proof of the keenness of his philosophic vision that he nevertheless usually reached explanations of the phenomena he investigated which have stood the test of time.

His first scientific work was in meteorology, and when he went to Manchester he took with him the manuscript of a volume of 'Meteorological Observations and Essays' which was published in 1793 and, in a second and enlarged edition, forty years later. It was a remarkable production for a young, self-taught country schoolmaster. His interest in meteorology continued unabated throughout his life, and his observations were kept up till the last—the final entry in his note book, the evening before his death, being, "Little rain this day." This interest led him naturally to the study of the physical and chemical properties of gases, which resulted in a number of important papers, and finally in the discovery of the laws which are known by his name, and in the atomic theory.

As is well known, Dalton was almost the first to call scientific attention to the peculiarity of vision which often goes by the name of "Daltonism." The story is that, having purchased a pair of fine silk stockings as a present for his mother, she exclaimed, "Thou hast bought me a pair of grand hose, John, but what made thee fancy such a bright color? Why, I can never show myself at meeting in them, . . . they're as red as a cherry, John." Her disconcerted son, to whose eyes the color was a very proper go-to-meeting one, a dark-bluish drab, thought "the old lady's sight was strangely out of order," until a consultation with the neighbors confirmed his mother's opinion that they were "uncommon scarlety." This incident, which first opened his eyes to his color-blindness, occurred when he was twenty-six. He had of course miscalled colors often before, but his friends had taken it as a jest. He now studied the matter seriously, but came to the erroneous conclusion that "one of the humors of my eye, and of the eyes of my fellows, is a *colored* medium, probably some modification of blue."

An atomic view of the constitution of matter has obtained from the most ancient times of which we have records. Newton believed that matter was composed of "solid, massy, hard, impenetrable, movable particles, . . . so very hard as never to wear or break in pieces, . . . compound bodies being apt to break, not in the midst of solid particles, but where those particles are laid together and only touch at a few points." Dalton's mind "was thoroughly saturated with the Newtonian doctrine of atoms. . . . In his volume on Meteorology" was contained "the first germ of his atomic theory, because he viewed the gases as consisting of independent atoms." While Dalton was not, and indeed never pretended to be, the discoverer of the first atomic theory, he was the author of *the* Atomic Theory, which is a definite and quantitative extension of the older atomic notions in such a way as to give an adequate explanation of the facts of chemical composition and reaction, and which has served as the substantial basis for the marvellous development of chemical science during this century. "For him the atoms, 'hard, impenetrable, movable,' had as actual existence as if he had seen and handled them; . . . he steps on to the conclusion that the sizes of the atoms of different gases must be different, and 'it became an object to determine their relative sizes and weights.'" It is scarcely accurate to say that "he was the first to introduce the idea of quantity into chemistry." That had been done many years before by Lavoisier; but Dalton gave a new and precise meaning to the quantitative relations in his laws of definite and multiple proportions, and his atomic theory.

Dalton's discovery was brought to the general attention of the world, not by the author himself, but by Prof. Thomson of Glasgow, who visited Manchester in 1804 and became an ardent disciple of the new doctrine, which he at once taught in his lecture-room and included in his text-book in 1807. In his 'History of Chemistry,' Thomson gives an account of the origin of the theory, according to which it grew out of the endeavor to explain the laws of definite and multiple proportions which had been previously discovered by experiment; and as no account of the genesis of his ideas is found in any of the writings Dalton published, Thomson's statement has been generally accepted, though made the subject of considerable criticism and discussion. The matter appears to be finally settled by the present volume on the origin of Dalton's atomic theory. In it are published a large number of laboratory and lecture notes, and many letters which, strangely enough, have been overlooked all these years and have only recently been discovered among the Dalton papers in the possession of the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society. These show that the atomic theory antedates the laws of chemical combination, and that the latter were deductions from it, instead of serving as the suggestive facts from which it came. From these documents it appears that

"the idea of atomic structure arose in Dalton's mind as a purely physical conception, forced upon him by his study of the physical properties of the atmosphere and other gases. Confronted, in the course of this study, with the problem of ascertaining the relative diameters of the particles, of which, he was firmly convinced, all gases were made up, he had recourse to the results of chemical analysis. Assisted by the assumption that combination always takes place in the simplest possible way, he thus arrived at the idea that chemical combination takes place between particles of different weights. . . . The extension of this idea to substances in general necessarily led him to the law of combination in multiple proportions, and the comparison with experiment brilliantly confirmed the truth of his deduction. Once discovered, the principle of atomic union was found to be of universal application."

An Editor's Retrospect. Fifty Years of Newspaper Work. By Charles A. Cooper, Editor of the *Scotsman*. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THERE is a certain amount of padding in this book, but otherwise it is made up of excellent stuff. The padding, indeed, is not the worst of its kind, and, moreover, it is easily separated from what is of real merit, so that it is as little objectionable as possible. The substantial part of the book consists of an extremely interesting and instructive account of the development of the "provincial" newspapers of Great Britain, interspersed with very intelligent comments on political movements and their leaders. We shall plunge *in medias res* with a quotation which throws more light on the state of the provincial press half a century ago than could be got from many pages of elucidation.

"I remember," says Mr. Cooper, "one weekly paper in the provinces that recorded the *Coup d'Etat* in France thus: 'President Louis Napoleon has put down the French Republic. It is reported that he will be proclaimed Emperor. This may be of great importance to France.' Alongside of this announcement was a three-column report of a squabble in a Board of Guardians, and a learned leading article on that squabble."

This, Mr. Cooper assures us, was no exceptional case. Daily papers did not exist out-

side of London. Weekly papers answered the wants of readers except in a few large towns, where papers were published twice or three times a week. This was partly because of the stamp and paper duties, but principally because the difficulties of travel and communication before the days of railways and telegraphs confined most people's curiosity to local affairs. Since the removal of these obstacles to the diffusion of intelligence, Mr. Cooper declares—and he is evidently a most competent witness—journalism outside of London has made vastly greater strides than journalism in London. In culture, in intelligent discussion of current events, in the collection of news, in all that goes to the making of "good journalism," he assures us that the growth in the provinces has surpassed that in the capital.

In consequence of this growth the newspapers outside of London have come to have more influence in such a matter as a general election than newspapers in London. The public opinion of the London clubs may not reflect the views of the electors-at-large. In 1880, Mr. Cooper tells us, he had a conversation with Mr. John Morley about the general election of that year. The leading London papers had all predicted a triumph for Lord Beaconsfield. Mr. Cooper maintained that Mr. Gladstone would have a large majority. He told Mr. Morley that he had diligently read the provincial papers—those of Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, Birmingham, Bristol, and others; and their tone, and the reports of proceedings which they gave, had convinced him that the London papers were wrong in their anticipations. The event proved that he was right. No newspaper of standing in the country now takes its news or its opinions at second hand from London papers. The telegraph annihilates distances, and statesmen are quite as anxious to keep in communication with the editors of the leading country papers as with those of the capital.

Concerning the growth of the telegraphic service, Mr. Cooper has much that is interesting to tell; and he well may, for he had much to do with it. A quarter of a century ago the telegraphic news in a paper outside of London rarely exceeded a column in length. It is now a common thing for the *Scotsman* to go to press for weeks together with thirty to forty columns of news that has been telegraphed. The history of this paper is an epitome of the history of modern journalism in Great Britain. It began in 1816 as a weekly, and its price was tenpence a copy, which consisted of eight small pages of three columns each. In 1823 it began to be published twice a week, and in 1831 it was somewhat enlarged. In 1855, when the stamp tax was removed, it became a daily, and it now contains from 64 to 128 columns, the advertisements often occupying 80 columns. In short, the paper is now ten times as large as when it was started, while its price has fallen to one-tenth of the original figure. So late as 1855 its circulation was only 3,400 copies. In 1877 it had increased to 50,000, and it is now much greater.

Such success does not come without merit, and Mr. Cooper takes an honest pride in narrating the steps by which the circulation of the *Scotsman* was extended. They were all legitimate and honorable measures, altogether foreign to the methods of our "new journalism." There were struggles with the incompetency and red tape of the telegraph managers, and with the stupidity and conservatism of the railroad managers. There was a prolonged struggle with the leaders and officers of the House of Commons in order to secure accommodation for reporters of the debates in Parliament. There was room in the gallery for only a certain number of these reporters, and it took twelve years for Mr. Cooper to establish the proposition that the gallery might be enlarged. A personal interview with Mr. Gladstone finally brought the change about.

In his judgments of political movements and statesmen Mr. Cooper displays great sagacity, and we are much inclined to think that he will be found to have anticipated the verdict of history. As a statesman and as an orator he places John Bright first. To know him—and Mr. Cooper knew him intimately—was a liberal education. He has preserved a number of Mr. Bright's observations, made in the freedom of friendly talk, and they justify the claim that no statesman was ever more nearly right in all that he did and proposed than John Bright. It is an old sneer that no speech in Parliament ever changed a vote; but Mr. Cooper describes one of John Bright's speeches urging the Government to try some other means of regulating Irish affairs besides that of repression, and emphatically declares that he has never doubted that from that speech have sprung many, if not most, of the remedial measures for Ireland that have been passed of late years. Yet when the speech began, there were probably not twenty men in a crowded house that did not think Bright was making mischief.

Mr. Cooper admires and appreciates Gladstone; but he evidently agrees with Bright's estimate of him, the chief points of which we shall quote. Bright did not underestimate his power. "He is an honest man," he said; "he believes what he says. The worst of it is that he too readily believes what he wishes to believe." To Mr. Cooper's question whether that was not something like self-deceit, Mr. Bright replied; "No. Mr. Gladstone sees an object which he thinks of vital importance, and he turns in all directions for arguments in support of it. He finds them, and he becomes unconscious of anything outside of them. That is not self-deceit." To the objection that it was a dangerous quality in a statesman to be able to see only that side of a question which he wished to see, Mr. Bright replied that every man who had done anything great in the world had been of that constitution. "You cannot do a great thing," he concluded, "if you have doubts of your own position and reasons."

It is instructive to read Mr. Cooper's remarks on Mr. Gladstone's later political career, but we cannot reproduce them. Like most of what he has written, they are well worthy of attention, and characterized by robust good sense. We have marked many other quotable passages, but our readers will do well to get them at first hand. We shall be surprised if they do not, like us, finish their perusal of Mr. Cooper's "Retrospect" with a very hearty admiration and respect for the genial author, and with a sincere regret that editors of his type are not more common on this side of the Atlantic.

Trooper Peter Halket of Mashonaland. By Olive Schreiner. Boston: Roberts Bros.

THIS latest contribution to the South African controversy is, properly speaking, not a novel, but a humanitarian tract, half narrative and half allegory. By whatever name, it is a remarkable and opportune production, picturing, as it does, simultaneously with Cecil Rhodes's cynical testimony before the Parliamentary Committee, his unscrupulous and heartless rule, in strong corroboration of the tales which Mr. Labouchere's *Truth* and other papers have been making current for a year past.

Miss Schreiner's story, in brief, is this. Peter Halket is a youth who has left England to seek his fortune in South Africa, and has finally drifted into one of the Chartered Company's mounted troops, from whom he strays by accident one night into the wilderness. Having lit a fire for comfort and safety, he sits by it musing alternately on the innocence of his boyhood life with his hard-worked mother, and on their gorgeous old age in a house in Hyde Park, built by the millions he will have made in the shares of a bubble company of his own, such as he sees rising and bursting every day about him. His meditations are interrupted by the mysterious arrival of a Jewish stranger "clad in one loose linen garment, reaching lower than his knees, and which clung close about him"; bareheaded, and with old scars upon his hands and feet. To this stranger, whom he does not at first recognize as Jesus, the trooper confides with most naïf frankness the sordid life he leads, and the base ambitions that rule him. He has shot many negroes, quite as a part of ordinary routine, and has lived with negro women; but the floggings and hangings, which some of his fellows think are "the best fun out," turn his stomach. He is nevertheless hardened to the summary brutality of the stronger to the weaker race—they are mere "niggers," and rebels into the bargain. His ideals are all of riches and power. "If God Almighty came to this country, and hadn't half a million in shares," he tells the vision, "they wouldn't think much of him." "Why, you might as well say, sitting there in your old linen shirt, that you were as great as Rhodes, or Beit, or Barnato, or a King."

When he has completed his gruesome narrative, with a simplicity that carries conviction with it, the spirit tells him of having been present at all the outrages of which he had spoken, and of others of which Peter Halket had not known. He brings before him the cruelty and greed of the whites, contrasted with the heroism of the hunted blacks, and of some, among their persecutors, who dare to stand out against the Chartered Company, with loss of wealth, and social ostracism. The trooper is naturally tender-hearted, and in the end comes entirely under the sway of the spirit. On his return to his troop, he interferes on behalf of a wounded Matabele, whose hiding-place had been discovered, and who had been lashed to a tree with leather thongs, preparatory to shooting him the next day. This interference makes the Captain of the troop—a sort of Legree—furious, and he details Halket himself to act as executioner. Halket balks him by contriving the poor wretch's escape, and is shot dead by the Captain during the confusion attending on it. The book ends with the sinister remark of an Englishman who had been the impotent spectator of this tragedy: "There is no God in Mashonaland."

The conclusion would seem warranted if the black picture of life in the Cape country which Miss Schreiner gives us were unrelieved by any hope of escape from swindling companies, brutal dragoons, cruel taskmasters, and covetous speculators. Certainly it behooves England to look into the reports that come thence of forced labor in the mines, summary executions in the field, maltreatment and spoliation, to which the negro has been subjected by the British settlers; and this book

will bring such infamies before the British reader, not in the dry, statistical form of an investigating committee's report, but with such realism as to make him stamp his foot and clench his fist with indignation. Nor does the text need the confirmation of the dreadful frontispiece—a photograph of a number of Englishmen hanging three Matabeles. It would be too much to expect of Mr. W. P. Schreiner's sister that she should have patience with Cecil Rhodes; but her abhorrence of him knows no limit. She scourges him through the book—by name and allusively—with scorpion whips. Beit and Barnato come in for contemptuous reference, but Rhodes is damned utterly.

"He's death on niggers, is Rhodes. They say if we had the British Government here and a nigger died while you were thrashing him, there'd be an investigation, and all that sort of thing. But with Cecil it's all right; you can do what you like with the niggers provided you don't get *him* into trouble."

Rhodes wants to have a law passed legalizing flogging, and virtually establishing slavery. "'*I prefer land to niggers*,' he says." He is worth eight millions, and fears neither God nor man. "If you had five or six millions, you could go where you liked and do what you liked. You could go to Sandringham." "'There is not one man or woman in South Africa I cannot buy with my money. When I have the Transvaal I shall buy Almighty God himself, if I care to.'"

The Life of Sir Kenelm Digby. By One of his Descendants. With illustrations. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

ALTHOUGH the first Duke of Buckingham was a political foe of the Digby family, Dryden's lines on his son are just fitted to the versatile Sir Kenelm:

> "A man so various that he seemed to be
> Not one, but all mankind's epitome."

Like Zimri, too, Sir Kenelm Digby "was everything by starts and nothing long." He was one of those exceptional beings to whom fortune and nature have opened up the possibility of an eclectic career, and who, without achieving great distinction in any single field, have been known to many classes of their contemporaries by a wide variety of achievement. The seventeenth century presents several specimens of this type, but none of them "swung round the circle" more completely than Sir Kenelm Digby did. He was the hero of Scanderoon, the husband of Venetia Anastasia Stanley, the chancellor of Henrietta Maria, the friend of Cromwell, a founder of the Royal Society, and a dilettante in theological discussion. Starting in life with birth, wealth, physical prowess, and good manners, he made use of all these advantages. His father had been executed for high treason, and Sir Kenelm, while brave in the fighting of duels, took care not to be caught on the wrong side in politics.

The present author, who owns to 500 articles in the *Saturday Review*, knows well enough that he has not produced a final biography of his ancestor, and utters a subdued *peccavi* in the preface. We hasten to assure him that he has been very entertaining, and that if he has "found it necessary to make a few deliberate omissions," he has at least gained one of his ends. Writing, like John Lyly and Lord Macaulay, for women as well as for men, he has produced a volume which they can read with perfect safety. Our strongest adverse criticism is that he has depended too much on the "Private Memoirs." Of course they must be used, but they are so fantastic that one should distinguish more closely than has been done between what in them is *Wahrheit* and what *Dichtung*.

The loves of Sir Kenelm Digby and Venetia Stanley form the *pièce de résistance* of this biographical sketch. They began early and suffered many vicissitudes, among which, besides assaults of time and absence, we are bound to include a certain amount of unfaithfulness on both sides. Our author seems to hold a brief for the lady, and impugns Aubrey's gossip with much vigor. Very likely she was not so loose as she has often been painted, but Sir Kenelm's euphuistic declarations must suffer a large discount before we reach a just appreciation of her virtues. Of one thing, however, there can be no doubt, namely, the intensity of Digby's affection for her, and her right to stand out prominently in these pages. Sir Kenelm's sympathetic powder, conversion to Catholicism, and political intrigues meant much less to him than the tie of mutual sympathy which linked him with Venetia Stanley.

We are inclined to think that Digby owed his success (for, in spite of manifold vagaries, he was successful) to social rather than to intellectual aptitudes. Intellectually he spread himself thin over a large area, and his scientific attainments were by no means exceptional even among men of fashion. Prince Rupert, for instance, had much wider experimental knowledge than Sir Kenelm. Physical bulk, with natural grace and courtly training superadded, were of more service to him in a public character than the lore which he pretended to possess. We may allow him a sincere interest in physics and medicine, but he probably did not rise above the average aristocratic F.R.S. of his time. The lines which Dryden in the "Annus Mirabilis" devotes to the Royal Society are only just ridiculous enough to fit Sir Kenelm's antics in producing a nostrum compounded of "mosse of a ded man's hed" and "oyle of roses." Cromwell's fancy for him depended on wider considerations than a mere interest in natural science. Digby was a man of the world, extremely agreeable and full of diplomatic information. Unless we are much mistaken, he was an agent of the Commonwealth in France. It has hitherto been held that his friendship with the Protector was due chiefly to their common fancy for the Verulamian philosophy. The present anonymous author has been at some pains to consult S. R. Gardiner with reference to their intercourse, and we quote a passage relating to the reply of that distinguished authority:

"Professor Gardiner quoted letters written by Bordeaux, stating that he had been informed by Sir Kenelm Digby that, from a conversation with Cromwell, he understood the Protector's sentiments to be friendly to France, and that the extensive naval preparations which he was then making had not been undertaken with any hostile intentions towards that country. This is very important, as it makes it possible that Sir Kenelm's notorious negotiations and intimacy with Cromwell may have been very much more on behalf of the French Government than of the English Catholics, which would place his conduct in a different light."

Sir Kenelm Digby is altogether a singular personage, and one who is more easily censured than understood. Amidst constant shuffling and coat-turning he kept a certain standard of honor before his eyes, and may have believed himself a *preux chevalier*. With his comings and goings, his loves and his duels, his studies and his intrigues, he is an attractive figure in the events of seventeenth-century England. There were many better men, both among the Cavaliers and the Roundheads, whom the lover of picturesque history could more easily spare. We do not regard this biography to be a complete record when judged from the standpoint of fact, but it shows close familiarity with time and subject, and is often suggestive. We very much doubt whether Sir Kenelm Digby will ever be written of in more lively strain.

A Handbook of Greek Constitutional History. By A. H. J. Greenidge. Macmillan Co. 1896.

THE English reader can certainly no longer complain of lack of aids in the study of Greek political antiquities. Not to speak of the translations and editions of the 'Politics' by Jowett, Hicks and Susemihl, and Newman, or of Sandys's copious commentary on the 'Αθηναίων Πολιτεία,' he has the recent handbook of Gilbert, the succinct manual of Jevons, and a number of bird's-eye views and special studies like Mr. Warde Fowler's 'City State of the Greeks and Romans,' Dr. Botsford's 'Athenian Constitution,' Mr. Headlam's 'Election by Lot,' and Mr. Whibley's 'Greek Oligarchies.'

In this embarrassment of riches there was still room for the judicious and readable summary now put forth by Mr. Greenidge in his 'Handbook of Greek Constitutional History,' the second volume, if we mistake not, of the Macmillan Handbooks of Archæology and Antiquities. Mr. Greenidge is an enthusiastic admirer of the Greek constitutions as symmetrical works of art, typical products of the ingenious and subtle Greek mind, which he prefers to study not in the "brilliant personalities that strut across the stage and blot out the constitution," but in the gradual, unconscious shaping of institutions by the political genius of the people. He endeavors, without neglecting historical development or the technical description of structure, to illustrate more fully than is usually done in elementary treatises the actual working of constitutional machinery. Two ideas at least, not new of course, but too often lost sight of amid erudite detail, the young student will take away from this book: First, that the democratic constitution of Athens, with its complicated and delicate, yet thoroughly practical, mechanism, and its enormous demands on the intelligence and versatility of the average citizen, was one of the most marvellous instruments of the education of an entire people that the world has ever seen. And, secondly, that while there is perhaps no other example in history of so consistent and logical a working out of the principle of government of the people by the people, that fierce democracy knew very well how to establish checks and balances to distinguish its whim from its will. We are too apt to forget the existence of these checks in contemplation of the occasional excesses of excited assemblies under stress of war or revolution. But normally the legislative power of the people was exercised under conditions that insured the judicial consideration of every measure, and the γραφὴ παρανόμων, or indictment for proposing unconstitutional legislation, may, without exceeding the license of historic parallels, be compared in its practical operation to the similar functions of our own Supreme Court.

Mr. Greenidge wisely omits all controversial reference to modern authorities, and contents himself with brief indications of the

original sources for all important statements. He wastes very little time over insoluble prehistoric problems, or in refining on the refinements of the Platonic and Aristotelian classifications of forms of government. After a brief introduction, he traces the early development of Greek political life through monarchy, aristocracy, and tyranny to constitutional government. A chapter on colonization, international law, and the great amphictyonies brings the narrative down to the point where the special study of particular constitutions may be profitably begun. Accepting the simple classification of the average Greek citizen—oligarchy, democracy, and mixed government—he then proceeds to summarize the scanty tradition concerning the oligarchies of Corinth, Thebes, and Thessaly, and gives a brief but sufficient description of the mixed constitutions of Sparta and Crete.

The second and more interesting half of the book is devoted to the Constitution of Athens, with supplementary sections on the Athenian empire, the democracies of Argos, Syracuse, and Rhodes, the experiments of the Greeks in federal government, and the continued life and civilizing rôle of the Greek Polis under Hellenistic and Roman rule. If the promise of the title-page could have been extended to include a few additional pages of detail about Attic Law, the chapters on Athens would have contained all that the undergraduate college student needs, or at least is likely to know, of political and legal antiquities. "Science" and formal completeness, of course, require the other chapters, but only specialists are concerned with the Constitution of Sparta or of any of the minor Greek states that have left us no literature replete with political allusion. Mr. Greenidge is apparently sceptical as to the Aristotelian authorship of the 'Politeia.' The Draconian Constitution he considers a late political forgery, in the interest of the revolution of the year 411. He disbelieves totally in the part assigned to Themistocles in the attack on the Areopagus. An appendix argues for the existence and predominant political significance as party leader of a president of the College of Strategi.

Serious errors or omissions are rare. We miss a reference to Plato occasionally, notably in the chapter on international law. The statement, on page 58, that, in Aristotle's view, government in Greece rested on public opinion and must be "accepted by the masses, whose power in the last resort decided the fate of the Constitution," is not borne out by the passages cited in the footnote. Two of them are wholly irrelevant, merely stating that even in an oligarchy the majority (of the members of the oligarchy) rules; while the third declares that, to insure the stability of a government, it is necessary that the part of the city which favors its maintenance be "stronger" than that which desires its overthrow. In this citation (1296 b) πολιτείας is erroneously printed for πόλεως. Mr. Greenidge's accents are not to be trusted. In a hasty perusal we note errors on pages 14, 15, 20, 22, 63, 80, 111, 131, 134, 150, 197, 209, 211. The style is generally sober and lucid. But "upkeep" is a freak, and "metoec" a pedantry.

Tombouctou la Mystérieuse. Par Félix Dubois. Illustré. Paris: E. Flammarion; New York: Brentano's. 1897. Pp. 420, 8vo.

Timbuctoo the Mysterious. By Felix Dubois. Translated from the French by Diana White. Longmans, Green & Co. Illustrated. Pp. 377, 8vo.

THE title of this book does not do full justice to its contents. The account of Timbuctoo is surpassed even in novel interest by the description of the new and greater Egypt and its modern Thebes which M. Dubois found in the western Sudan. The journey to this region, but yesterday so formidable, is now almost commonplace. Landing at Dakar, our author went by rail 170 miles to St. Louis, and from thence ascended the Senegal by steamboat to Kayes, the western terminus of a railway which carried him a third of the remaining distance to the Niger. In six weeks after leaving Paris he had begun his canoe voyage on this stream.

For three hundred miles, to its junction with the Bani, its great tributary, he floated down the river, the left or western bank being uniformly high and often densely wooded. On the right bank were fertile fields largely devoted to the cultivation of cotton. Below the junction the river flows through the eastern edge of a plain some three hundred miles long by from sixty to ninety miles wide, known as the Three Deltas. After the winter rains in the mountains from which the rivers take their rise, this plain is inundated to a depth of eight feet, the receding waters leaving a deposit of fertilizing mud from which are raised abundant crops of rice and millet. On its western side are chains of lakes, natural reservoirs from which the surplus flood-water is carried by innumerable channels or marigots during the dry season into every part of the plain. The southern half is apparently well populated. Villages were crowded together upon the banks, and superb herds of cattle fed in the meadows. But long before Timbuctoo was reached, stretches of many miles were passed without the traveller "seeing a living thing, man or beast"—the result of the raids of the Touaregs.

On the southern threshold of this western Egypt is the city of Jenne, its commercial capital. Seen from a distance the appearance of its mass of walls, crowned with a forest of projections and terraced roofs, rising from the solitary plain, was very striking. Century-old houses lined its streets—an antiquity due, as the inhabitants boast, to the fact that, from the impregnability of its position on a mound entirely surrounded by water, it has never been taken by assault or pillaged. In its peculiar pyramidal architecture M. Dubois detected the influence of Egypt, from whence its builder, an Arab adventurer of Yemen and founder of the Songhoi empire, came in the eighth century.

According to the native chroniclers, from the earliest times Jenne has been a city of merchants. It has now "business firms, in the European sense of the word, provided with a similar machinery and staff of employees. In important centres they have permanent representatives, in Timbuctoo branch houses. They send out travelling agents, who have a percentage of the business they transact, and are no other than our 'drummers.'" The extent of their operations in former days is shown by the fact that the earliest European navigators to the west coast were told that the gold and other products which they bought came from Jenne, and accordingly they called the whole region by its name, Guinea. At the present time the principal business of the inhabitants is to transport by barges the products of the southwestern Sudan to the northern edge of the Three Deltas, where the desert comes close to the river. Here they exchange rice, millet, iron, lead, gold, native fabrics, and slaves for salt from mines in the Sahara and European goods from the Mediterranean cities. For some centuries there seems to have been no special meeting-place for the caravans and barges, but in the twelfth century the peculiar advantages of a little hamlet presided over by an old woman named Tomboutou was recognized by Jenne merchants. Here they established themselves permanently, and gradually built up a city of warehouses, where goods in transit were stored awaiting the arrival of the semi-annual caravans from the north, or of the barges from the south.

In its palmiest days Timbuctoo had a floating population of possibly 50,000, but there are no means of estimating the amount of business transacted. In recent peaceful years, with only 10,000 inhabitants, there arrived annually some sixty thousand camels with freight valued at twelve million dollars. When M. Dubois entered the place, a few months after the French occupation, he found a mass of "deserted and gutted houses, whose roofs had fallen and doors had disappeared; crumbling walls and mounds of shapeless ruins." Occasionally in the midst of the rubbish-heaps were "islands" of comparatively sound houses, and here and there were clusters of straw huts in mat enclosures, the houses of the nomad Foulbé. In the market-place, women were selling spices and vegetables "for infinitely small sums in cowries"—apparently all that the wild desert tribes had spared of the once world-renowned commerce of the city.

M. Dubois found, however, after a few days' residence, during which he succeeded in gaining the confidence of the people, that these ruins sometimes concealed considerable wealth. A merchant's house which he visited was dilapidated externally, but the interior was in good repair and even luxuriously furnished. Its storeroom contained bags of rice, millet, and dates, bars of salt, ostrich-plumes, and ivory, to the value of ten thousand dollars. But the commerce of Timbuctoo has been largely diverted of late years, "through the odious tyranny of the Touaregs," to other places—two are mentioned as almost equalling it already in population and business—and it is doubtful if it will ever regain its former preëminence.

Our author's account of his travels ends with his arrival at the city, no longer "mysterious," and the remainder of his book is devoted to a sketch of its history, its past and present condition, its literature, and its university. This, together with accounts of the Songhois and the Moors in the Sudan, he has derived from the native chronicles, copies of which he has procured, and from the oral traditions of the inhabitants. These were related to him in conversations which form some of the most entertaining and suggestive passages in his work. He also gives the main facts in the story of previous European visitors—Paul Imbert, a French slave carried to Timbuctoo about 1670, Laing, Caillié, and Barth, no mention being made of Lenz. He criticises Barth's account as "une grand déception," due to the fact that, during the whole of his month's stay, being practically a prisoner, he was unable to explore the place, to have any intercourse with the inhabitants, or "even to walk an hour" in the streets. The attractiveness of the volume is greatly increased by a large number of illustrations from photographs, most artistically arranged upon the pages.

The English translation reads smoothly in the main, but is not always literal, some pas-

sages being omitted, while others are condensed. It is also disfigured by a number of gross errors, which can be ascribed only to carelessness and the lack of revision. To take a number of instances discovered in a merely cursory examination: *Aigrettes* (p. 35) is translated ospreys (p. 28); *mètres* (54), feet (42); *cuivre* (141, 235), hides (122), leather (207); *centaine de kilogrammes* (191), a hundredweight (168); *quatre mille nègres* (71), four million negroes (57); and *inénarrables sauvetages* (233), indescribable barbarities (205)! Occasionally an entirely false statement is made, as in the length of the *decauville* (4), and the amount of the anticipated business of Timbuctoo; the words of M. Dubois, "peut s'élever à une vingtaine de millions" (305), being rendered "will increase her annual commerce *by* twenty millions" (267). In its external appearance the English translation is a faithful copy of the French original. We are glad to note, however, the addition of an excellent index, which is lacking in the latter.

Upon the Tree-tops. By Olive Thorne Miller. Illustrated by J. Carter Beard. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897. 16mo, pp. xii, 248, figg. 10.

The Story of the Birds. By James Newton Baskett, M.A. D. Appleton & Co. 1897. 16mo, pp. xxx, 263, pll. 20 and many other illust.

Mrs. Miller's sixth volume has a different title from each of the preceding five, but is similar in contents to four of them, and identical with them all in mode of treatment of the topics concerning which she continues to gossip pleasantly. In this continuation of the subject the shrike, hummingbird, Baltimore and orchard orioles, red-winged blackbird, Maryland yellowthroat, towhee, and some species of *Myiadestes* take up 128 pages, the other half of the book being padded with remarks on various other birds, in the author's exuberant style of reiteration. The materials out of which the book is manufactured would, if judiciously manipulated, make a magazine article of average length, with Mr. Beard's pictures, which are good, from a non-ornithological point of view. One of the most admirable things about the book is the regularity with which the burden of its song is alleviated by elegant extracts from approved poetry; and one of its most notable points is the equal regularity with which nestlings are discovered to be "babies." Some chefs are said to be able to make soup out of a boot-leg; but Mrs. Miller can whip up a syllabub so bubblesome that we forget whether a spider-monkey or a hummingbird is at the bottom of it—nor does it make any difference which.

Mr. Baskett's book is not to be easily disposed of in a few words; it is out of the common run of popular ornithology, and decidedly original. He is a lecturer and teacher of considerable experience, though an almost unknown writer. We recall but one previous publication of his, and this lately appeared among the Papers presented to the World's Congress of Ornithology at Chicago in 1893. It was an article on the hints at the genetic relationships of birds which their eggs may possibly afford; it proved nothing, and did not pretend to have done so, but it was extremely suggestive, and must have set every reader to thinking—perhaps to dreaming—of the evolution of birds in geologic time. The present 'Story of the Birds' runs distinctively along the same lines of speculation; and we are mistaken if it does not provoke much thought. We fear it may prove caviare to the general public, and that young readers may find it a little beyond their powers to utilize profitably, notwithstanding the author's attempts to bring it within their grasp by formal analysis, with study hints (pp. xv-xxv), and the most practical chapter of the whole (pp. 213-229). In some subtle way for which we can hardly account, Mr. Baskett's work recalls Mr. D. G. Mitchell's 'Reveries of a Bachelor.' His musings send us off in similar trains of thought, though the subjects of speculation in the two cases are so unlike as to be scarcely comparable. An obvious criticism of this 'Story of the Birds' would be that it is top-heavy with hypothesis, for the most part unverified, and largely unverifiable; which would be accounted a serious fault in a book dealing with natural history facts in any scientific spirit, and especially for any pedagogic purpose. Yet this is no defect, from the author's standpoint: he frankly avows it in his preface, and defends his deliberate intention of presenting ornithology in that way. For example:

"Its aim is simply to present in a rather unusual yet popular way the more striking scientific features of their [birds'] probable development. . . . If the hypotheses advanced here should not always meet the critic's approval, or seem not always to be wholly justified from every point of view, they are still better than no setting whatever. There is more stimulation to thought, more assistance to memory, more arousing of attention, in an imperfect or even incorrect hypothesis than in none at all. In interesting rather than instructing, in guiding the observation of the inexperienced into proper channels, in suggesting slightly to the student what to look for among the birds, and what to do with a fact when found, the author hopes that this little volume may find a mission" (pp. xiii, xiv).

That is an intelligible statement of method and purpose, defending a mode of treatment deliberately chosen; as to the outcome of this missionary enterprise, it will be safer to prophesy after the event. We attest the author's competence for clear statement of facts, and the thorough readability of his whole book, which we should call rather provocative or stimulative than merely suggestive of thought. We also imagine that its real significance is more likely to be grasped by the mature mind of a teacher than by the untrained faculties of the young persons for whom it is ostensibly intended. To attempt to account for every fact presented, on evolutionary principles, is surely no easy task; but children *do* want a reason for everything, and we shall be interested to learn how far Mr. Baskett has succeeded in satisfying their cravings, when the book shall have been put to the test of actual teaching. It ostensibly forms one of Appletons' "Home Reading Series," and as such is introduced editorially by Dr. W. T. Harris, the well-known philosopher, now Commissioner of the United States Bureau of Education. It is handsomely illustrated with full-page plates, mostly from Mr. Chapman's 'Handbook,' besides many figures in the text.

Aglavaine et Sélysette. Par Maurice Maeterlinck. Paris: Société de Mercure de France. 1896.

It is to be feared that the knowledge of Maeterlinck which the average reader possesses goes not much beyond some faint remembrance of M. Octave Mirbeau's absurd outburst of laudation when he at first appeared—an outburst not only stupid in itself, but which has been a fruitful cause of stupidity in others. Maeterlinck has never had really judicious critical treatment. On one side his work was taken much more seriously than he himself meant that these plays for marionettes (as he called them) should be regarded; and the *Jeunes revues*, following Mirbeau, vaunted him as a serious rival of Shakspere. This of itself gave occasion for easy ridicule in the camp of the unbelievers, to which his pronounced mannerisms and the ease with which they could be travestied also contributed somewhat. His English critics, for the most part, followed like a flock of sheep the leading of the *Saturday Review*. Often their notices seemed to indicate that much of their knowledge of the author and of his work was drawn from that source. Others, some few, wrote more adequately, but, like their French brethren, with too heedless an enthusiasm. But M. Maeterlinck happily possesses a healthy nature, sound in mind and limb, both mentally and physically. He has been neither unduly elated nor unduly depressed by his reception, but has gone quietly on his way cultivating his poetic garden—especially, it would seem, devoting himself to rooting out its weeds—until now its product is become worthy, not of attention only, but even of admiration, while the steady patience which has brought about this result is of the highest desert.

He has cured himself of his trick of repetition, which indeed he often used effectively, but to great excess. In his latest poem, too, Maeterlinck is less obviously and crudely a Symbolist than he has been. The symbol is there and is used with effect, as every true poet has used it, but it is not forced on us, as was, for instance, the sound of the gardener's scythe in "L'Intruse." Nor does Maeterlinck any longer abuse his remarkable power of inspiring terror. There is, at most, some chill in the air, some mysterious failing of the light, that forebodes evil, or at least pain. There is nothing like the passage of the birds of night in "Les Aveugles," the storm and omens in "La Princesse Maleine," the prison horror of "Tintagiles." Now the cloud is scarcely so large as a man's hand. 'Aglavaine et Sélysette' is of an ethereal beauty. It is as remote and as little human as the loves of the angels. Under a pale sky, in a light that never was, figures scarce defined move against a neutral background. No dream was ever vaguer or tenderer. No touch of human imperfection is allowed to appear in it unless it be the almost divine falsehood of Sélysette, which only heightens the poetic effect and deepens the poetic emotion. If the poem be a drama at all, it is because the poet keeps this touch for the last, and his play drifts up to this climax, its music ending in a dying fall. The book is compact of mysticism. It is such stuff as dreams are made of, and will touch to responsive vibration mystic and poetic minds.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Dr. C. C. When the Century Was New: A Novel. Philadelphia: J. B Lippincott Co. $1.
Ballou, H. S. Hosea Ballou, 2d, D.D.: His Origin, Life, and Letters. Boston: E. P. Guild & Co.
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Dallinger, F. W. Nominations for Elective Office in the United States. [Harvard Historical Studies.] Longmans, Green & Co. $1 50.
Fisher, S. G. The Evolution of the Constitution of the United States. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Kellogg, D. O. A Young Scholar's Letters: Being a Memoir of Byron Caldwell Smith. Putnams. $1.75.
Kipling, Rudyard. In Black and White. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Le Gallienne, Richard. Walton's Compleat Angler. John Lane. $6.
Leys, J. K. The Lawyer's Secret. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.

Lucas, C. P. A Historical Geography of the British Colonies. Vol. IV. South and East Africa. Part I. Historical. Part II. Geographical. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Macdonald, Maj J. R. L. Soldiering and Surveying in British East Africa, 1891-1894. Edward Arnold. $5.
Macnab, Frances. On Veldt and Farm. Edward Arnold. $1.50
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Moore, F. C. How to Build a Home. New York: The Author.
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Parker, Gilbert. The Pomp of the Lavilettes. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Paulian, Louis. The Beggars of Paris. Translated by Lady Herschell. Edward Arnold. 60c.
Raymond, Walter. Charity Chance. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Richardson, Sir B. W. Vita Medica: Chapters of Medical Life and Work. Longmans. $4 00.
Ridley, Edward The Pharsalia of Lucan. Longmans, Green & Co. $4 50.
Sangster, Mrs. Margaret E. Easter Bells: Poems. Harpers $1.25.
Taber, C. A. M. The Coming Ice Age. Boston: G. H. Ellis.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 15, 1897.

The Week.

FIVE months ago the city of Chicago, deeply moved by a national fright over a formidable assault upon the country's credit and stability, gave McKinley a plurality of 56,000 votes. Last week the same city gave a Democratic candidate, standing on a free-silver platform, a plurality of 77,000 votes. What is the meaning of this change? It is admitted that the chief reason for it was the return to the Democratic party of the hard-money Democrats who supported McKinley. They went back, in spite of the free-silver platform, because of their disgust with the course of the Republican party at Washington in shelving currency reform and bending all its energies upon the "jamming through" of a second McKinley tariff bill more odious than the first. They went back, not because they have been converted to free silver and Bryanism, but because they have found Republican promises of patriotic conduct to be worthless. An odious high-tariff bill, a strangled arbitration treaty, a sop to free silver in a proposal for another international monetary conference, and refusal to give any attention to currency reform—these are not inducements for hard-money Democrats to remain inside the Republican party. The return of these disgusted voters to their party was the chief reason of the Chicago overturn, but there were others only a little less powerful. Weariness of Republican machine rule was one, and desire for more liberal excise regulations was another. Then, too, the opposition was divided into three sections, while the Democrats were united.

We cannot adopt the view that "the chief factor contributing to the election of Carter Harrison as Mayor of Chicago was his often-proclaimed hostility to department stores." This view appears to be based upon insufficient knowledge as to the attitude of candidates and parties in Chicago on the subject in question. Both the Democratic and Republican platforms denounced these stores, and the Republican candidate proclaimed his hostility as openly and vigorously as Harrison did. The Republican platform declared the department store to be "one of the growing evils of our city," and favored the "wiping out" of it by legislation. The Democratic platform called it a "vicious" system, and pledged the party to "use all lawful means for its correction." Of the two utterances, the Republican seems to be a trifle the stronger, for a pledge to "wipe out" is more explicit than one to "correct." The hater of the department store is not a believer in half-way measures, and he is more likely to be a wiper-out than a mere corrector by lawful means. If this issue had been the controlling one in the election, the Republican candidate should have been successful.

The fight against the department store is really the old fight against "cheapness," and there is no doubt whatever that the Republicans have the first lien on this issue. They invented it in 1888, and used it with great vigor in the campaign of 1890. Ex-President Harrison gave the first striking version of it when he said in a speech, in 1888, that a "demand for cheaper coats seems to me necessarily to involve a cheaper man and woman under the coats." Mr. McKinley said in 1890 that "'cheap' and 'nasty' go together," and that "cheap merchandise means cheap men, and cheap men mean a cheap country." Senator Lodge remarked about the same time, with his customary breadth of view, that the "cry for cheapness is un-American." Mr. Henry Carey Baird took a similar view by saying that "cheapness is the fetish of the Englishman." It was not till Mr. Bryan's nomination that the Democratic party sought to snatch this great issue from the Republicans. Mr. Bryan was forced to denounce cheapness because he favored a dollar which would buy only half as much as the gold dollar, and was obliged to tell the laboring people of the country that the dollar they were earning was a curse because it bought too much. The complaint against the department store is that it gives people too much for their money, enables them to make their money go further, and thus makes life easier for them. This is, as any one can see, the Harrison-McKinley-Lodge complaint about cheapness; and Democrats commit flat burglary when they seek to make it their issue. Lodge ought to show them up in the Senate.

Senator Caffrey has distinguished himself many times as a legislator of the very best type. Among Southern statesmen who have adorned the national councils since the war by high intelligence and conscientious discharge of duty, he ranks with the late Senator Lamar, who refused to vote for free silver when instructed so to do by the Legislature of his State. He has now won admiration anew by his letter to the President of the New Orleans Board of Trade, in which he refuses to support the Dingley tariff bill, although that bill offers an advantage of half a cent per pound to the sugar-planter of Louisiana over the present tariff. Mr. Caffrey is himself a sugar-planter, and therefore speaks with authority when he says that sugar-planting is as prosperous now as any branch of agricultural industry, and therefore has no claim on Congress for additional protection. Apart from that, he says that by the Dingley bill "every man, woman, and child in the United States is placed under tribute to corporate greed and private rapacity," and that he will have no part or lot in such a scheme of injustice and rapine. Rather than do so he would resign his position as Senator. It is a mistaken policy, too, he tells the Louisiana planters, to join a party which put sugar on the free list as soon as it thought that it could dispense with the revenue obtained therefrom. Although the Republican party may abandon or neglect the monetary policy which brought it into power; although the Democratic party may ignore for the time being its traditional tariff policy, he will not abandon his principles at the bidding of a few Louisiana planters and a few merchants who handle their crop. The letter is a bugle-blast which ought to find echoes all over the country, among Republicans as well as Democrats, awakening the consciences of both.

The Wilson bill is working even more than its wonted distress in Boston; the merchants and warehousemen of that devoted city do not know where they are to store the vast quantities of wool and sugar that are seeking their port. Thirty ships, fairly bursting with wool and other nefarious foreign products, are reported to be steaming full speed for Boston. The problem is a grave one, but the experience of three years ago should help the puzzled Bostonians. Just before the Wilson bill went into effect, the curious behavior of ships off the Massachusetts coast was much remarked upon. Instead of coming in as now under forced draught, they cruised off and on, waiting for the McKinley bill to die; now they are hurrying in before its resuscitated corpse takes possession of the custom-house. It is all a deep mystery from the protectionist and patriotic point of view. Of course, all this wool is "dumped" upon us. No one orders it—certainly no protected woollen manufacturer would be mean enough to get all his wool free and then take three times as much protection on his goods as is to be given to wool. The careful Dingley has affirmed that, "so far as he knows," his own mill has not bought a pound of free wool. Yet Justice & Bateman of Philadelphia, the high-protection wool dealers, say that it is all nonsense to predict that woollen goods will be higher, the truth being that American manufacturers have all laid in more than a year's supply of free wool. We hear, in fact, of one New England concern that

has rented an abandoned church for the purpose of stuffing it full of free wool. This shows what a devil's business it is—free wool, churches closed.

Another way in which the Dingley bill is proving a great success is as a means of increasing the revenue. It has tremendously increased foreign commerce by threatening to stop it, and it is rapidly reducing the Treasury deficit by undertaking to repeal the bill that caused it. The March surplus of $9,000,000 would only need to be duplicated in the remaining three months of the fiscal year to bring us out about even. Sophistical advocates of low duties as the best revenue-producers (William McKinley among them) may point to all this as a great triumph for the Wilson bill. We say to them, however, that it is not the low duties, but the fear of having to pay higher, that has filled up the Treasury. May this not have been the Dingley-McKinley intention all along? The great thing is, as the President affirmed, to extinguish the deficit, and there is something Napoleonic about making your enemies' tariff do it for you.

The Kennebec *Journal* defends the retroactive clause of the Dingley tariff, saying:

> "Already the importers have begun to bring in goods far in excess of the legitimate demand, in anticipation of the profit to be made by so doing. In consequence of this, unless some such measure as this which is proposed shall be adopted, the revenues will be unduly swelled while the bill is pending, and fall off disastrously for a few months after the bill passes. This step is not taken to affect contracts already made, but is an announcement to those entering upon contracts for the future, 'You must make provision for paying a protective duty.'"

The theory put forth here is that the property of the people of the United States belongs of right to the very small number who can be and are protected by the tariff, and that all persons who seek, by importation or otherwise, to retain what they have earned or accumulated, are kleptomaniacs. They are trying to make away with other people's goods. It happens, by a strange oversight, that the sheriff was never empowered to seize them without a warrant. Still more strange is it that there is no law making such offences criminal. Yet everybody knows that it is a breach of the common principles of morality for a person to retain any property which a protected manufacturer or wool-grower wants. Therefore in passing a retroactive tariff we are simply reënacting and giving force to the higher law.

Wheat is acting in a very suspicious manner in the present crisis, and its conduct calls for investigation by some of our experts on British influence and deviltry. It will be remembered that when the late Presidential campaign was at its most critical point, wheat suddenly went up in price, knocking the pins from under Mr. Bryan's silver platform, and creating a roar of enthusiasm for gold. It was not only suspected but charged at the time that British influence did this, for the purpose of disparaging our silver. There were several thoughtful persons who were convinced that the infernal British, for the purpose of saving their gold standard from destruction, had made a corner in wheat and forced up the price at their own expense. Now, just as a high-tariff bill has passed one House, with an increased duty on wheat, the price of wheat goes down, with the usual effect of unsettling our security market and throwing doubt about the national blessing of more protection. Of course there is nothing the British hate so intensely as a high tariff, and they would stop at nothing to prevent its enactment. They may be shoving down the price of wheat now, in their own selfish interest, in the same way that they shoved it up last summer.

The Boston *Advertiser* makes a fresh protest against a duty on hides, using the old familiar argument that hides are a by-product of beef, and therefore not suitable for a protective duty. This doctrine, if applied to the tariff generally, would require the admission of a great many things free of duty. Take carpet-wool, for example. Whatever may be said about wool generally (and we think that wool is fast becoming a by-product of mutton), it is certain that carpet-wool is a by-product in this country of all other kinds of wool. It hardly exists here at all, and yet it is made dutiable in the Dingley bill at 32 per cent. ad valorem, and Judge Lawrence and the Montana ranchmen want to have the duty raised to 6 cents per pound, and say that they intend to have it too. Take the article of lead. That is a by-product of silver-smelting. Is that a reason for putting lead on the free list? There are numerous by-products of coal-tar in the dutiable list. Ought they all to be made free simply because hides are a by-product of beef? Linseed oil is a by-product of flax, or flax is a by-product of linseed oil, whichever you choose. Yet both are dutiable in the Dingley bill. Which one would the *Advertiser* cast out in order to make the bill consistent with itself? The truth is, that there is no room for the by-product argument in the logic of protectionism. There was once room in it for the raw-material argument, but that time has gone by.

Mr. Dingley is the first tariff-maker to put a tax on "antiquities." This can scarcely be intended to protect an American industry. We have not even ruins, as the disappointed English tourist remarked to Longfellow; in default of ruins it was necessary to visit poets. There is, however, as Dr. W. H. Ward has pointed out, an American "infant industry" in antiquities, but it depends wholly upon importations. Cuneiform tablets and Babylonian cylinders cannot be produced in this country even under the highest tariff. Oriental scholarship has made great strides of late in America, and collections have begun to reach such proportions that our students can actually study at home, without being driven to the British Museum and to Berlin for material. But Mr. Dingley and his enlightened committee would stop all that by laying a needless tax, as Dr. Ward asserts, on "the industry of American scholars."

"We favor the speedy passage of the tariff bill as being the surest means of securing our return to power in Congress and the Executive." This is the position taken by Mr. Bailey of Texas, the leader of the Bryanites in the House. This is the position of the Bryan party in Congress and the country. It appears to be the position of Mr. Bryan himself. That doughty champion of free trade can roar you as gently as any sucking dove now that the tariff is the main issue, and the only issue, in Congress or in the press. It amounts to this, that the Democratic party, save only the men who went last year to Indianapolis and supported Palmer and Buckner, are trying to betray their traditional low-tariff principles for which they have all been stamping and raving for the past twenty years, and none more loudly than Bryan himself, in order to help free silver, greenbacks, Populism, Debs, and a lot of other newfangled issues, the very mention of which would make Jefferson and Jackson turn in their graves. Is it not time for the men who went to Indianapolis last year to say something about this base betrayal of a fundamental principle of the Democratic party? Was there ever a time when the indignation of the community was more thoroughly aroused against attempted tariff extortion than now? Has any measure for robbing the masses for the benefit of the classes ever equalled the Dingley bill, with its retroactive clause, its repeal of the drawback on exports, its 100 or 200 per cent. tax on the clothing of the poor?

If the international *ignis bimetallicus* is to be chased at all, we do no not know how President McKinley could have better organized his expedition in search of it. A ridiculous object seems naturally to require a ridiculous commission. Mr. Stevenson will deeply impress the European economists and chancellors. They may ask him if his errand is to show that he was right in his assertions of last summer that international bimetallism is a cheat and an impossibility, and that this proud land will wait for the assent of no power on earth be-

fore repudiating its debts. But Mr. McKinley's happiest idea was to put a yachtsman on the commission. This is an innovation which cannot but work well. Senators and economists have tried and failed; what more natural than to turn to a yachtsman? Is he not, moreover, a yachtsman who more than once has discomfited the English? A man who has outsailed the British, as Gen. Paine has again and again, seems to be marked out by nature as the man to outwit them on the currency question. The Prince of Wales is a great yachtsman, and Gen. Paine may easily get him off the gold standard some day in the cabin of the *Britannia*. Some such deep strategy as this must have been in Mr. McKinley's mind in making up the commission. Otherwise we should be compelled to think he desired to make the whole question of international bimetallism absurd.

Mr. W. J. Bryan appeared in the Supreme Court in Washington on Wednesday and made an argument in an "anti-monopoly" case, growing out of a Nebraska statute fixing a freight rate for railroads. The roads affected applied for an injunction on the ground, among others, that the rates established were unreasonable, as not being sufficient to maintain the property, and consequently that the statute was an act of confiscation; and Justice Brewer, who heard the case below, granted an injunction on this ground. Mr. Bryan's point was to overcome this decision, and his argument deserves attention. What he asked the Supreme Court to hold was that the reasonableness of railroad rates depends, not on what the property had cost its owners, but what it would cost some one else now to replace it. Now no court, or judge, not even the Supreme Court itself in its recent anti-Trust decision, has ever held that reasonableness means anything but reasonableness; and hence the difficulty they will find in sustaining Mr. Bryan. To help him out they must decide that reasonableness and arrant nonsense may be one and the same thing. No man will put any property into a railroad if twenty years later rates are to be fixed based on what it would then cost some one else to build the road; and if you ask him why, he will tell you that it is because he is entitled to a reasonable return, and that instead of that you propose to swindle him out of any.

The appointment of Theodore Roosevelt as Assistant Secretary of the Navy cannot be considered a public blessing. It removes from a position of great usefulness the most efficient Police Commissioner we have ever had, and puts him in a place which may be nominally higher in the official scale, but is lower in fact, since it is a subordinate position, whereas his present office is a commanding one. For these reasons we do not think that either Mr. Roosevelt or the city is to be congratulated. It is very much as though Col. Waring were to be taken from the Street-Cleaning Department and made Commissioner of the Land Office or Chairman of the Lighthouse Board. Nevertheless, the best wishes of the best citizens will go with Mr. Roosevelt to his new duties, and we shall hope, but hardly expect, that the Mayor may find a successor for him in the Police Board as thoroughly devoted to the public interests and as fearless in upholding them.

Mayor Strong fulfilled the highest estimates placed upon him as a patriotic and courageous official in vetoing the proposed new charter. He was in a somewhat delicate position, owing to the fact that he had signed the report which accompanied the charter when it went to Albany, but he did not allow seeming inconsistency to prevent him from doing what he conceived to be his duty. He acted in the full light of the revelations about the charter which the hearings upon it produced, but that his action would have any weight at Albany, either with the members of the Legislature or with the Governor, nobody could have expected. On Monday the Assembly, under the inspiration of the Sunday conference with Platt in this city, and consequently with full and direct knowledge of "what the old man wants," passed the new charter over Mayor Strong's veto without more than the bare mention of it which was necessary in order to put it to a vote. The veto message was not read, and there was no discussion whatever. It "went through with a whiz," as was predicted by Platt's agents after his Sunday session, the negative vote being the same as on its original passage. The Senate's pace was not slower on Tuesday.

Gov. Black, moved possibly by some feeling of jealousy towards the men of action in the Legislature, took occasion on Monday to show that he is capable of bold deeds. He sent to members of the two houses copies of a bill which is said to "embody his ideas of civil-service reform." These ideas, it will be remembered, as set forth in his message, were summed up in this striking passage: "In my judgment, civil service will work better with less starch. A scheme is not necessarily effective or high-toned because it lacks common sense." There is no doubt that the bill which he has prepared embodies these ideas. If it shall become a law, there will be no "starch," neither will there be anything "high-toned" left in the "civil service." It puts all examinations for fitness under the control of heads of departments, provides that no candidate shall be rated higher than 50 per cent. for fitness in an examination, and abolishes all existing eligible lists within thirty days after the passing of the bill. It leaves examinations for merit under control of the State Board, but provides that no candidate's merit shall be rated above 50 per cent. It is quite unnecessary to point out the effect of a measure like that. A measure which forbids the rating of any candidate's fitness or merit above 50 per cent. puts a premium upon incapacity by barring out all men who are more than half fit for the service. Gov. Black is a lawyer, and it is impossible that he should not know that his bill is clearly unconstitutional. Whatever else his proposed examinations would be, they would not be "competitive," and as such would not meet the constitutional demand.

Mr. W. G. F. Phillimore, whose name makes whatever he says about a question of international law worth attention, writes to the London *Times* for information on the following points relating to the blockade of Crete: (1.) Supposing that a British ship sails with a cargo of provisions for Candia, and is stopped and turned back by a British man-of-war, will the British Government pay the damages? (2.) Suppose that she is fired into and sunk, will the same redress follow? (3.) Suppose one of the crew killed, and the officer who ordered the gun fired indicted for murder, what will the defence be? We doubt if these questions will ever be satisfactorily answered either by the *Times* or by anybody else, especially the last one.

A strained relation between the Ministry and the Folkething in Denmark seems to threaten a return to the unfortunate constitutional struggle of former times. The main cause of the present trouble is the same old question of the military items in the budget, several of which have been materially reduced or wholly rejected by the lower house on the third reading. There is also a split on the subject of taxation, the Ministry objecting to certain transfers of taxes from the state to the communes recommended by the House committee. Ever since the compromise of 1894 and the subsequent resignation of Estrup and the appointment of Reedtz-Thott, the present Premier, there has been a gratifying harmony between the two parties in Denmark. The Ministry, which aims at being non-partisan, has accepted the budgets as modified by the lower house, even though these were in many particulars far from satisfactory; and while differences of opinion still inevitably arose, as last year on the school bill, the general feeling has been one of tolerance, if not of actual friendliness. But unless the Folkething shows a willingness to yield now, the old constitutional struggle will surely be revived. The Government organ asserts that the Ministry will make no compromise that entails any sacrifice of the general policy to which it stands committed.

HOW TO RAISE REVENUE.

Mr. David A. Wells supplies in the *Popular Science Monthly* a timely discussion of the question, "How can the Federal Government best raise its revenues?" He begins with two propositions which are hardly open to dispute. The first is, that the most immediate need of the Government is an increase of revenue equal to its expenditures. Even currency reform must take a place second to this, since the best possible system of currency cannot make both ends meet, or prevent eventual bankruptcy if they do not meet. The second is, that there never has been a nation so capable of raising an ample revenue as the United States. It is forgotten by most persons that we raised $558,000,000 in 1866, although the population and wealth of the country were then much less than now. Of course universal assent will be given to these propositions, and the Republican Congressmen will all say that the present deficit is just what they are trying to remedy, and will remedy if they are not prevented by the Democrats and the Populists. Here Mr. Wells says: No; you are trying to do two contradictory things at once. Tariff revenue is obtained by the importation of foreign goods. You are trying to prevent importation.

Mr. Wells then gives a detailed account of the British system of passing the yearly budget, showing how necessary it is, both politically and financially, that the income and expenditures should balance each other, and hence how necessary it is that the Ministry should control the budget; no member of the House of Commons who is not a minister, being allowed to propose, on his own authority, any grant of money, or, as we say, appropriation, for any object whatever. He may speak or vote against any item in the budget of the Ministry or against the budget as a whole, but he cannot take the lead in adding anything to the public expenditures. Under this system an exact calculation must be made of the ordinary expenditures of the Government, and of the extraordinary ones, so far as they can be foreseen, and the taxes must be adjusted so as to produce that sum. Long experience under this system has enabled the Government officials to balance the budget within a very small sum a whole year in advance of the collections. It happens this year that the revenue is some $16,000,000 greater than the expenditures—a condition due to an unexpected revival of trade—but this is a most unusual happening. The question may be asked, Why does not this trade revival come our way also? The answer is twofold. We have not yet decided what is a dollar—that is, we have decided it only for a period of four years—and we are trying to enact the most monstrous tariff bill in restraint of trade that has ever been seen in the halls of Congress.

Our present revenue requirement is something in excess of $500,000,000 per year. How ought it to be raised? This is the thesis of Mr. Wells's article, and it is a question that can be safely answered only by experience—our own and that of other nations. Experience has proved that taxes on spirituous and fermented liquors and tobacco are the most available, the most certain, and the least oppressive sources of revenue. Accordingly, these are the first things which Governments lay their hands on; and the only question worth considering, as to the first of these, is what rate of tax will yield the largest sum. Our experience teaches that the ninety-cent rate is the highest which will not lead to illicit distillation on an appreciable scale. The present rate of $1.10 has been followed by a decline in the total receipts from that source, and by a very notable increase in the number of illicit stills discovered by the revenue officers. Mr. Wells accordingly favors a reduction of the tax on distilled spirits to the former rate of ninety cents per gallon in the interest of the Treasury. He thinks that $100,000,000 may be obtained from this source.

The next large source of internal revenue is beer, which yields nearly $34,000,000 per annum, and is increasing at the rate of $1,500,000 per annum; the rate of tax being one dollar per barrel, which is equivalent to only one-fifth of a cent per glass of the ordinary size, or two-fifths of a cent per pint. An increase of this tax to $2 per barrel would be equivalent to two-fifths of a cent per glass and would not be felt by the consumer, but would yield $30,000,000 to the Government. This Mr. Wells strongly favors, but he recognizes the fact that beer controls a great many votes, and that political parties are not likely to run counter to the brewing interests.

Tobacco now yields $44,000,000, including the duties collected on the imported article. It is generally allowed by protectionists that these duties are paid by the consumer, although they say that on most articles, such as wool and woollens, tin plate, etc., they are paid by the foreigner. The taxes on tobacco in this country are lower than those of any other great nation. The tobacco tax yields $50,000,000 in Great Britain, and $65,000,000 in France. If our rate of tax were the same as that of England, we should obtain from it $90,000,000, while the French rate would produce $126,000,000. Here is an opportunity for an enormous gain. Mr. Wells answers the argument that the tobacco tax falls disproportionately on the poorer classes by showing that the same is true of all indirect taxes, and that the only question here is whether the tax shall fall upon an article of luxury or upon necessary articles of food and clothing.

Stamps yielded $62,000,000 to the British Government in the fiscal year 1894. We never employed this form of taxation, not even during the war, to the same extent that England does now; nevertheless, we collected $15,000,000 from this source in 1866. The same stamp duties now would yield double that sum, or half the rates would yield the same sum. These are taxes on the rich. They ought to be made a permanent part of our revenue system, and if the Republicans in Congress were as much concerned in securing revenue for the government as they are in transferring the earnings of the community from one class to another, they would seize upon this inviting and prolific source of income at once.

When we come to the tariff, we find tea and coffee on the free list. A duty of three cents a pound on each would yield $20,000,000, and would be equivalent to 20 per cent. on each. "If sugar," says Mr. Wells, "a commodity of more indispensable popular use, is regarded as not overburdened by a tax of 40 per cent. ad valorem, tea and coffee could easily stand a like duty." Under our laws prior to 1870, coffee was taxed five cents per pound and tea twenty-five cents. From sugar Mr. Wells thinks that at least $50,000,000 should be obtained. Summing up, he shows that we might obtain $319,000,000 from eight articles, viz., whiskey, beer, tobacco, petroleum, stamps, tea, coffee, and sugar, leaving only $189,000,000 to be obtained from all other sources. This latter sum would be yielded by the existing tariff (exclusive of the duties on sugar), not counting the revenue derived from miscellaneous sources which produce about $17,000,000 per annum. In short, the sources of national income are abundant, and superabundant, if Congress has the intelligence and courage to lay hold of them.

ANOTHER NOTE OF WARNING.

An "authorized statement" by Senator Chandler was published on Thursday last, in which he laments the extreme features of the Dingley bill, and the pressure that has been and still is brought to bear upon the committees having the matter in charge for higher and higher rates. It is a long time since we have seen anything of this kind in print from a stalwart Republican. "The pressure," says Chandler, "is enormous from all parts of the country." He instances the demand for ten to twelve cents per pound on wool, with "prohibitive" duties on woollens by way of compensation. He mentions the demand from California that all foreign fruits be kept out. "Indeed," he continues, "there is great pressure from all parts of the country, and in the interest of almost every industry, for prohibitive duties." The situation in his view is full of danger, because, as he says:

"The margin for the bill in the Senate is small at best. The Republicans have not a majority without assistance from other parties, and the danger is that there will be such a general revulsion of feeling as will cause the outsiders upon whom we are counting not to cast their votes for the bill. The Republican

members of the finance committee are disposed to be conservative, but the pressure is so strong that they may be forced to yield. The people who are creating the pressure are thus preparing to pull down upon their own heads the temple that shelters them."

Among the dangers which have assailed the bill since it left the House are a proposed duty of 2 cents per pound on hides, 6 cents per pound on carpet-wool, which is an increase over the Dingley rate, a duty of 1½ cents on lead contained in ores, which is also an increase over the Dingley rate. These rates are demanded by the Rocky Mountain Senators as the price of their votes, and there is some probability that the Senate will grant them. It is the interest of the Democrats to make the bill as bad as possible. Moreover, their votes will be at the service of the Silver Republicans who are making these extreme demands in reference to wool, hides, and lead ore. The movement for a duty on hides was said at first to be only a threat to compel some reductions in other parts of the bill, but it looks now as though it were very much in earnest. At all events, if a duty on hides is once fastened on the bill in the Senate, it will be a work of considerable difficulty and danger to get it off again. While the bill was still in the House Mr. Hepburn of Iowa said, "Nearly every Republican member of this House from the West desires a duty on hides."

Meanwhile another danger looms up in a different quarter. Protests against these extreme duties have been filed with the State Department by the German and Italian Ambassadors at Washington. That of Germany is said to be very pronounced. Of course no foreign Government would assume to dictate our tariff policy, but any foreign Government might retaliate in kind. The effect of such retaliation would be not only pecuniary loss, but national irritation, both of which should be avoided if possible. Therefore the protests of these Ambassadors ought to be received by us in good part as timely warnings.

The increase of the Dingley tax on German products is very severe. On linens, under the guise of a change from ad-valorem to specific duties, enormous advances in duties are proposed; and although it is said that the change to a specific basis is made to "stop the undervaluation which is going on," the new bill provides for the ad-valorem rate on all the high-cost and fine goods on which a chance is given to a dishonest importer to undervalue, while on the cheap goods, where a farthing or an eighth of a penny per yard could be detected, the specific basis is adopted! It is the old game of levying as high a duty as possible on the low-grade goods purchased by the masses, and it is simply done in order to make it prohibitory; but the change to a specific basis is not understood by the consumer. All authorities are convinced that a specific basis cannot be applied to linen goods, owing to the numberless varieties (over 200) of all kinds, weights, counts, widths, etc. Any specific table must practically prohibit low-grade goods, owing to the high rate of duty which it would inflict on the heavy cheap qualities. Other articles exported by Germany to this country upon which heavier duties are proposed are chemicals, woollens, gloves, wines, and earthenware. The discriminating duty on sugar, which has been a source of irritation in Germany ever since it was imposed, is aggravated in the Dingley bill, and will become a fresh source of trouble with that country.

We cannot say that we have any objection to the extreme rates of the Dingley bill if they shall have the effect which Senator Chandler anticipates and deprecates, of "pulling down the temple that shelters them." It is the nature of protective tariffs to go from bad to worse. Our history from the beginning of the civil war proves this. When the first Morrill tariff was brought forward, it was introduced with an apology. The Government needed more revenue. It was obliged to tax everything in sight. When the second Morrill tariff was proposed, it was voted with a distinct pledge that the duties should be put back at the end of the war. When the third one was proposed, it was excused on the ground that it was needed to compensate manufacturers for the internal taxes on their products, but when those taxes were repealed the duties were allowed to remain. And so things went on till 1872, when the protected classes went to Washington for a new advance, and were met by a denial from Senator Sherman, who said in the debate on the bill of that year:

"If the present rates of duty were high enough during and since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then surely they are now too high, when all these taxes are removed. . . . I have listened with patience, day by day, to the statements of gentlemen who are interested in our domestic productions. I am a firm believer in the general idea of protecting their industries, but I assure them, as I assure their representatives here, that if the present high rates of duties, unexampled in our country, and higher by nearly 50 per cent. than they were in 1861, are maintained on metallic and textile fabrics after we have repealed the very internal taxes which gave rise to them, and after we have substantially given them their raw materials free of duties, we shall have a feeling of dissatisfaction among other interests in the country that will overthrow the whole system, and do greater harm than can possibly be done by a moderate reduction of the present rates of duty. And I am quite sure that intelligent men engaged in the production of various forms of textile and metallic fabrics feel, as I do, that it is wiser and better to do what is just and right, to make a reduction on their products, at least to the extent of the reduction in this bill on their raw materials, rather than to invite a controversy in which I believe they will be in the wrong."

The House tariff bill of 1872 was a very moderate measure as compared with the Dingley bill, yet the Senate, under Mr. Sherman's lead, made material reductions in it. Things ran on till 1882, when the Republican party, acting upon the theory that the tariff should be revised by its friends, not by its enemies, undertook to lower the duties about 25 per cent., but found itself unable to do so. The protected classes flocked to Washington in such numbers and put such "pressure" on Congress that they stopped the work of reform which the party had deliberately undertaken. Then came the McKinley tariff of 1890, with more pressure and unheard-of duties, followed by the complete overthrow of the Republican party, due to that cause alone. And now we have the surpassing outrage of the Dingley bill. It is only one stage in the irresistible progress of a false system.

ENGLAND'S FOOD SUPPLY IN WAR.

A CURIOUS controversy occurred last week in the British House of Commons. A Tory member, Mr. Seton-Carr, formally called the Government's attention to the fact that England's food supplies, at any given moment, were sufficient to provide the nation's actual needs during a period of only three weeks. Supposing, then, a war which should close to English purchasers the grain-producing markets of the world, would not Great Britain be confronted almost immediately with famine? He urged upon the Government, in view of such possibility, the establishment of State granaries to enlarge the available supply. A second Conservative member followed with a plan for a tax upon imported grain; the purpose obviously being to "encourage," after our own protectionist idea, the British grain-producer. Mr. Balfour, answering for the Government, treated the matter somewhat indifferently. The maintenance of state granaries, he replied, would turn the Chancellor of the Exchequer into a corn-dealer on a gigantic scale. As for the foreign supply, he had no fear that the United States would cease to send its grain to England; at the worst, the material interests of this country would not allow its staple export trade to be proscribed as contraband of war. It was the British Government's responsibility to maintain a naval armament powerful enough to keep open at all times the avenues of British trade, and this responsibility the Government accepted.

On general principles Mr. Balfour's answer was conclusive; the chance suggested by Mr. Seton-Carr is certainly remote. And yet the inquiry directs attention to a very interesting possibility. The statement as submitted, in regard to the narrow margin of available supplies in British storehouses, is correct. Eighty per cent. of the wheat and flour consumed by the population of Great Britain is obtained from foreign countries. But these imports are continually in transit. As for the actual supply on hand, the stocks of wheat in British granaries, at the close of the English season, have varied during the last ten years from a

maximum of 25,840,000 bushels in August, 1892, to the minimum of 12,000,000 in 1891. The wheat consumption in Great Britain during the recent harvest year was estimated at 232,000,000 bushels, which is about the average of recent years. This means an average consumption of not quite 4,500,000 bushels weekly. Supposing, then, a total stoppage of importations, at the close of the English harvest season, consumption at the usual rate would exhaust a visible supply such as that of 1891 in less than three weeks' time. In other words, a month's complete blockade of the British coast would leave Great Britain without bread. The ingenious author of the 'Battle of Dorking' pictured Great Britain isolated from its allies, its fleet destroyed or scattered, and its army, regular and volunteer, overpowered by an organized invasion. This other much more sensational possibility did not occur to him. It was left for the prosaic House of Commons to portray the English nation simply beleaguered by its enemies, and eventually starved into surrender.

In the practical English mind, it is fair to say, this question has excited only languid interest. This was not frivolous indifference. Let the possible gravity of the problem be conceded; the question arises, How is the situation to be bettered? Mr. James Lowther, a specimen Tory with protectionist hankerings, suggested in last week's debate, "by a duty on foreign breadstuffs." But the largest English harvests of the century were only two or three times as large as the production of the present day. The "bumper" wheat crop of 1855, raised when Great Britain used no more than 24,000,000 bushels of imported wheat to meet consumers' needs, was only 132,000,000 bushels: that is to say, it was a hundred million bushels short of the amount of wheat which the English population requires for food to-day. In other words, the possible difficulty would not be met even if high taxation placed on foreign grain could raise the English price of wheat to the eight shillings per bushel which it brought in 1855. The truth is, that the increase of some 35 per cent. in the population of Great Britain since that time has run beyond the capacity of the country's farms, even under the most favorable auspices, to feed it.

Mr. Seton-Carr's proposal, which was made some time ago, with greater elaboration, by Mr. Broomhall of the *Corn Trade News*, has a more plausible appearance, but it is open to quite as grave objections. The chief objection is contained in Mr. Balfour's answer. If the Government were to establish public granaries large enough to double the quantity of grain in store, who is to supervise the purchase and sale of what the granary contains? Mr. Broomhall pictured readily enough how, "after the state warehouses were once filled, a stream of wheat would be kept steadily passing through them, importers loading in at one end and millers taking out the wheat, improved with age, at the other." But this very satisfactory process is entirely too automatic for the present complex machinery of trade. The Government must surely pay for the wheat which it carries into warehouse; how is it to sell the wheat so as to guarantee the exchequer from loss? A private warehouseman protects himself by sale in open market of his contract for future delivery; is the Government to undertake a similar series of delicate manœuvres with the speculators? It is not difficult to conceive the "inquiries" from agricultural members of the House when trade reports disclosed the Government as a "bear on wheat." But if "futures" are to be ignored, who will predict what price the wheat stored up to-day will bring when it is sold, "improved with age," a few months later in the season? The Government would have our sympathy which bought, say a month ago, before the ten-cent fall in wheat, and had to sell to relieve its granaries last Friday. No doubt an educated speculator might be placed in charge of the public granaries. But if this Government agent were to display the foresight of his official prototype whose operations are described in the 47th chapter of Genesis, he would become the target of every bread-consuming voter, editor, and politician in the United Kingdom. If, on the other hand, his little operation failed, it is easy to imagine what treatment would be in store for him in the columns of the *Times* and the *Economist*.

In short, we suspect that the practical possibilities of the situation reduce themselves to Mr. Balfour's single plan of assurance for the future: the maintenance of a navy capable, under any circumstances, of protecting England's ocean trade. Of course, it is conceivable that no fleet would be large enough to guard alike, in an emergency, Great Britain's numerous remote dependencies and the channels of British importations. On the other hand, an interesting hypothetical problem is suggested by the case of war with the United States, from which Great Britain buys more than one-half its breadstuffs imports. Yet as regards the second of these suppositions, we suspect that Mr. Balfour's answer is sagacious. Would the American grain-producers, he suggested in the House, submit to such embargo on their trade? This shoe, it is obvious enough, would pinch on both sides. If England buys half of her wheat and flour from this country, something like 60 per cent. of the total breadstuffs exports of the United States go to Great Britain. Blockade of England in the last crop year would have closed a foreign market for no less than thirty-eight million bushels of American wheat and for eight million barrels of our flour. We have at times detected, in the swashbuckler "war talk" of our Western Senators a sly suggestion of the rise in wheat which they expect would follow foreign war. This notion was not wholly absent, even in the Venezuelan outbreak. We wonder whether these economists ever reckoned what would be the price of wheat on the farms of Kansas and Minnesota, with Europe's purchase from us suspended.

THE NEW GOVERNOR OF CAPE COLONY.

LONDON, March 30, 1897.

SIR ALFRED MILNER, the Governor designate of Cape Colony, is the hero of the hour. The unparelleled enthusiasm felt by people of all shades of opinion for Mr. Chamberlain's appointment of him to take Lord Rosmead's place as Governor and High Commissioner is a sign of the times. Among the numerous demonstrations of this feeling which are taking place in his honor on the eve of his departure, none showed more clearly how gladly men of leading in all political parties here can forget their differences in an enthusiastic appreciation of his character, than the dinner given him here on Saturday last (March 27) by one hundred and twenty of his friends; Mr. H. H. Asquith, the late Home Secretary, being in the chair. On the chairman's right, between Mr. Arthur Balfour and Mr. Goschen, sat Mr. John Morley, under whose auspices, as the chairman humorously put it, Milner "deviated into the seductive by-paths of journalism." It was as Mr. Goschen's private secretary that Sir Alfred, to quote again from Mr. Asquith's most graceful speech, "passed to 'where beyond these voices there is'—fixity of tenure." The story goes that Mr. Goschen, himself a former President of the Oxford Union, was first made aware of Sir Alfred Milner's quality at the Oxford Union, one of whose debates he attended in the early seventies. He is reported to have declared, on coming away from the meeting, that he had heard "an undergraduate talking like a statesman." The undergraduate was Alfred Milner of Balliol College, who soon after became President of the Oxford Union.

Sixteen former Presidents of the Oxford Union were among the friends entertaining Sir Alfred at this memorable dinner, and of the sixteen, eleven, including Sir Alfred himself, the chairman, Mr. H. H. Asquith, and Mr. George Curzon, were Balliol men. This fact, together with the presence of upwards of forty Balliol men, lent especial significance to another of Mr. Asquith's reflections:

"It is now very nearly twenty-five years ago since he [Sir Alfred] and I sat together at the scholars' table at Balliol. As the Eastern saying goes, much water has flowed under the bridge since then. But I am glad to see round these tables not a few faces which were familiar to us in those days, faces of men who are ready to acknowledge, as he and I are, that, among many other good things, we owe some of the best and most enduring friendships of our lives to the far-sighted intellect and piety of John de Balliol and Devorguila his wife."

Sir Alfred Milner himself has said, upon a recent occasion, how much he owes to Balliol College and to Oxford: "Every man has his start in life; for some it is the possession of wealth, for others it is hereditary dignity, but in my case my opportunity was given me at Oxford." After a most brilliant career at Oxford, where he matriculated in 1873, Sir Alfred Milner, having been elected a fellow of New College in 1876, went to the bar, "deviated" into journalism, and stood for Par-

liament in 1885. His defeat in this case was a personal victory, since the majority against him in a stanchly Conservative constituency was infinitesimal, and since his unexpectedly large support came to him in great measure because of the frankly non-partisan quality of his liberalism.

It is this incapacity for strictly partisan politics which makes Sir Alfred Milner one of the most interesting figures in public life. For with it is associated the most ardent and fruitful faith in the future of Greater Britain, and a spirit of wise and generous appreciation and good fellowship in all that concerns the relations between England and America. On this last and obviously important matter Sir Alfred has always stood in much the same position occupied by Prof. Dicey, and I cannot easily forget the vivid appreciation of him in this regard expressed by the late Prof. Gurney of Harvard, who breakfasted with him twenty years ago in my rooms at Balliol College. In America we have but lately achieved fixity of tenure for our civil service, and yet we are already seeing a substantial resulting gain, through the creation of a body of men among us who are not pledged beforehand to the extremes of party opinion. To see how compatible this non-partisan attitude may be with the highest sense of duty and the greatest efficiency, we need only recur to Sir Alfred Milner's achievements as Under-Secretary for Finance in Egypt, and read the chapter in his 'England in Egypt' entitled "The Race against Bankruptcy." There he insists that ministers of finance are not merely dealing with statistics and balance-sheets, "but with the well-being, the comfort, the happiness, even the morality of their fellow-citizens." This "great fact underlying finance," he declares, is "of vast importance even for those nations among whom, as in the United States, individual wealth is comparatively independent of the action of the state," and where it is consequently possible to lose sight of it. Perhaps he would not, in the light of recent events, repeat this saying in just this form. In Egypt, however, he declares that this fact is "always before one's eyes," and adds: "He would be a fool indeed who, sitting in the finance office at Cairo, in any position of command, is not constantly reflecting upon the condition and needs of the people."

Beginning his public career after 1885, as Mr. Goschen's private secretary, and passing on to financial work in Egypt, Sir Alfred was finally appointed chairman of the Commissioners of Internal Revenue, from which position he has been called to the difficult duties which await Lord Rosmead's successor in South Africa. Here I cannot do better than quote from the remarkable speech made by Mr. Chamberlain at last Saturday's dinner. Rising to propose the health of Mr. Asquith, the chairman, Mr. Chamberlain appropriately adverted to the large space in the field of English politics, and the still greater space in English social life, which is altogether free from any taint of party bitterness.

"To-night," he added, "is an example of what I have been saying. Here are all shades of public opinion, animated, for this occasion at any rate, by a common sentiment; and I think that Sir Alfred Milner may well be proud, as he has told us he is proud, to go to the most difficult task to which the command of the Queen has called him—I may almost say by the unanimous opinion of his fellow-citizens—he may be proud to go to this difficult post with the assistance of the hearty good will of all sections of his fellow-countrymen."

What is Mr. Chamberlain's view of the chief difficulty to be met by the new Governor and High Commissioner had been already foreshadowed by Mr. Asquith, who said that Sir Alfred had been summoned, "by the wise and happy discrimination of Mr. Chamberlain," to a post "in which he will find himself beset in every direction with embarrassing problems, and—may I be bold enough to add?—with formidable personalities." Mr. Chamberlain himself, as beseemed a responsible minister of the Crown, was more definite in his account of these difficulties, nor did he hesitate to express, though, of course, in general terms, his view of their right solution. "I mistake very much the mind of my countrymen," he said, "if they are not at this moment determined to support this Government, or any Government which may be in its place, in maintaining in their integrity the rights which we have under the London convention, and our position as Paramount Power in South Africa." Then he referred, with some allusion perhaps to recent legislation in the Transvaal intended to admit Germans to the franchise and to exclude Englishmen, to the aspiration "of certain eminent persons in South Africa" towards an independent federation of states, which would "look for sympathy and support rather to the continent of Europe than to this country." "If such aspirations exist," he added, "in my opinion they are incompatible with the highest British interests, they are incompatible with the position of the Cape itself. . . . It is an aspiration which cannot be accepted by the people of this country, and until it is frankly abandoned there cannot be a final and satisfactory settlement."

Whatever view may be taken in America of Mr. Chamberlain's South African version of the Monroe Doctrine, it is interesting to note that it is a doctrine strikingly parallel to that maintained by Mr. Cleveland and Secretary Olney, only there is the important difference that its scope is confined to South Africa, where, as a matter of fact, English interests and enterprises are obviously preponderant. It will be interesting to note in the future how far the bearings of this doctrine may be extended.

Mr. Asquith summed up in the following effective manner the unusual experiences which have qualified Sir Alfred Milner for coping with his difficult task in South Africa:

"To have studied scholarship and metaphysics under Jowett and Green; the art of writing under Mr. John Morley; to have been introduced to official life by Mr. Goschen; to have learnt the practice of administration under Lord Cromer, and the discharge of the delicate and responsible duties which fall to the permanent head of a great department of the state under Mr. Balfour and Sir William Harcourt, is as unique as it is fortunate. It is indeed an experience eminently calculated to equip a man for the discharge of the most arduous task which the state can call upon any of its citizens to perform."

That Sir Alfred's personality is a commanding one, quite apart from his exceptional experience, is universally felt. Otherwise such a demonstration as I am describing would not have been possible. Perhaps the most terse and telling expression of this widespread feeling was contained in the letters of regret for unavoidable absence received on this occasion from Sir William Harcourt and Lord Rosebery. Sir William, absent by reason of illness, desired to be ranked among the first of Sir Alfred's friends and admirers, of whom he declared himself "certainly the most grateful and obliged"; and Lord Rosebery said of him: "He has a brilliant past, but has a still greater career before him, for he has the union of intellect with fascination which makes men mount high." This same appreciation of him has been differently and more pithily expressed by an Oxford admirer who lately said of him, "He has the velvet touch and the iron grip."

The only other speaker at last Saturday's dinner was Sir Alfred himself. When he rose his first words—spoken in a manner which was at the same time delightfully playful and remarkably reverential—brought before us the benignant and piquant figure of that wise man, the late master of Balliol. He reminded Mr. Asquith that Jowett once remarked, "in his terse, quick way," that "Modesty is a virtue only in a young man," and then he added: "I believe in my case it was a fear that modesty might survive into advanced age which has led my friends to do what they could to render such a calamity impossible." Since his appointment he had read many astonishing things about himself, but nowhere that he was a good speaker. This was fortunate because his feelings on that occasion, though very strong, were also very simple, and could best be expressed in simple language. No man, going to a difficult post in his country's service, ever had a send-off for which he had more cause to be grateful, more cause to be proud. He was not so foolish as to suppose the significance of the present gathering was entirely personal, but he could not but feel, in the friendly presence of so many who had encouraged him in the past, that a kindly interest in him personally had a great deal to say in bringing them all together. But there was also a generous desire to give every possible support and encouragement to the man, whoever he might be, who was called upon to do what in him lay to maintain the honor and the influence of Great Britain in a country in which Englishmen were so much interested as they were at present in South Africa. However humble the view he took of himself, he felt that at any rate his credentials were extraordinary, and was sincerely grateful for the fact. He had seen a formidable list of the qualities required of the Queen's representative in South Africa. Whatever else was on the list, tact and judgment were among the requisites, and he should prove his complete lack of both if he ventured now to express views about the future. Many people had said to him of late, "We do not know whether we ought to congratulate you; you are going to face a very ugly business." To all these cheering remarks he desired to make one answer:

"Do not congratulate me, certainly; let congratulations wait, even if they have to wait for ever, until I have done something to deserve them. But still less condole with me, for no man is to be pitied, whatever happens, who in the best years of his life is not only permitted, but is actually called upon, to engage in work into which he can throw himself with his whole heart, and with a single mind. A public servant must go where he is wanted. It is singularly fortunate if he is wanted for that kind of business to which he is most willing that all his energies should be devoted."

Doubtless Sir Alfred Milner has found little leisure for the further prosecution of classical studies since he left Oxford, but no one can read, still less hear, these words of his without involuntarily recurring to certain of the noblest pages in the Dialogues of Plato which plainly were not expounded in vain by Jowett and Lewis Nettleship while Sir Alfred was at Balliol. It is, I am convinced, this note of

high-hearted thoughtfulness, at once penetrating and subtle, but above all and always straightforward and resolute, which is the secret of Sir Alfred Milner's personal charm. This it is which led a discriminating admirer to say of his success in practical affairs that "it was a tribute to the world that Sir Alfred Milner could succeed in it." That Sir Alfred is not without a sense of the exceptional difficulties presented by modern circumstances was shown in a recent address given by him at the Froebel Institute, where he remarked upon the fact that our "Age of Bustle" succeeds a period of unprecedented fertility in time-saving inventions, and declared that in this fact we have "only another instance of the old, old story that the actual effects of any great change of human circumstance are constantly the opposite of what *a priori* reasoning would have led you to expect." To this reflection he added that, in these days of ever-increasing hurry and ever-quickening pace, a man requires more judgment, more balance of mind, more strength of character, than ever before to husband his forces and control his life.

But I must return to his speech of last Saturday. In allusion to Mr. Asquith's account of him, as siding with neither party decisively in matters of home politics, Sir Alfred admitted that in that Greek state where, if he remembered rightly, a man was bound to take one side or another upon pain of death, he should have had his head cut off before he was twenty-five, and, he added, "I should have died a martyr to my principles." There was, however, one question upon which he had not been able to see the other side, and that was precisely the question of imperial unity. Here he reminded Mr. Asquith of an evening they had spent at the Oxford Union in debating the possibility of strengthening "the ties which unite to this great country her great colonies, and the great colonies to one another." The subject excited less interest than most which were debated in those days—"less," he added, "I am glad to think, than it would excite at the present moment." This fact, so clearly present to the speaker's mind, was universally acknowledged by all his hearers. Indeed, the enthusiastic interest felt in the occasion, and the universal delight taken in Sir Alfred's appointment, are one of the most striking signs of the altered and quickened state of English opinion in this regard. Then followed the conclusion of his reminiscence of the Oxford debate:

> "There were some half-dozen of us," he continued, "who hammered away—I dare say we bored our audience—on these ideas, that the growth of the colonies into self-governing communities was no reason why they should drop away from the mother country or from one another; that the complete separation of the two greatest sections of the English-speaking race was a dire disaster, not only in the manner in which it came about, but for coming about at all; that there was no political object comparable in importance with that of preventing a repetition of such a disaster, the severance of another link in the great imperial chain. The greatest local independence, we then argued, was not incompatible with closer and more effective union for common purposes."

After referring to the fact that the leader in the Oxford debate in question was a Canadian, and to the ever-strengthening ties binding Canada to the mother country, Sir Alfred concluded by speaking of his capacity in South Africa as that of a "civilian soldier of the empire," and declared that to render any substantial service "to any part of our world-wide state" would be all that in any of his most audacious dreams he had ever aspired to. "But," he added, "in a cause in which one absolutely believes, even if I were to fail, the cause itself is not going to fail; and even personal failure is preferable to an easy life of comfortable prosperity in another sphere."

Thus, with a few final words of graceful thanks feelingly addressed to his entertainers, ended Sir Alfred Milner's speech in response to Mr. Asquith's proposal of his health. I have ventured to think that a somewhat full account of it and of the whole occasion would interest the readers of the *Nation*, since it contains a most thoughtful presentation of that ideal of a possible future unity among English-speaking peoples which is gradually emerging at the end of our century—an ideal which may be far off and will certainly be difficult to realize, but which certainly has in it much to uplift and inspire, not Englishmen only, not solely English colonists, but even and especially ourselves, the citizens of the United States of America. LOUIS DYER.

GREEK ART IN INDIA.

MUTTRA, February 15, 1897.

THE Archæological Department has not been treated very well by Government. Owing to Gen. Cunningham's personal influence, appropriations during his lifetime were made to carry on his own work, but these have been so cut down in the last decade that now the whole department consists of one official. The evil effect of this policy is seen everywhere, notably in the museums of the North. At Calcutta, until within two months there was no specialist to see to the arrangement of the archæological collection; but a young German scholar has recently been appointed to attend to matters there. At Lucknow, the second of the great northern museums, the collection is under the personal supervision of Dr. Führer, sole survivor of the Archæological Department, which has been marked for extinction since 1885. But the arrangement, in consequence of the fact that the collection is in the cellar of the museum, is most unsatisfactory. All the precious objects here are buried several feet below the water-line of the flood of 1893! The danger, if another such flood should come, is obvious, but the present difficulty is the lack of light.

In Lahore, matters are much worse. There is here no one to superintend the arrangement of material. The overworked principal of the Art School is supposed to have an eye on the museum; but he has no time to spare, nor is he exactly the proper person to have charge of the archæological room. On all sides lie groups of marbles, statues, and inscriptions, either jumbled together on the floor, or distinguished merely as "from the South," "from Northern India," etc., a classification that leaves much to be desired. But there are, fortunately, some groups the origin of which is known well enough to determine approximately the source of their most important fragments. Thus, there is the famous Gandhara Collection, and one from "near Rawal Pindi." But a great many pieces will never be located, unless by some accident their lost fragments are found and identified, though even now the raw pioneers on the border send to the museum precious heads and fragments "from a temple," without specifying where the temple is. These are all gratefully received, and labelled "from the Northwest," though one cannot help regretting that they were found at all before an archæologist was on the ground.

A survey of these monuments, unsatisfactory as is their setting, throws much light on the relation of Greek and Indic art. The fragments most important in this regard were discovered only half a dozen years ago. But while it is true that Greek influence can be traced, archæologists are not now so prone to exaggerate this influence as once they were. The time is past when the discovery of a supposed Jupiter Ammon can be taken to show that Greek art of Alexander's time was introduced into India. In the first place, the "Jupiter" is not a Jupiter, but a native Indra; and secondly, it is quite certain that the art which was introduced into India was the late art of the second century. There is, moreover, no trace of foreign influence in the carvings, of the first century B.C., found in the southern Karli caves; and the Muttra collection proves that India had its own art of sculpture unaffected by Greek influence.

With this modification, the fact may be accepted that Indic sculpture in the Northwest owes much to Greece. Not to speak of the halo of the Buddha now in Calcutta, and the stone frieze of the same museum executed in classic style, there is the famous Silenus, and the Hercules (strangling the lion), which are mere copies. Several of the Grecian types are from the Muttra collection. This is the modern name of the ancient Mathurâ, on the Jumna, just north of Agra, and Dr. Führer's find (for it is to his indefatigable labors that the collection is due) was made in 1891.

The Bharhut sculptures had previously yielded a genuine centaur, but the chief prize from Muttra, now preserved in Lucknow, gives even more than this. It is a *torana*, or gateway, of a Jain temple. The two low columns, of not more than six feet in height, are surmounted with bell-shaped capitals of Açoka's time, with sur-capitals of four winged lions on one pillar and three lions and a goat on the other. These two uprights support a heavy stone block about four feet long, and on one side of this are sculptured (Greek) centaurs and harpies. The other side has a conventional procession of horses, chariots, elephants, and men. The chief importance of this doorway lies in the fact that it can be dated pretty certainly as belonging to the second century B. C. The Greek halo and centaur, by the way, remain till a late period. In the caves of Ajanta, for example, I noticed two centaurs painted in oil on the wall of a cave ascribed to the sixth century A. D., while several of the saints there wear halos. But at this period it is questionable whether there was not a direct importation of Western art into India.

Turning from the Muttra collection of Lucknow to the specimens preserved in Lahore, one has, besides those mentioned above, a striking additional proof of Hellenism in a fine stone Pallas Athene. She wears a Greek helmet, but, except for the nose, has a Hindu face. There are also smaller faces, many of which are unmistakably Greek; and a large "dying-gladiator" style of figure, full size. Architectural evidence confirms that of the sculptures, though, like the latter, most of the specimens are vaguely marked as "from the Northwest." They probably come from Afghanistan. Thus, there are several Corinthian pillars, and these are decorated with flowers in the Palmyra style of the second century. Most extraordinary in this Lahore collection is the admixture of Turkish types, and the traces of Persian influence in some of the capi-

tals. Having seen the latter, I naturally sought for evidence of fire-worship. Finally, I found a group of people in devotional attitude before a conical flame blazing between them. The group consists of six persons, three on each side of the fire; and, though the figures were too small for one to be sure of the fact, three of these appeared to be women, and three men. There was nothing else for them to worship besides the fire to which they bowed, so I fancy that the whole scene must represent Persian worship. It is, however, possible that the fire-worshippers are here not Persians, but the Pamir or Gueber fire-worshippers. One of the most interesting groups at Lahore is that of some hundred casts more or less obviously Greek. They were originally colored, and show every variety of expression, from the grin of a buffoon to the scowl of a tyrant. The color is still visible in patches, but most of it has been washed off. These were all found in the Rawal Pindi district, at Shah ki deri, which is now generally admitted to be the ancient Taxila, though not on the grounds advanced by Gen. Cunningham, whose decision in archæological matters was often correct while his reasons were faulty.

I do not know whether the report of Dr. Führer's last discovery, made in December, 1896, has yet reached America. It is an important discovery, for it fixes the site of Kapilavastu, the town governed by Buddha's father. Hitherto it has been supposed that this town was near the modern Gorakhpur, but Dr. Führer's identification of the Nepal village of Mauza Paderiga with the Lumbini gardens, so well known in Buddhist literature as the spot where Buddha was born, deprives modern India of the right to claim Buddha as her son, though Nepal in those days was as much India as was the Punjâb. The identification is made certain by the finding of an Açoka pillar, which states that in the twenty-first year of his reign (that is, about 240 B. C.) Açoka himself came to the Lumbini gardens, worshipped, and, erecting a *stûpa* there, also raised this pillar, on the very spot where Lord Buddha was born. In Açoka's time there could have been no doubt as to the exact situation of Kapilavastu and the Lumbini gardens, so that, given the locality of the latter, the site of the former could easily be found, since the relation of the gardens to the town is well known. Dr. Führer was not long in discovering, some miles to the northwest, the ruins of an ancient city, where large tombs, palaces, and *stûpas* (a peculiarly Buddhistic erection) covered the ground for several miles. It will be interesting to see, when these ruins are excavated, whether Grecian art ever extended so far to the northeast.

I think it will be found that, as in the case of Sânchi and the other great monuments of Buddhistic art in Central India, the art is quite native. This is, after all, the most important lesson to be learned here at Muttra. The remains show clearly that there was a fully developed architectural and glyphic native art, entirely independent of Greek art. Yet it was not long ago that Fergusson said that the Hindus had no original art of architecture; and not long either since all Hindu sculpture was recklessly ascribed to Greek influence. But one may go over all the minute and delicate bas-reliefs at Sânchi without finding a trace of a Greek model; and in this town of Muttra, though the museum is small, it holds two priceless figures, each a refutation of the idea that all Hindu art is borrowed, and one, the Yasa-ditta Buddha, a rarely beautiful statue.

It must be confessed that native sculpture has seldom produced faces or forms that are beautiful. The carving is often wonderful; especially is one impressed with the workmanship when the material employed is the hardest granite, and in such a case one is apt to overlook the artistic commonplaceness in admiration of the patient toil. But for my part, I know of no Hindu statues that are admirable save one at Bâdâmi and the Buddha here at Muttra. There is a fine head at Bâdâmi in one of the caves, a god's face with a noble smile; and the Yasa-ditta Buddha is also artistically beautiful. Some of the dancing girls at Sânchi are graceful, though not lovely. But, in general, Hindu sculpture loses itself in grotesque conventionalities. It is content to produce fine handiwork; it ignores beauty. Thus, it is much more successful in producing animals than human figures. No Greek ever carved such superb horses as those which stand rearing at the entrance to the great temples of Madura and Trichinopoly. Such strength and action combined with such minute accuracy in these figures carved from a block of granite is unequalled. But when, in the same temper, the faces of men and gods are cut in stone, they are as lifeless as if a boy had made them of a pumpkin.

Those who see Hindu sculpture in its late forms, either in the great temples of the South or at Benares, will wonder at the gross indecency displayed. It is a pity that the purer older forms are so out of the way that most travellers do not see them. Nevertheless, in Bâdâmi, to which I have just referred, there are three caves full of Vishnuite and Çivaite figures, and among them all there is not one that is indecent. Yet these caves are as late as the sixth century A. D.

With the exception of some of the paintings in Ajanta, there does not seem to be the remotest trace of foreign influence in the Deccan. I have recently examined the fragments of Halebid in the Hassan district, west of Mysore, and, though the types are new, the faces are treated throughout in the typical native manner. It is evident that Greek art scarcely spread beyond the personal influence of the Greek artists of the Northwest. In fact, if any foreign influence were perceptible in the Deccan, it would seem to be rather Egyptian. Not only is the pagoda form of architecture at Seringapatam and Madura decidedly Egyptian in aspect, but the same effect is produced by the heavy buildings of the great temple at Somnathpur; the low door in the massive walls contributing considerably to produce this impression. Yet at Halebid itself, utterly removed as it is from Greek influence, there is a porch or airy pavilion which one would expect to see in Athens rather than in India, so light and graceful is it. Perhaps the truest solution of the old "influence" dispute in art (as in literature) lies in the fact that different peoples have an astonishing trick of apparent imitation without contact or historical connection. One thing at least is certain, that Hindu art in sculpture and architecture has invented several new forms, and may, therefore, have chanced independently upon patterns supposed to be exclusively Greek. But, speculation apart, Greek influence did not begin till very late, and never extended far into the country. Its field seems to have remained the Northwest, Afghanistan and Cashmere—countries which once enjoyed a high civilization when the Punjâb had relapsed into barbarism.

E. Washburn Hopkins.

Correspondence.

A BROKEN REED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Dingley ended his speech opening the discussion on the tariff bill now before Congress in this way:

"There is reason to believe that gradually and surely there will come back to us the great prosperity which we enjoyed in the decade prior to 1893, and which the greatest of living English statisticians so strikingly eulogized when he said in 1892 that 'It would be impossible to find in history any parallel to the progress of the United States in the last ten years.'" (*Record*, March 24, 1897, p. 190.)

The quotation with which he closed is taken from Mulhall's 'Balance Sheet of the World' (p. 108). The humor of calling Mr. Mulhall the greatest of living English statisticians was probably not intentional and not appreciated by Mr. Dingley's hearers. As an indication of the opinion entertained of Mr. Mulhall's work by competent judges, it may be mentioned that, ten years ago, Alfred de Foville sent a communication to the Statistical Society of Paris called "An Imaginative [*fantaisiste*] Statistician," in which he reviewed in detail the work of Mr. Mulhall. The article was deemed of sufficient importance to be translated and republished immediately in the Journal of the Royal Statistical Society. M. de Foville states that in half the instances or more in which he had sought to verify the statements made about French statistics, he had found them incorrect, and cites numerous illustrations. Internal evidence of lack of scholarship is found in the fact that the book from which Mr. Dingley quotes gives not a single authority from cover to cover. All this Mr. Dingley might be excused for overlooking. Abler public men than he have been misled by the calm certainty with which guesses are set down as facts to the damage of their reputations, as the tilt between Mr. Balfour and Mr. Gladstone in the House of Commons ten years ago over Mr. Mulhall's figures for the number of evictions in Ireland may illustrate (Hansard, vol. 317, p. 105).

But it is essential to Mr. Dingley's argument that the statement quoted should apply to the decade just before the enactment of the Wilson bill. To clinch this point, he declares that the statement was made in 1892. In fact, the book from which it is quoted was published in 1881, and its full title is 'Balance Sheet of the World for Ten Years, 1870-80.'

Yours respectfully, W. F. Willcox.

Ithaca, N.Y., April 6, 1897.

WORTHINGTON AND ST. CLAIR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In a review of Nathaniel Massie's Life and Correspondence, which appeared in the *Nation* of April 1, there are certain statements in connection with the St. Clair Controversy which the owner of the Worthington Letters and Journals (referred to in the review) is prepared to disprove.

The writer of this article declares that "Worthington had been brought to book for land fees wrongfully assessed." The facts are these. When Thomas Worthington (afterwards Governor of Ohio and United States Senator) was appointed Superintendent of the Sales of Public Lands of the Northwest Territory, he wrote to Oliver Wolcott, then Secretary of the Treasury, for instructions. He

was informed by the Secretary, in a letter dated September 26, 1800, that the lands sold at public sale must be entered in the same way as those privately applied for, and that the same fee for surveying expenses must be deposited by the purchaser with every section entered. St. Clair, although the matter was beyond his jurisdiction, objected to this method. A suit for the recovery of fees received by Worthington was instituted against him in the Court of Common Pleas of Fairfield County, where, after argument, a judgment, concurred in by all the four judges, was pronounced in Worthington's favor. St. Clair then, through one of his boon companions, preferred charges against Worthington for receiving the fees authorized by Secretary Wolcott. Meanwhile Albert Gallatin had become Secretary of the Treasury. Thomas Worthington wrote him a full statement of the case, enclosing the charges and requesting an official investigation of his conduct. Mr. Gallatin replied by forwarding to Worthington his appointment by the President as Inspector of the Revenue of the Northwest Territory—a more important office than any which he had previously held. This appointment was of course a practical refutation of the charges preferred by St. Clair.

The writer of the review further implies that Massie's associates went into the new Territory from motives of self-interest—mainly for land speculation. This is not true of Thomas Worthington, a Virginian of wealth and position, or of his brother-in-law, Edward Tiffin. These went to Ohio not as speculators in land, but to provide homes for their slaves, whom they took with them, and whom, for conscience' sake, they had determined to emancipate. They were eagerly welcomed in the new colony and decided to remain there; and they became, by the rapid development of the Territory, by their own ability, and by the blunders of St. Clair, founders of a State.

The writer of the review, who seems to have studied the St. Clair Papers rather than the other less partisan authorities on this period, asserts that there was "no tyranny or oppression" under St. Clair's administration. No one, remembering the pitiful fate of that brave soldier, would willingly dwell on his errors; but his course as regards the Territorial Legislature was condemned by his own party and even by his personal and political friend, Judge Burnet, author of the valuable 'Notes on the Northwest Territory.' In fact, St. Clair sought to rule rather than to govern the Territory, and his arbitrary conduct, and his indefensible use of the veto power, forced Ohio into the Union.

The present writer would not be justified in ignoring the point of view of the article referred to, which attributes ignoble motives to the acts of such men as Tiffin and Worthington, whose patriotism was attested by their subsequent public service. It was to Thomas Worthington that the eminent statesman, Rufus King, sent from his death bed the following message: "Say to him I love and esteem him as ever. I can never forget the noble sacrifices of his patriotism. No other man could do what he has done for Ohio."

THE OWNER OF THE WORTHINGTON PAPERS.

WASHINGTON, D. C., April 6, 1897.

["The Owner of the Worthington Papers" does not reply to the points made in our review, but touches upon questions not raised in that article. We ascribed no motives to Worthington in his removal to Ohio, but we did say that land-ownership strongly influenced the political manœuvres of Massie and his associates; and Worthington's letters show that he recognized the advantages to himself of having his town, where his property interests lay, made the capital of the new State. Political "vindication" by a new appointment under a strongly partisan Administration is not the kind of vindication an honest and upright man urges in his defence. St. Clair was required by the Ordinance to give or withhold assent to measures laid before him, and his use of the veto power was entirely legal and at times highly commendable. We have no doubt that Worthington and the Republican leaders in the Ohio movement believed themselves to be acting for the good of the people, but their acts so coincided with personal motives as to preclude entire disinterestedness. The review was intended to show the general course of Territorial agitation for Statehood.—ED. NATION.]

OUR OBLIGING LUMINARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Mr. Richard Harding Davis, in his entertaining article on the Coronation of the Czar, which was published in the February number of *Harper's Magazine*, writes, on pp. 340, 341, as follows:

"There were probably some one or two of that great crush who enjoyed the coronation ceremonies, but they enjoyed them best, as every one else does now, in perspective; at the time there was too much to do and too little time in which to do it—even though the sun did rise at midnight in order to give us a few more hours of day—for any one to breathe regularly or to feel at peace."

I wish to call the attention of astronomers to the extraordinary fact noted—as if it were of little consequence—in the parenthesis: "even though the sun did rise at midnight." The latitude of Moscow being 55° 45′ N., one would expect the sun to rise there on the 26th of May at 3 hours, 30 minutes, and 7 seconds after midnight. In the ordinary course of nature doubtless it would have done so. But the occasion, as Mr. Davis says, was "solennel," and the Ceremonies ran things to suit themselves.

It would be interesting to know whether others of our distinguished fellow-countrymen, especially of those who, though really present at the coronation, were invisible to the thick sight of Mr. Davis, were graciously permitted to behold this striking proof of the Czar's extra-terrestrial jurisdiction—to behold, as it were,

"Day like a mighty river flowing in"

some three hours ahead of schedule time.

FRED NEWTON SCOTT.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN, April 3, 1897.

SCHOOL DAYS AND VACATIONS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The reviewer of 'Domestic Service' in the *Nation* of April 1, 1897, states that the school "vacations and holidays occupy *three months*, more or less, out of the twelve." This statement should be corrected to "*six months*, more or less." Few people seem to be aware that the *holidays outnumber the school days*, and this is the reason of my comment. I have before me the Calendar of the Roxbury Latin School for 1896-'97. I find by this that the school days number 178, the holidays 187, total 365. Private schools here generally will have at least four more days in Easter-week. Private schools for girls have an untold number more of holidays. H.

RASK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Suffolk [County, Mass.] Court File No. 3126 contains papers relating to a lawsuit between the heirs of Jeremy Houchin.

Under date of October 5, 1677, Bozoan Allen, a tanner, agrees to build a dwelling-house, to allow his mother-in-law Esther, widow of Jeremy Houchin, three rooms in said dwelling-house, and to "find her with *Raske* for firing during her natural life."

Under date of February 19, 1693-4, Elizabeth Norden deposes that she often visited Mrs. Esther Houchin, finding her "in a cold room, most times with no fire or at best but a little dirty *raske* on the hearth."

The word occurs a third time, as *Rask*, in this Court File. What was it?

A. D. HODGES, Jr.

Notes.

T. Y. CROWELL & CO. announce for the current year 'Evolution of France under the Third Republic,' by Baron Pierre de Coubertin, translated by Miss Hapgood; the sixth and seventh volumes, with index, of Sybel's 'Founding of the German Empire by William I.'; 'Dames and Daughters of Colonial Days,' by Annie Beaston; and 'College Training for Women,' by Kate Holladay Claghorn.

'Equality,' by Edward Bellamy, and 'General Grant,' by Gen. J. G. Wilson, are in the press of D. Appleton & Co., who have also in preparation 'Some Masters of Lithography,' by Atherton Curtis, with 22 photogravure plates, quarto; 'Ancient Greek Literature,' by Prof. Gilbert Murray, the first volume in Mr. Edmund Gosse's "Literatures of the World" series; 'In Joyful Russia,' at the Tsar's coronation, by John A. Logan, jr., with 50 full-page colored and plain illustrations; 'Bird-Life: A Guide to the Study of Our Common Birds,' by Frank M. Chapman; 'Insect-Life,' by Prof. John Henry Comstock, with wood engravings by Mrs. Comstock; 'Familiar Features of the Roadside,' by F. Schuyler Matthews; 'In Brook and Bayou,' by Clara K. Bayliss; 'Romance and Reality in the Plant World,' by Frank Vincent; 'Curious Homes and their Tenants,' by J. Carter Beard; 'The Psychology of Suggestion,' by Boris Sidis; and 'Cyprian, his Life, Times, and Work,' by the late Archbishop Benson.

The 'Lectures on Ecclesiastical History' delivered in Norwich Cathedral will be published, under the editorship of Dean Lefroy, by Thomas Whittaker.

Macmillan Co. announce 'Genesis of the Social Conscience: The Relation between the Establishment of Christianity in Europe and the Social Question,' by Prof. H. S. Nash of the Episcopal Theological School of Cambridge, Mass., and a cheaper edition of Miss Kingsley's lively and unconventional 'Travels in West Africa.'

Edward Arnold has in preparation for early publication a 'Memoir of Miss A. J. Clough,' late Principal of Newnham College, Cambridge, by her niece, Miss B. A. Clough, a daughter of Arthur Hugh Clough.

Bonnell, Silver & Co. will publish immediately 'Sunbeam Stories,' for children, by Annie Flint, with illustrations by Mrs. Dora Wheeler Keith.

A Students' Edition of Bryant's translation of the 'Iliad,' at a low price, is contemplated by Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

'Notes on Nicaragua,' by Henry I. Sheldon, is to be published with illustrations by A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago.

Whittaker & Ray Co., San Francisco, have nearly ready the complete poetical works of Joaquin Miller; 'Matka and Kotik, the Story of the Mist Islands,' by President Jordan of Stanford University; and 'Heart Culture,' by Miss Emma Page.

William Briggs, Toronto, will issue 'Estabelle, and Other Verse,' by John Stuart Thomson, of Montreal.

The Burrows Brothers Co. of Cleveland have just secured for their issue of 'The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents,' now being edited for them by Reuben Gold Thwaites, the original manuscript of Father Claude Dablon's famous Relation of the French-Canadian Mission for the years 1676–77, which curiously came to light on the 10th of March last, at Sotheby's auction rooms in London. The publishing of the annual volume of Jesuit Relations at Paris was prohibited after 1672, and few thereafter found their way into print. In 1854 James Lenox for the first time printed this particular Relation, edited by Dr. O'Callaghan; but they followed an abbreviated and modernized manuscript copy at Laval University, Quebec. In 1861 it was again printed, at Paris, in Duniol's 'Mission du Canada,' but still in an imperfect form. The lucky finding of the original MS., therefore, enables Mr. Thwaites at last to present this interesting document just as it was written.

The Trustees of the British Museum have arranged for the publication of a portfolio of facsimiles from early printed books of great variety and large size in the Museum's collection. It will consist of 32 plates with full descriptions. According to the *Athenæum*, among them are "the early block-books of the 'Ars Moriendi' and 'Biblia Pauperum,' the 1454-1455 indulgences, the Gutenberg Bible, Mentz Psalter of 1457, Mentz Bible of 1462, specimens of the work of Sweynheim & Pannartz, Jenson, Ratdolt, and Aldus, of the early French printers, of Gerard Leeu and Colard Mansion, six Caxtons, and books printed at Oxford and St. Albans, and by Machlinia, Wynkyn de Worde, and Pynson."

The 'Statesman's Year-Book' for 1897 (Macmillan) has a corpulent appearance partly accounted for by maps and tables contrasting the present year with 1837. The maps are very striking, each folding plate containing two of the same area for the periods named. Great simplification marks the map of Europe as the principle of nationality has asserted itself, and as Turkey has been reduced to a mere shadow of its former self. In Asia we note the enormous expansion of Russian control, the solidification of England's. Most revolutionized is Africa, which in 1837, before Livingstone's advent, was hardly more than a geographical expression; most conservative of all the continents has been South America, in which the changes of boundary have been insignificant. The regular features of the Year-Book need not be particularized.

The Chino-Japanese war and the bloody sequel of Japan's occupation of the theatre of it have necessitated a new (the sixth) edition of Griffis's 'Corea, the Hermit Nation' (Scribners). The last previous chapter gave a picture of Corea in 1888; the new one exhibits the state of the country at the present moment, when to all appearance Russia has made herself heir of the territory wrested from China by Japan. This work continues to be the standard history of Corea.

From Houghton, Mifflin & Co. we have a new edition, revised, of Col. Dodge's 'Bird's-Eye View of Our Civil War,' which first appeared in 1888. We should have to repeat the larger number of the strictures we passed upon it at that time; and the choppy style of the narrative, with its abuse of the historical present, has likewise been conserved by the stereotype plates. On the other hand, some use has been made of the War Records which have become available since Col. Dodge composed the work.

The first volume of Baron Le Jeune's (Napoleonic) Memoirs was noticed at length in these columns about a year and a half ago, and the entire work, ending with the retreat from Moscow, is now accessible in the fluent version of Mrs. Arthur Bell in two volumes, excellently printed (Longmans). The translator has annotated her text from other memoirs and histories, and there is a fairly liberal index. Le Jeune, it will be remembered, was an artist by predilection, and his services under Napoleon were as an engineer. Hence, on the one hand, the humane sentiment which pervades this narrative, and, on the other, the graphic quality of the descriptions. The work is a peace tract if there ever was one, for Gen. Le Jeune spares his readers none of the horrors of war. His picture of the battle of Borodino in volume ii. may well be compared with Tolstoi's in 'War and Peace,' as may also his account of the incendiarism at Moscow. These memoirs should not fail to find an honored place in all our libraries.

With its customary sumptuousness, the Filson Club of Louisville, Ky., has put forth its twelfth publication, 'Bryant's Station' (Louisville: J. P. Morton & Co.). This was a fortified colony about five miles out of the present Lexington, and successfully withstood an Indian assault and brief siege in August, 1782, directed by a British officer with the aid of the famous renegade, Simon Girty. The courage of the women who went to the neighboring spring for the water needful to maintain a siege, knowing themselves to be in the midst of an ambush, yet trusting to the unwillingness of the Indians to betray themselves prematurely, was commemorated last August by a structure and tablets erected at the spring. This was the pious work of the Daughters of the American Revolution, Lexington Chapter, whose rather startling aim is, among other things, "to instil into the youth of this place . . . reverence for the American flag above every other emblem on earth." The story of the siege and of the subsequent disastrous battle of the Blue Licks is told by several hands, with some repetition, but withal clearly and interestingly. Portraits and views enhance the historic value of this quasi-monograph.

Mrs. J. H. Philpot's recent work, 'The Sacred Tree; or, the Tree in Religion and Myth' (Macmillan), throws light on Longfellow's allusion (after Herodotus) in 'Evangeline' to the plane-tree which the Persian King, Xerxes, adorned with mantles and jewels. The volume contains an extensive collection of miscellaneous facts and information with regard to tree-worship and tree-lore, wood-demons and forest sprites, oracular oaks and murmuring pines, the Scandinavian world-oak Iggdrasil and the mistletoe, together with many popular observances and sacred rites connected with trees, down to the May-pole and the Christmas tree. This last, as a final remnant of pagan antiquity, epitomizes the story of the fading away of the darkness of heathendom before the light of the new faith of mankind. Tree-worship is no more, though tree-cult and forestry do flourish.

Volume II. of the 'Cambridge Natural History' (Macmillan) is a decidedly valuable number of the series. It is a composite, the work of seven authors, to whom various groups of invertebrates, from the flatworms to the polyzoa, were assigned. The authorities are of the best. The large number of typical species dissected and figured, and the comprehensiveness of the text, give the book a great importance either for casual reference or as a guide for teachers and students in general studies or in special researches. In classification, arrangement, text, and presswork the work is very good.

The latest volume in Appletons' International Scientific Series is 'The Aurora Borealis,' by Alfred Angot, a writer connected with the Meteorological Office of France. The literature of the aurora is exceedingly scanty, especially in the English language, and any volume would have been welcome, even if less carefully prepared. This one does not purport to be the result of original research by the author, but draws its facts from authoritative sources, presenting them clearly and concisely. It notes the picturesque features of the auroras, illustrating the varied forms by means of very good woodcuts, considers their physical peculiarities, height, frequency, and periodicity, and outlines the relations which they may sustain to other manifestations of electricity; sketching at last the principal hypotheses that have been advanced to account for their existence. The appendix, which contains a catalogue of the auroras observed in Europe during the past two centuries, will be of value to the student.

The sixteenth annual number of Burdett's 'Official Intelligence' of British, American, and foreign securities has been issued for 1897 by Spottiswoode & Co., London. This very comprehensive publication is a volume of 2,366 pages. It comprises statistical and historical data, not only of the Government, railway, telegraph, and general securities of the British and foreign markets, but of all the bank, insurance, canal, brewery, mining, and corporate commercial shares similarly dealt in. The work is thoroughly indexed, and is without question the most complete record of negotiable investment securities ever published. It is prepared, as usual, by Henry C. Burdett, Secretary of the Share and Loan Department of the London Stock Exchange.

The great dead are not allowed to rest in peace nowadays. George Sand and Alfred de Musset have been exhumed during the past year for the benefit of those who love warmed-up scandals, by those who are possessed with what Brunetière calls "la fureur de l'inédit." The Pagello incident has been served up in detail, and the whole story is rehearsed in Paul Mariéton's book, 'Une Histoire d'Amour' (Paris: Havard fils). The object of this author is to show that in the too famous break between Sand and Musset, the former and not the latter was to blame. No more need be said on the subject. Another book on George

Sand is interesting in a different and more legitimate way, for it does not depend on scandal for its attraction. Michel Revon's 'George Sand' (Paris: Paul Ollendorff) is a study of the work and influence of the great romancer, colored at times by too evident partiality, but none the less healthful in tone and not inaccurate in its main conclusions. The work carried off the prize for eloquence, which may be translated "fine writing," offered by the French Academy.

The firm of Armand Colin & Cie., Paris, started, some two or three years ago, a series of works of fiction suited to young girls (young French girls, be it understood), and which should not necessarily be namby-pamby and unduly flavored with orange-water. The result has been the production of several books which grown-up people, surfeited with naturalism, can enjoy to the full—books well composed and well written, with sufficient psychology and analysis to satisfy the exigencies of the day, enough description to meet the wants of landscape-lovers, enough adventure and sentiment to please the idealists. The two latest numbers of the series, A. Robida's 'Le Mystère de la rue Carême-prenant' and R. Candiani's translation of Sophie Urbanowska's 'La Princesse,' are excellent reading, the former especially. Both can be recommended for much genuine and good realistic work, though Robida's tale easily carries off the honors, with its admirable character studies, its charming pictures of scenery, and its really strong analysis of gossip and tattle in a small seaside town.

Charles de Berkeley's 'Marcelle' (Colin) is a pretty little love-story in the style of Ludovic Halévy's 'Un Mariage d'Amour,' told in a series of letters and ending in the appropriate manner. The volume contains a second story, "Aventure en voyage," in which the author fairly revels in the traditional possibilities of love in burning Italy; but he is moral throughout.

The *Journal of Germanic Philology* makes its first appearance in a form larger and more complete than was originally intended. Prof. G. E. Karsten of the University of Indiana, the editor-in-chief, has associated with himself as coeditors Prof. Georg Holz of Leipzig, who will look after the European interests, Prof. A. S. Cook of Yale for the department of English, Prof. H. S. White of Cornell for German literature, and G. A. Hench of Michigan for Germanic grammar. Financial support has been provided by the munificence of seven patrons in Indianapolis. Some sixty Europeans have signified their intention of becoming contributors, and most of the leading scholars of our country have become interested in the project. The term Germanic philology is used in the broad sense laid down in Paul's 'Grundriss,' and in this first number are several articles of a purely linguistic nature and also some purely literary. The department of reviews is devoted to reviews of periodicals dealing with Germanics—for the most part, German ones. Although only articles by trained and competent experts will be admitted to its columns, the *Journal* has been planned for teachers of all grades and for all students of Germanics. It will also open a way for bringing American investigators to the attention of Germanists everywhere. It is founded on such a firm and broad basis that it can hardly fail to justify its name, and it merits the respect and support of everybody at all interested in Germanics.

With the incoming of the present year the publication of the Berlin *Biographische Blätter* was taken over by George Reimer, 12 Anhaltstrasse in the same city, and the periodical was converted into an annual with an added function, indicated in the new title, *Biographisches Jahrbuch und Deutscher Necrolog.* In fact, an attempt will be made to supply a desideratum in the shape of a trustworthy, accessible necrology for German notables. The first number of the changed form, embracing some 500 pages, lexicon octavo, is expected to appear by mid-November at latest. The publisher desires that necrologies and material be sent to the editor, Dr. Anton Bettelheim, Vienna XIX, Karl Ludwigstr. 57.

Mr. M. A. D. Howe's article in the April *Bookman* confirms the impression made by his Irving chapter that he is less strong as a biographer than as a critic. This time he writes on Bryant, and, with Godwin's Life before one, it is difficult to err. Yet, in defiance of biographers and tombstone, Mr. Howe says that the poet's father was named Stephen, and, in dealing with facts not directly under his eye, he shows a lack of the general knowledge necessary to form a preliminary opinion as to what statements require verification. Thus, in 1828, Bryant was not famous, and it is therefore improbable that Inman's portrait was published in that year. It was, in fact, first published in the *Mirror* of September 2, 1837. Nor was it afterward, as Mr. Howe says, published in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for May, 1841, with a notice by Poe. This magazine was not issued after 1840; and though *Graham's Magazine*, which succeeded it, published a portrait of Bryant, it was not in May, 1841, but in August, 1843, and the artist was not Inman, but Thompson, and the writer of the notice was not Poe, whose Bryant article appeared in *Godey's* for April, 1846.

The American Oriental Society will hold its annual meeting on April 22-24 at Baltimore.

The Chief Clerk of the College of Agriculture of Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y., will undertake to assist, free of expense, all teachers who wish to introduce nature-study in the public schools. He should be addressed for particulars.

—"Historicus" writes to us as follows:

"Is it impossible for Dr. E. E. Hale to write anything without a blunder? In the current number of the *National Magazine* he has 'Some Recollections of the Century.' In these he contrives to bring in the campaign against Burgoyne, and makes this statement: 'At the last, Washington sent down from Saratoga that he must have more men.' When was Washington at Saratoga asking for men? Does Dr. Hale mean Gates? A few lines further on he says: 'They marched only up to Number Six, as Charlestown in New Hampshire was then called.' Charlestown in New Hampshire was granted at the end of 1735 by the name of 'Number Four,' which name it retained long after, although it had been incorporated as Charlestown in 1753 (*vide* 'Hayward's N. E. Gazetteer,' 8th ed., 1839). It is of no great importance whether a town was called Number Six or Number Four; but one is right and the other wrong; and, as an old Andover teacher used to say, 'that's all and that's enough.'"

—Mr. Paul Leicester Ford, in 'The True Washington,' quotes from the Rev. Jonathan Boucher that "George, like most people thereabouts at that time, had no [other] education than reading, writing, and accounts, which he was taught by a convict servant whom his father had bought for a schoolmaster." He adds that "Boucher managed to include so many inaccuracies in his account of Washington that, even if this statement were not certainly untruthful in certain respects, it could be dismissed as valueless" (p. 60). On this a correspondent of the *Nation* comments: "If truthful in any respect, Boucher's chronicle cannot be valueless. But how far it was untruthful is a question which Mr. Ford leaves untouched. Who was more likely than Boucher to know whether Washington's teacher was a convict? In 1759 he was living in Port Royal, within an easy morning ride of the estate on the Rappahannock where Washington began to live when seven years old, and continued to live for four years. For sixteen years Boucher was a dweller in that neighborhood—never further removed than Annapolis. He was the rector of four churches. During his charge of two of them he kept a family school, and in both of them Washington's stepson Parke Custis was one of his pupils. Among the proofs of 'very particular intimacy' between him and Washington are pressing invitations to frequent visits to Mount Vernon, at least sixteen letters from Washington, etc. His own interest in local education was shown in a sermon penned and prepared to be preached in Port Tobacco—at the first bend of the Potomac below Mount Vernon—by request of the Governor and Council of Maryland. In this discourse he states that 'at least two thirds of the little education we receive are derived from instructors who are either indented servants or transported felons. Not a ship arrives in which schoolmasters are not as regularly advertised for sale as are weavers, tailors, or any other trade, with little other difference that I can hear of excepting, perhaps, that the former do not usually fetch so good a price as the latter.' This statement he declares 'was not made at random nor without as much previous authentic information as the nature of the case would admit of.'"

—Boucher's testimony, continues our correspondent, is the best we have regarding the chief years of Washington's education. It is probably truthful. It was given when the witness, after the Revolution, had dedicated a volume to Washington as "a tender of renewed amity," and which was so received. Boucher's words are the more credible because they relate to an era when competent teachers, perhaps those most competent, were found among convicts. Such a one was Henry Justice, a London barrister, transported to the American plantations in Washington's fifth year. Other educated convicts came over in the same vessel with Justice. Boucher's real meaning is that Washington was taught as other planters' boys were. Only this once does Mr. Ford undervalue Boucher's testimony. He adduces it as the sole evidence to show Washington's salary as surveyor. He cites his remark that Washington "in his moral character was regular," in disproof of rumors charging him with immorality. Nor does he discredit Boucher's report that Washington, by a certain publication, "drew on himself some ridicule." But Boucher could certainly more easily ascertain that Washington had a convict teacher than that he never had a mistress. No witness appears save Boucher concerning the teaching of Washington during his father's lifetime. Afterward, when the boy went to live with his elder brother in Wakefield, Mr. Ford *presumes* that he took advantage of a school kept there by one Williams. Why may we not as probably *presume* that the convict schoolmaster, his occupation being gone in the old home, was sent along with the boy to carry on his teaching, just as a body-servant was dispatched to

Boucher's school with Parke Custis in order to care for his young master's horses? After all, if Boucher errs in denying Washington more than a single schoolmaster, his positive testimony cannot be set down as "valueless."

—"Neural Terms, International and National," is the title of a paper by Prof. Wilder of Cornell in the *Journal of Comparative Neurology*, vol. vi., pp. 216–352 (also published separately). The writer is well known to have spent many years in efforts to improve anatomical nomenclature, especially in the naming of the nervous system. He would avoid what he calls "pecilonymy"—his name for slovenly or methodless terminology—by rigid adherence to those desirable attributes of all scientific writing which he calls "the five C's, viz., Clearness, Consistency, Correctness, Conciseness, and Completeness." His own onymy exhibits these qualities to a degree probably unattained by other anatomists, and has found much favor in this country, especially since so many of his coinages—notably those in Wilder and Gage's 'Anatomical Technology' and in Buck's 'Handbook'—were considered by Dr. Coues to have acquired sufficient currency to be included in the 'Century Dictionary.' Many of his specialties, however, remain almost peculiar to their author; and out of an uncounted number of innovations proposed by him or by others, the American Neurological Association recommended only forty for use on June 5, 1896. This action was one of five considerations which led the author to prepare the present paper, three of the other four conditions being, directly or indirectly, the action of the German Anatomische Gesellschaft which met at Basel in April, 1895, and the fifth one relating to his personal controversy on the subject with Prof. Wilhelm His. The latter is arraigned for "failure to comprehend the aims of the American Committees," and for "misrepresentation" which, "unless corrected, might well, especially in Germany, impair the efficiency of my past and present utterances upon Anatomic Nomenclature" (p. 217). Prof. Wilder fences steadily, and his skill will be admired by all who are in sympathy with his efforts. But, aside from its polemical bearings, the present paper is valuable in itself, as an exhibit of much that has been done of late to improve neural terms; and it will enable any one interested in the subject to form his own opinion, especially by means of Part vii. of the paper, which tabulates a "List of the neural terms adopted by the Anatomische Gesellschaft and of those now preferred by the writer" (pp. 301-328). We imagine that few persons outside of Germany will agree with Kölliker that Wilder's terminology is "a complete failure," or that His's strictures will carry any weight in this country, though the present contribution to the subject is by no means free from errors and omissions, and bears the marks of having been written by a very busy man under great pressure.

—Now that "graduate study" and "original research" are increasing apace, it becomes necessary to remark that not every piece of work worth doing is therefore worth printing. An historical student, for instance, may often profitably be employed in drawing up for himself from the original authorities a narrative of the events of some brief period, even though half a dozen competent historians have been before him. He will learn to weigh evidence, to distinguish details that are significant from details that are insignificant, to piece together fragments into a whole. But great as is the advantage of coming into close contact with the thoughts and language of the men of a bygone age, after all the eye brings with it, if not what it sees, at any rate the power to see; and unless the student has some unusual endowment of insight, or knowledge, or style, the result is apt to be a dull chronicle of details imperfectly enlivened by a few general ideas borrowed more or less consciously from the modern historians. These remarks have been suggested by 'The National Movement in the Reign of Henry III. and its Culmination in the Barons' War,' by Oliver H. Richardson, A.B., Professor of History in Drury College (Macmillan). This book of 233 pages represents evidently some months of sustained and protracted toil; but, before printing it, the author would have done well to ask himself what he supposed there was in it which could not be found in such well-known and accessible books as those of Stubbs and Pauli and Prothero. Certainly there are no new ideas to be found here; and if any of the details are stated with greater accuracy, the author gives us no help in finding them, and life is too short to hunt for them.

—The Buddhists of Japan seem determined to extend their influence, not only into Korea and China and the newer part of the Japanese Empire in Formosa, but also into Christendom. For several years past they have published a vigorous magazine entitled *Hansei Zasshi;* which, from the beginning of this year, is also issued in English, with an excellently printed page and plenty of illustrations. The enterprise was started twelve years ago by young Buddhists in Kiōto, who "formed a society to promote moral improvement, charity, mission work, and publishing on the basis of Buddhistic doctrine." Having 21,000 members and six branch societies, this monthly magazine is published as their official organ. "The purpose is to introduce the doctrine to the Buddhistic sects, to make known the true condition of the moral world here in Japan, and to describe the characteristics of Japanese art, customs, and manners." It is very evident that whatever success will be obtained abroad must come by appealing to and satisfying the eager desire of Occidentals to know more of Japanese art. There is an interesting chapter on the Influence of Buddhism on Japanese Culture, another on the different sects, with a table giving the names of founders, of the present high priests, and of the place of the central temple of each sect. Mr. R. Kuki, well known to many Americans, in a paper on the Source of Japanese Arts, names as the immediate source Buddhism, and as the remote source the Greek influence which came into India through the Alexandrian invasion. He says: "Buddhism was not, in its original form, an idolatry, . . . and the change of Buddhism to idolatry is an effect, though indirect, of the Grecian art upon the minds of the Indians." Mr. Kuki has in other papers proved that traces of Grecian style are clearly visible in the idols of Buddha in Nara and Kōya. We may add that, after the researches of recent scholars in the art history of Northern Buddhism, it seems clear that the Greek influence has completed the circuit of the earth. There are also miscellaneous notes of information and several excellent reproductions of photographs, one of which shows the successful Buddhist missionary school at Taipeh, in Formosa, established in June, 1896.

MAHAN'S NELSON.

The Life of Nelson: The Embodiment of the Sea Power of Great Britain. By Capt. A. T. Mahan, D.C.L., LL.D. In two volumes. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1897.

Capt. Mahan's title hints that he is producing a sequel to the 'Influence of Sea Power.' Furthermore, the preface expressly states that "the theme is essential to the completeness and rounding off of the author's discussion of the Influence of Sea Power." We are dealing with the conclusion of a series, not with an isolated study. Hence we are bound to establish a connection between the parts as they have appeared in stated order—a duty the more absolute on account of the profound influence which has been exerted by the three volumes already in print. "The Influence of Sea Power" series has been very artistically developed. It is without a weak member, and the whole is more than all its parts. The direction of progress is from the general to the particular, from broad propositions to a single marvellous career. At the outset, 140 years are sketched in one volume; next, two volumes are devoted to a short epoch; and, finally, the element of individual exploit which most readers of history long for is provided to repletion. 1793-1805 covers the period of Nelson's important service, and Capt. Mahan gives one a position upon the quarter-deck of his various vessels throughout these twelve years. The lines that started with De Ruyter, Monk, and Rupert converge to Nelson and Brueys, Nelson and Villeneuve, Nelson and Napoleon. The apotheosis of Sea Power is British triumph in Trafalgar Bay, duly followed by Waterloo and St. Helena. The *opus* closes "in a blaze of glory."

Certain distinguished public characters—for instance, the second Pitt and Sir Robert Peel—can be lifted by their biographers almost wholly out of the sphere of their private relations. They are rare, and Nelson is far from being one of them. For many reasons, Capt. Mahan and Prof. Laughton enjoy an advantage over their predecessors, the early biographers, Clarke and M'Arthur, Sir Harris Nicolas, and Southey. Some asperities have been softened by time, and some words of censure can now be calmly uttered and calmly heard which would once have raised the indignant protests of a grateful nation. A bulky correspondence has been published; the death of contemporaries has permitted much *histoire intime* to reach the light. Capt. Mahan might easily have succumbed to the temptation of making his 'Life of Nelson' a mere expansion of Nelson's part in his 'French Revolution.' He escapes this grave danger by combining with politics and war a study of the psychology involved. If it be a sin to covet honor, Nelson was the most offending soul in the British navy. He yearned for honor, received it, and Capt. Mahan leaves him in proud possession of it. Still, truth has her meed: the hero is detached from "the glory of his surroundings"; he is portrayed not only as he appeared to Hood, St.-Vincent, Pitt, the King, and the average Briton, but also as he appeared to his friends, his sailors, his wife, and his mistress.

Capt. Mahan, whatever he might have accomplished by professional acuteness, would have secured a scant biographical aftermath had he pursued the casual method of bringing together neglected incidents. He has produced a genuine contribution to literature by mastering the best sources, and by freeing

himself from the influence of former writers. About other biographers he has virtually nothing to say. His comparisons, contrasts, and cross-references take one to the original authorities, especially to Nelson's despatches and private letters. Since at least half the value of the work depends upon his treatment of personal character, we quote the passage in which he states how he has proceeded :

"The author's method has been to make a careful study of Nelson's voluminous correspondence, analyzing it, in order to detect the leading features of temperament, traits of thought, and motives of action; and thence to conceive within himself, by gradual familiarity even more than by formal effort, the character therein revealed. The impression thus produced he has sought to convey to others, partly in the form of ordinary narrative—daily living with his hero—and partly by such grouping of incidents and utterances, not always, nor even nearly, simultaneous, as shall serve by their joint evidence to emphasize particular traits, or particular opinions, more forcibly than when such testimonies are scattered far apart, as they would be if recounted in a strict order of time."

We can easily see that Capt. Mahan gains much by chronological distance and by the objectivity that springs from difference of national allegiance. The question next arises, How much does he lose by remoteness and the lack of patriotic fire? Were Nelson's qualities of mind and soul less clear than they are, were his exploits less phenomenal, the modern biographer would carry a heavy handicap in his race with the writers of 1805-'30. We shall stop short of expressing the opinion that Capt. Mahan has at every point outclassed them. We love the English of King James's version better than that of the revision because of its freshness, because it bears the hall-mark of an age when words were new-minted. Similarly, the sentiments of Nelson's generation, besides being worthy of preservation for their historical import, charm us through their warmth of patriotic enthusiasm. There is a season for all things, even for patriotism, though one may be pardoned if he sometimes forgets this truth under the provocation offered by blatant and brummagem politicians. Capt. Mahan draws Nelson with full sympathy, and the letters furnish him with lively pigments, but, if his portrait is submitted to the test of the most rigid criticism, the impalpable something which is wanting—that famous snap of the finger—is love of country dwelling proudly upon a unique career. Here where an alien must, *ex hypothesi*, be "sadly to seek," Southey comes to the rescue with his compact and graphic story.

We are inclined to believe that there will always be two distinct types of Nelson biography, the one written for edification, the other for the sake of getting at the truth and pointing philosophic conclusions. Southey's aim was to produce a manual which the young British sailor might have about him till he knew it and its lesson by heart. He did not shrink from the charge of lavish praise. "In attempting such a work, I shall write the eulogy of our great naval hero; for the eulogy of Nelson is the faithful history of his actions: the best history, that which shall relate them most perspicuously." This confessed "eulogy" was composed in good faith, and has become impregnably established. Southey was able to praise without stint because he believed that the talk of improper relations between Nelson and Lady Hamilton was malicious gossip. He admits an "unfortunate attachment"; nothing more. We should be guilty of special pleading if we tried to deny the magnitude of his biographical error. Capt. Mahan says that it is "wicked" to palliate the fact of Nelson's infatuation. Accepting this judgment, the blemish upon Southey's narrative and estimate is obvious, for, though he is not basely complaisant, his ignorance affects his whole attitude. And yet the little book which so many of us read with delight at a tender age will continue to hold its own at the head of its particular class. One sure sign of genius is that its worst fails to destroy its best. After studying Prof. Dowden's 'Shelley,' Matthew Arnold could say: "Despite these revelations, the old lovable Shelley remains." Making every possible deduction on the score of Nelson's notorious liaison, there remains what Southey saw and enshrined. Canning invokes Pitt to take "the thanks of a people thy firmness has saved." How cold in their application to Nelson such words would have appeared to an Englishman after Trafalgar! He was the guardian of his country during those years of doubt and dread which turned Southey from an ardent revolutionist into a rooted Tory. The glow of British triumph, the warmth of British homage, are reflected in the latter's pages. We freely accord Capt. Mahan first place in the second of the categories made above, reserving to Southey his prescriptive rights over the domain of panegyric and hero-worship. "He has left us, not indeed his mantle of inspiration, but a name and an example, which are at this hour inspiring thousands of the youth of England: a name which is our pride, and an example which will continue to be our shield and our strength."

But even heroes have their natural history, none ever entering the world with the full stature and equipment of the goddess Athene. We must now turn to what Capt. Mahan says about the growth of Nelson's character and his onward course. The scientific inquirer minimizes the element of accident that he may establish the working of general laws. Capt. Mahan persistently attacks the vulgar notion that Nelson was an *enfant gâté de la fortune*. Every illustrious life embraces the two chapters of preparation and achievement. Nelson passed from the first of these to the second at 1 P.M. on the 14th of February, 1797. He was then serving under Sir John Jervis against the Spaniards off the Portuguese coast, 150 miles to the northwest of Cadiz. One division of the enemy's fleet which had been cut off from the main body attempted to join it. Nelson, acting quite on his own responsibility, balked the movement, settled the issue of the day, and concluded his share in the battle of St. Vincent by boarding the *S. Nicolas*, 80 guns, and the *S. Josef*, a three-decker. At the beginning of the action he belonged to the rank of promising young commodores ; at its end he had joined Blake and Hawke. There is no mistaking the facts. Did success spring from a lucky hit or from long training? The leading motive of Capt. Mahan's narrative up to this point is that twenty-seven years of professional prayer and fasting lay behind the "happy meeting of opportunity and readiness."

Capt. Mahan's account of Nelson's early period is a model of what critical biography ought to be. He describes traits as they appear and are confirmed ; he watches and illustrates the forces which are moulding mind and impulse ; the rest is pruned away. The boy's indebtedness to Suckling and Locker was great, but he made progress less through the favor than through the esteem of his commanders. He gained his ship without seeing an engagement ; he was advanced by the deadliness of the West Indian climate and the impression he created of power in store. An unusual amount of detached service brought out the independence which he afterwards displayed so often at the critical moment of a battle. He learned when piloting the *Triumph's* long-boat to be confident among rocks and sands. Before San Juan del Norte in Nicaragua he "made batteries, and fought them, and was a principal cause of our success." He contested a matter of procedure with his friend Moutray warmly and yet peaceably. He was a strenuous enforcer of the Navigation Act in the teeth of the Nevis planters. Withal, his craving for fame and official recognition was kept in check by a rigid sense of duty to the King. He often chafed beneath the orders and neglect of the naval bureau without letting his grievances affect his allegiance. If it be asked whether Nelson was a modest young captain, the answer is that in temper he resembled most military and poetical geniuses. He burned to see broadsides and gazettes consecrated to the record of his deeds. "His name was ever fixed upon glory, or rather upon honor—the word he himself most often used, and which more accurately expresses his desire for fame; honor, which is to glory what character is to reputation." He could live in the unseen ; he could realize the triumphs of the future, and draw on them for solace in days of discouragement or chronic illness. His heart was inflammable, though he never loved to distraction till he met the Circe of the Neapolitan embassy after the Battle of the Nile. He was in love with Mrs. Nisbet when he married her, and "esteemed" her to the end. Capt. Mahan sees in his prosaic professions of esteem for his wife a conspicuous danger-signal. "If an affection was to hold its own in a nature enthusiastic and imaginative as that of Nelson, it had need to strike root deeper than the surface soil indicated by mere esteem." His imagination invested and controlled him. It responded in varying degrees to many impulses, but always with violence to three—duty, honor, and love.

The wars of the French Revolution meant for Englishmen, also, "a career open to talents." Capt. Mahan, having brought out the functional parts of Nelson's character, plunges him, a captain of fourteen years' standing, into the fray. Hitherto he has been chiefly concerned with qualities ; now he passes to events. 1793 opened the door to Nelson's promotion, which had for a time been closed by intimacy with princely leaders of the Opposition. Well-trained officers were in demand after Chauvelin's dismissal sounded the "coup de canon." Just as Napoleon's Corsican irregularities were forgiven him on the issue of Brunswick's proclamation, so the disfavor Nelson had incurred at the admiralty through his friendship with the future William IV. was forgotten, and he received a sixty-four, the *Agamemnon*. Sailors were found among the men of his own country, East Anglia. With a crew drawn out of Norfolk and Suffolk from the sons of vikings, he sailed to the Mediterranean and joined the squadron then serving under Lord Hood. Capt. Mahan is careful that credit shall be done to Nelson's intellectual capacity. If a man has Garibaldi's dash, the cry is raised that an ass's head goes with the lion's heart. Nelson had, besides the courage which accepts responsibility, the mind which grasps the centre of a situation. Hotham was content to capture a ship or two; Nelson aimed at destroying the

French navy, and knew by mental processes how the feat could be done. He had zeal from boyhood; judgment he also had when he commanded the *Agamemnon*; but his phenomenal ability ripened year by year. He lacked Bonaparte's precocity. "Whether in natural insight Nelson fell short of Napoleon's measure, need not here be considered; that he was at this time [1796] far inferior, in the powers of a trained intellect, to his younger competitor in the race for fame, is manifest." Five years of the Mediterranean were needed to widen his political horizon and to settle his convictions of naval method When Capt. Mahan reaches the campaign of the Nile he can say: "The two elements—mental and moral power—are often found separately, rarely in due combination. In Nelson they met, and their coincidence with the exceptional opportunities afforded him constituted his good fortune and his greatness." He had at last become a foe worthy of Napoleon and a leader worthy of the force he swayed. Dr. Arnold, in a fine passage, likens the sixteen years' struggle of Hannibal against Rome to the seventeen years' struggle of Bonaparte against England. We cannot make out a perfect comparison, but if Wellington in the Peninsula was the Fabius Maximus Cunctator of the later strife, it was Nelson who won the battle of the Metaurus.

A hero out of employment is apt to be a pitiful object. Lieut. Layman, who visited Nelson at Merton, said of him that he was "little in little things, but by far the greatest man in great things he ever saw; that he had seen him petulant in trifles, and as cool and collected as a philosopher when surrounded by dangers, in which men of common minds, with clouded countenances, would say, 'Ah, what is to be done?'" The egotism of his correspondence becomes intolerable unless allowance is made for disposition and circumstance. However, self assertion seldom cropped out in daily intercourse, for the evidence of his mildness—especially before he was wounded in the head—is overwhelming. At Vienna in 1800 he was equally ridiculous about Lady Hamilton and unaffected towards old friends. Lady Minto, recalling their Corsican acquaintance, writes: "He has the same shock head and the same honest, simple manners. . . . He is a gig from ribands, orders, and stars, but he is just the same with us as he ever was." Of modest demeanor when he felt that he was being made much of or even appreciated, Nelson at heart was omnivorous of flattery.

The most delicate part of Capt. Mahan's task—the account of Lady Hamilton and her influence—is to explain Nelson's capture by a clever, inferior woman whose desire to dazzle Europe was hardly second to his own. Her beauty was bound up with tawdriness, and her daily pæans would have soon disgusted the common-sense, commonplace individual. Nelson fell victim to a daily Carmagnole. His charmer was certainly gifted with enterprise, and displayed enough "pagan virtue" to supply his warm, idealizing instinct a nucleus.

> "Under the stimulus of excitement, of self-conscious magnanimity, for the glitter of effective performance and the applause of on lookers, she was capable of heroic action. It was this daring spirit, coarsely akin to much that was best in himself, and of which she made proof under his own eyes, that Nelson recognized; and this . . . was the body of truth from which his enthusiasm, enkindled by her charms and by her tenderness towards himself, projected such a singular phantasm of romantic perfections."

Capt. Mahan's story of the connection, coupled with his estimate of its results, seems to us incapable of improvement. The prime of Nelson's military powers coincides with a moral descent which is patent to his contemporaries and which is patent to us, but which self-esteem and the violence of affection cloaked in large measure from the culprit. Questions of comparative ethics fairly bristle about the situation, and a person of liberal mind must be on his guard against antinomianism, should he seek to measure Nelson's publicity with the sordid sins of many warriors and statesmen. Capt. Mahan keeps to the plain path of fact. The severance of duty into public and private codes, the wrong to his wife and Sir William Hamilton, the mystification about Horatia, the quarrel with Troubridge, the new and growing irritability, the recollection of Nisbet's debt to him and his forgetfulness that Nisbet saved his life, the longing to be dead and over with it—these are the signs of Nelson's Nemesis. Granted that he was worse than a fool. We should be ashamed of ourselves if we were not moved by the sincerity of his last thoughts, and of his last charge to his country.

Other writers on the same subject have shown their biographical skill or nautical information. Hardly one has shown adequate grasp of the European interests at stake. Capt. Mahan's merit is that he treats with full competence the three aspects involved—personal, professional, and political. We have confined our notice to his image of Nelson's individuality that the extent of his range may be discerned. The preceding volumes of 'Sea Power' have proved his thoughtfulness and his command of history, both naval and general. But to place the conclusion of the series on an equal level—to avoid an anti-climax—faculties of more vivid narrative and closer analysis of motive were demanded. The reader will find that they are present, together with perfect honesty. Capt. Mahan's professional eloquence often reminds us of Southey's patriotic eloquence, and still he does not chalk his bull before leading him out to sacrifice.

One article in the reviewer's creed is that the best of books, if properly examined, can be made to yield a certain quota of slips and oversights. We could, were we put on our defence, indicate two or three cases of what we deem minor blemish in these pages, but we refrain from doing so, partly because they relate to matters of opinion rather than of fact, and partly because they are insignificant. Before we reached them, many questions which we have been compelled to pass by would claim attention. We have ventured to speak our mind concerning the excellence, in its way, of Southey's book, and its permanent value. But, a century after Nelson leaped to fame at St. Vincent, the world demands the truth and the historical meaning of his life. These Capt. Mahan gives as they have never till now been presented. The 'Influence of Sea Power' finishes strong. Æsthetic canons of themselves require that the author should end the series at Nelson's death. He can contemplate with lasting satisfaction the achievement of a work which, while great in its design, in its execution deserves the praise, "totus, teres, atque rotundus."

RECENT NOVELS.

An Outcast of the Islands. By Joseph Conrad. D. Appleton & Co.

Caóba, the Guerilla Chief: A Real Romance of the Cuban Rebellion. By P. H. Emerson. London: David Nutt.

McLeod of the Camerons. By M. Hamilton. D. Appleton & Co.

A Reluctant Evangelist, and Other Stories. By Alice Spinner. Edward Arnold.

The Red Scaur. By P. Anderson Graham. Longmans, Green & Co.

The White-faced Priest, and Other Northumbrian Episodes. By Howard Pease. London: Gay & Bird.

Tyne Folk. By Joseph Parker. F. H. Revell Co.

That First Affair. By J. A. Mitchell. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Forge in the Forest: An Acadian Romance. By Charles G. D. Roberts. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

The Country of the Pointed Firs. By Sarah Orne Jewett. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Well at the World's End. By William Morris. Longmans, Green & Co.

BELIEF in the benefits of foreign travel has long been a cherished superstition, and might survive eternally if travellers would keep their impressions to themselves, guarding them as jealously as the spoils picked up and paid for by the way. It is when the foreign air goes to their heads, persuading them that it is a specific for the creation of brilliant novelists, that the faith of the untravelled begins to waver and complete disillusion threatens.

The novels written by Mr. Joseph Conrad illustrate this effect of foreign travel which one cannot help regarding as rather curious than beneficial. There is no reason to suppose that he is by nature irrational or vain, or that he would have mistaken his vocation had he clung to centres of civilization. But the accident of residence in Borneo, Celebes, and circumambient isles has tempted him to write novels, and has therefore made him appear a person of little discernment and poor judgment. The climate and the vegetation of the East Indies instigated a book; and the society, black and white, of a sort which no reputable person would meet at home, commanded a novel. In the first novel, entitled 'Almayer's Folly,' the most prominent member of that society is an immoral and bad-tempered trader, named Almayer. He appears in the second, entitled 'An Outcast of the Islands,' almost virtuous and pleasing in comparison with Willems, a Dutchman, who adds hypocrisy and ingratitude to a variety of cruder vices. Rightly to understand the intrigues carried on by Arab adventurers and negro potentates, one would need the unlimited leisure of Borneo and a positive aversion for edification. The moral of the books seems to be that white Christians can be much worse than black pagans, and generally are, along the Straits of Macassar.

The point to be made is, not that a competent novelist would be beaten in a struggle with the Spice Islands, but that just having been there is not enough to make a good or even passable novelist. Neither is having been in Cuba, an accident which betrayed Mr. P. H. Emerson into the mistake of what he calls a 'Real Romance,' the full and somewhat misleading title of which is, 'Caóba, the Guerilla Chief: A Real Romance of the Cuban Rebellion.' Both romance and rebellion are fortunately compressed into a few chapters towards the end, while the greater part is given to a description of Cuban life during about ten years preceding the out-

break of the rebellion of the seventies. These chapters are scrappy, and the attempts at characterization are too feeble to be considered, but they are full of information about the management of a great plantation, giving clear accounts of planting and grinding of cane, of the master's life and the slave's, and the relations between them. During all this peaceful time Caóba is not a chief or even a guerilla, but a cheerful house-servant and faithful slave. Once armed, he becomes a shocking blackguard, abandoned to impulsive crime much more appalling than are the well-ordered atrocities of the Spanish regulars. On both sides the deeds narrated are similar to those provided by the daily press under the head-line, "Cuban Horrors"—a similarity which may establish the veracity of the press, for Mr. Emerson says his stories are true. He also says that he "sympathizes with neither side," and that "the United States of America is the country to interfere and annex the island." It is superfluous to add that he is equally without sympathy or even compassion for the United States.

A season in Malta is rather an excuse than a reason for 'McLeod of the Camerons,' by M. Hamilton, presumably a young lady. She was full to bursting with garrison gossip and army slang, and Malta gave the chance for an explosion. Her account of the social grievances suffered by Mrs. Stoddart, who on the slightest provocation and without stopping to ask, had married a man of no family at all, is poignant, and the social abyss gaping between a naval engineer and a lieutenant is made hideously clear. What is more obscure is the eagerness for notice from dissolute lords and light-minded ladies displayed by Mrs. Stoddart, who worships the beautiful and true in art, has a feeling for the soul of things, and, when removed from her own set and condemned to the ignominy of Manchester and her husband's people, at once becomes a distinguished novelist. The Scotch title chosen by the author indicates even less than the locality. McLeod is an officer of the Cameron Highlanders with a tendency to insanity and no compensating caution. He has literary tastes and can compel magazine editors to accept stories, a trait which may be accepted as national. Still, to keep his nationality in mind, the occasional reference to his full-dress kilt and his undress trews is really necessary. Though the author is not up to distinct or consistent characterization, she has a frank, straight way of describing the trivial interests of those whose serious movements are rare, and in gossiping talk she is extremely glib. After a period of silent meditation on the beautiful and true and the soul of things, she might write a novel which should show an understanding of such terms and efface the offence of their use as claptrap and gibberish.

By way of contrast to such instances of the insufficiency of travel to create competent writers of fiction, there is good fortune in having at hand a volume which shows that travel can urge literary impulse to expression. The author of 'A Reluctant Evangelist' has an excellent and well trained gift for story telling. The incidents and characters of her tales of the West Indies have abundant local color, but that is their slightest claim on favorable notice. West Indian customs, manners, climate, scenery, legends, and superstitions are essential for atmosphere and detail, but are not used for more than they are worth as conditions that affect character, help to make a situation, or carry the burden of an adventure. Besides the fiction, there is a chapter "Concerning Duppies" written with enough vivacity to discredit the author among serious investigators of folk-lore.

Among the writers of English local fiction, those of Northumberland are just now very industrious. They are taking considerable pains to dissociate the border country from exciting traditions of Otterburn and Chevy Chase, and are harmoniously theological, dialectical, and dull. Here and there in 'The Red Scaur' there is a good note of characterization, a clear and pathetic vision of a fine nature uncontaminated by hard circumstances and sordid association. The author, however, has so little notion of arrangement or selection that the discovery of his fine touches is a work of time and patience for which they might easily be considered insufficient reward. Such books are probably read with interest and pleasure by people who know the country and the plain, limited existence of Border farmers.

'The Red Scaur' has the air of a truthful report, and can doubtless be recommended to spur the emotion of recognition. So with the stories in the volume entitled 'The White-faced Priest.' Most of the narration and description is in the Northumberland dialect, which, either written or spoken, is the roughest and most arbitrary of English dialects; applied to theological disputes, as in most of these stories, it presents difficulties which few readers not natives of the district can care to confront.

Dialect in the volume called 'Tyne Folk' is not so lavishly employed. Theological dispute has a share of the attention of the author, who appears as a critical spectator more amused than edified. The stories are not remarkable for incident or characterization, but are well told and enlivened with a good deal of ironical humor, and include some broadly comic situations.

Coming after the delightful tale of 'Amos Judd,' Mr. Mitchell's little volume entitled 'That First Affair' is disappointing. The misfortune of a striking début in fiction is the high standard established by the author for himself. If he cannot write up to it, it is better for his reputation that he should not write at all. The workmanship of this second book is neat and clever, but it is all decoration without substance. The first sketch, for which the legend of the Garden of Eden is the suggestion, is in bad taste, flippant and strained. The rest of the sketches, barring some aptly humorous comment and clever phrases, are innocent of interest.

Mr. Roberts's Acadian romance, 'The Forge in the Forest,' opens well, promising finely for romantic adventure. The time is after the treaty of Utrecht and before the expulsion of the Acadians, when the nominal owners of Nova Scotia, the English, were very much at the mercy of the French population and their Indian allies. Mr. Roberts has perceived the fitness of time and scene for a story, and has seized the elements, but apparently has not known how to hold them together. His selection of a dispossessed Acadian seigneur, filled with hatred of the conquerors, of some New England settlers at Annapolis, and of the Black Abbé, an intriguing and malicious priest, is of the best sort for his purpose. By some strange oversight, with scene, characters, and incidents all ready, he forgot to provide a motive for the Abbé's wickedness, and he neglected the invention of complications which should prove the ability and power ascribed to the Abbé as well as the superabundant malice. The result of such oversight is a feeble, disjointed tale, for which one asks at the end the reason why. As Mr. Roberts probably had in mind the Abbé Le Loutre, an able, ingenious, and implacable foe of the English, his melodramatic and futile Black Abbé is all the more surprising and disappointing. The English of the narrator, Jean de Mer, is most peculiar, being neither ancient nor modern, nor an attempted rendering of French idiom. We cannot think that his poetical descriptions of nature are in character, but are thankful for them because their delicacy and beauty offer some compensation for the defects of his tale.

As the best material for stories may be wasted by unskilled hands, so the plain, the meagre, the commonplace, may be used to marvellous advantage by the masters of the craft. Miss Jewett's 'Country of the Pointed Firs' is a case in point. All she has to work on is a fishing village on the Maine coast, and an old woman who grows herbs and maintains a sort of amateur dispensary. The casual observer could see little of interest here, the average writer could make little of what he sees; but the acute and sympathetic observer, the exceptional writer, comes on the scene, looks about, thinks, writes, and behold! a fascinating story. Dunnet appears as one of the most interesting spots on the face of the earth, and the centre of interest is the herb-garden. Life radiates from it, flows about it, and its aromatic scents blend delightfully with the salt of the sea. The ponderous figure of Mrs. Almira Todd, reticent yet garrulous, dominates the town's society and history, and her capable hand holds and spins and cuts the thread of destiny. Thus by a centralization of interest which seems but is not an easy process, we get a story instead of a series of sketches, a complete and satisfactory impression of what the author meant to do and accomplished. To defraud neither the imagination nor reason of the reader is the plain duty of all story-tellers, a duty which, however, only the very best can be trusted to fulfil.

A narrator who can afford to ignore the appeal to reason and stake all on his power to fire the imagination, is first of all a poet, whether he write in prose or verse. William Morris, in his revivals or réchauffés of mediæval romances, properly left reason out of the count, and strove only to envelop the reader in the glow of his own imagination and light a responsive flame. Among the romances of which the form has the latitude of prose and a subtle insinuation of poetic rhythm, 'The Well at the World's End' is most successful in creating the illusion of actuality, compelling faith which excludes question and dims an irritating perception of artifice. It is humanized fairy-lore, with no more novel subject than the quest for the fountain of eternal youth. Before the young knight Ralph of Upmeads and the maiden Ursula of low degree reach the well and drink, they have to face sorrow and pain and death, and to test by experience both their desire and their fitness to live long in a world where such trials are as certain as the rising and the setting of the sun. The only source from which Mr. Morris believed such fortitude could spring is expressed by the Sage of Swevenham to the young adventurers, the perils of whose way are not yet past.

"Were ye as wise as Solomon and as mighty as Alexander, I will say this much unto you, that if ye love not the earth and the world with all your souls, and will not strive all ye

may to be frank and happy therein, your toil and peril aforesaid shall win you no blessing, but a curse."

"He prayeth best who loveth best," said Coleridge, and he *liveth* best who loveth best, said Morris—loveth not only his kind, but the earth and sea and sky and all that on or in them is—loveth, moreover, his work, which frequently offers such advantages for hating. Unquestionably he loved his own work, and to none of the many kinds to which he set his brain and hand did he fail to give that sort of beauty which springs from joy in the doing. 'The Well at the World's End' could never have been written from a sense of duty, or for fame or pay; it is an expression of joy in the play and whims of imagination, and one must be hopelessly dull and depressed not to get pleasure from its beauty and catch enthusiasm from its spirit.

A Critical Study of Nullification in South Carolina. By David Franklin Houston. [Harvard Historical Studies, Vol. III.] Longmans, Green & Co. 1896. Pp. ix, 169.

Mr. Houston has done well to confine himself to a definite and limited field, and to work that thoroughly. He has made no attempt to discuss nullification in all its bearings, and has wisely refrained from traversing again the ground already gone over by writers on our constitutional history; instead, he has undertaken to trace the origin and development of nullification in South Carolina, and to discuss "the validity of the leading doctrine in the light of the precedents on which the nullifiers mainly relied, and of South Carolina early history." His work is thus a supplement to existing accounts of the movement, and as such is welcome. If the narrative touches often upon familiar matters, the story nevertheless gains appreciably in significance by this concentration of interest, as well as by the clearness with which it is told. Naturally Mr. Houston finds little in either the theory or the practice of nullification to commend, and does not hesitate to indicate from time to time his own opinion of the merits of the case; but he has written without prejudice, and we apprehend that his conclusions will find more general acceptance than he himself (if we may judge from a remark in the preface) seems to anticipate. We have space to refer to but two or three topics on which his researches shed new light.

The nullification movement aimed to check the centralizing tendencies of the national Government, as shown most prominently in protective-tariff legislation; and Mr. Houston is at pains to make clear the attitude of South Carolina towards this particular issue. That attitude was not free from inconsistency. In general, South Carolina did not direct its opposition against high duties as such, if the needs of the Government required them, but against duties levied for the sake of protection. But, down to 1823, the representatives of South Carolina in Congress "based their objections to the principle of protection only on grounds of expediency and justice, tacitly admitting its constitutionality, and not until after that date was its constitutionality denied" (p. 5). The turning point came in 1816, however, when Calhoun and others voted for the tariff bill of that year. From that time there grew rapidly in South Carolina a feeling "that the interests of the South were not identical with those of the North," and that the course of national affairs, under increasing Northern control, was likely to run in opposition to the interests of the State. This growing dissatisfaction, sharply accentuated by disappointment and chagrin over the result of the election of 1824, prepared the way for a change in the theory of the Constitution—a change the more necessary since South Carolina, in the persons of Eldred Simkins, George McDuffie, and Calhoun, had in the past approved of the exercise of implied powers, and of the theory on which their exercise was based.

The steps by which this change of front, between 1817 and 1828, was brought about are traced by Mr. Houston with much wealth of detail, and with especial care. The problem was to change public sentiment from the negative attitude of opposition to the national Government to the positive standpoint of enthusiasm for a new theory of the Constitution. The chief part in organizing the movement, up to 1826, was taken by Senator William Smith. Smith began his political life by opposing Calhoun's policy, fought the "Bonus Bill" of 1817 and the tariff the year following, and, after his retirement from the Senate in 1823 to make room for Hayne, devoted himself to furthering the cause in South Carolina. His efficient ally was Dr. Thomas Cooper, President of the South Carolina College, whom John Quincy Adams characterized as "a learned, ingenious, scientific, and talented madcap." From 1821 to 1824, protests against protection "poured into Congress from almost every county of South Carolina"; while in December, 1825, Smith succeeded in carrying through the Legislature resolutions which "reversed Calhoun's policy and formally pledged the State to the doctrine of strict construction" (p. 59). The doctrine of nullification, as finally enunciated by Calhoun and his school, claimed foundation in the *Federalist*, the Kentucky and Virginia Resolutions, the attitude of New England during the war of 1812, the controversy, as yet unsettled, between Georgia and the United States, and "the understanding that South Carolina had had from the beginning as to the nature of the Union." Mr. Houston examines each of these arguments in turn, and shows not only that neither the *Federalist* nor the Resolutions of 1798 afford support for such a doctrine, but also that the early history of the State was against it, and that in South Carolina the Hartford Convention had been generally condemned. Only in the Georgia controversy was encouragement to be found for such action as the State now theoretically proposed to itself.

It has been generally assumed that Calhoun was the principal figure in the nullification movement, but Mr. Houston's investigations tend to qualify this view very materially. As he rightly reminds us at the outset (p. 3), "South Carolina and Calhoun did not always stand for the same thing." We have already seen that Calhoun had approved the doctrine of implied powers, and as early as 1814 he had committed himself to advocacy of protection. In 1817, however, he retired from Congress, and, with Presidential aspirations to restrain him, refrained for a number of years from frequent or explicit expression of opinion on public questions. "Just at what time," says Mr. Houston (p. 60), "Calhoun changed from a protectionist to a free-trader, from a liberal to a conservative, from a liberal constructionist to a strict constructionist, from a progressionist to an obstructionist, has been difficult to determine. One thing is clear—his change followed that of the majority of the people of the State; and whatever pressure there was, was exerted by the State on him, and not by him on the State." An interesting letter to Robert S. Garnett of Virginia, dated July 3, 1824, but first published in 1893, in the Montgomery *Daily Advertiser*, shows that at that time his views had not changed; nor did he hesitate, in 1825, to "reprobate . . . any concerted union between States for interested or sectional objects." It was not until after the passage of the tariff act of 1828 that he became thoroughly convinced of the possible dangers of a protective system, and began a study of the Constitution whose outcome was the theory of nullification. That theory, however, had already been formulated, in 1827, by Robert J. Turnbull, in 'The Crisis'; and although Calhoun "refined the doctrine, put it into shape, and elaborated it," the honor, if such it may be called, of originating it would seem to belong to Turnbull. That Calhoun must have seen 'The Crisis' is evident from the fact that he uses many of its precise phrases. "It is as an expounder, and as little else, that Calhoun figures in the controversy. He was not the originator of the doctrine, and he played scarcely any part as an actor in front of the scenes up to January, 1833" (p. 80). As for his own change of front, "it would be much nearer the truth to say that South Carolina coerced Calhoun, than to say that Calhoun misguided South Carolina" (p. 64).

We have said enough to show the importance of Mr. Houston's study. An appendix contains Calhoun's letter referred to above, a few extracts from documents, and a bibliography. We note references throughout the volume to "*Niles Register*," except in the bibliography, where it is, properly, "*Niles'*." On page 101 the name of Hugh S. Legaré appears twice without the accent.

A Dictionary of Birds. By Alfred Newton, assisted by Hans Gadow, with contributions from Richard Lydekker, Charles S. Roy, etc. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1893–1896. 1 vol., 8vo, pp. *i–xii, 1–124,* i–viii, 1–1088, map, and unnumbered figures in text.

Parts I. and II. of this truly monumental work appeared in 1893, and were reviewed at considerable length in these columns. Part III., Moa-Sheathbill, was published in 1894. Part IV., finishing the alphabet with Zygodactyli, and containing by far the most important feature (the Introduction to the whole), besides the permanent Title, Preface, etc., was issued late last year. The Dictionary has overrun our original estimate of about 1,000 pages, to the extent of a total of 1,338 pages, and the event more than justifies our prediction that this work would "prove the most useful single volume ever published on ornithology." No better balanced treatise of like magnitude exists in the literature of science; there is none in which a standard of excellence set up at the start is more equably maintained to the finish. That standard, moreover, is one hitherto unexampled; Professor Newton has no equal in erudition, so far as the science of ornithology is concerned, and few peers in the art of exposition. His long incumbency of an important chair in the University of Cambridge has made him a masterly teacher, and we have in this Dictionary the most mature fruits of lifelong devotion to his favorite study, set forth with rare skill and tact. Exceptionally close scrutiny of Parts III. and IV. not only confirms but accentuates our commendation of earlier portions "as containing the greatest amount of thoroughly trustworthy ornithological in-

formation hitherto embraced between the covers of a single volume."

The literature of ornithology yields so huge a harvest of names, good, bad, and indifferent, with such a vast proportion of chaff to the sound grains, that the selection of entries for a single-volume dictionary required the most stringent as well as judicious eclecticism for any profitable result. Prof. Newton's constant solicitude must have been to winnow out his wheat from a mass of verbiage represented, we should suppose, by upward of 100,000 candidates for his consideration, if all sorts of names be available for alphabetical treatment. The New Latin names of birds, uninominal as in the cases of genera, and binominal or trinominal in the cases of species and subspecies; the synonyms in all three of these classes; the New Latin names of classificatory groups higher than genera, and all their synonyms; the vernacular names of birds, Englished from most languages of the globe; the phrase-names of more than one word, invented by English writers for birds; the whole array of technical terms in comparative anatomy and physiology, together with the rest of the vocabulary of biology in so far as it is applicable to ornithology—these make in their entirety a formidable host which never has been, and probably never will be, deployed in alphabetical order in any one work. A list of them, without a line of text, would make a volume, and their incessant augmentation, should it continue as heretofore, would require annual supplements. Prof. Newton hardly needed to inform us, in his opening note, that he should make no attempt to include in his work "all the names under which birds, even the commonest, are known"; nor can we doubt that, as stated in the preface, upon the conclusion of his long labors, it has been his "object throughout to compress into the smallest compass the information intended to be conveyed. It would have been easier to double the bulk of the work, but the limits of a single volume are already strained, and to extend it to a second would in several ways destroy such usefulness as it may possess." Every page of this work witnesses its author's rare judgment in the selection of his topics, together with his highly exceptional skill in handling them effectively. "The greatest good of the greatest number" of readers must have been his aim; to give the most information in the least space has certainly been his method. The net result may be truthfully characterized, without qualification or exception, as the best book ever written about birds in the English or any other language. Many others are better in some particulars; but this one is the best for all general purposes.

To declare any work of like extent and anything like equal importance to be wholly free from error would be to invest it with superhuman attributes; but we speak within bounds in stating our conviction that this Dictionary contains the fewest misstatements of fact to be found between the covers of any book whatsoever that runs to a thousand pages or more. We should imagine them to be a very small fraction of one per cent.; and we believe that this is a closer approximation to perfection than has hitherto been attained in any lexicographic, encyclopædic, or gazetteering work in any department of human learning. Doubtless the most egregious error in the body of the work occurs in Mr. Lydekker's article *Stereornithes;* but that is corrected later on. It is important enough to call for special remark in the author's preface, where he says he does not regret the delay in the completion of the work, since this has enabled him to show "the newly announced group *Stereornithes*, which seemed at first so important, to have no more claim to recognition than had that known as *Odontornithes.*" We might point out a slip of the pen here and there; but such mistakes are too few and too trivial to detract appreciably from the conspicuous preëxcellence of the whole performance; and the most expert proof-reader might turn many pages before he could find a typographical error.

Professor Newton has been fortunate in three of the four collaborators whose names appear on the title-page. He is ably supported by Professor Roy in some particulars, by Mr. Lydekker in palæornithology, and especially by Dr. Gadow in ornithotomy. Regarding the last-named, it is no pardonable partiality to a friend and pupil, but a deliberate judgment, to which others will assent, which has led Professor Newton to regard Dr. Gadow's anatomical articles as bringing that portion of the work to a level hitherto unattained; for "they cannot fail to place the enquirer, be he beginner or advanced student, in a position he could not hope to occupy through the study of any other English book." In this connection the less said about the other contributor the better: the author has been imposed upon, but, fortunately, the extent of the injury to his work is too slight to affect the general result appreciably, much as every friend of his must regret such a misalliance.

The most cursory notice of this work, no less than the most extended review, would miss the main point if it failed to speak particularly of the Introduction, which makes about one-third of Part IV. So far from being a perfunctory performance, to introduce readers to a book, is this piece of work, that we dare say it surpasses any other 124 pages of the Dictionary in interest, in importance, and in permanant value. It is a better introduction to ornithology and to ornithologists than has ever been written before; there is no man living who could have penned it except its author. Its obvious scope and purport are a critical review of ornithological literature from its beginning to the present day, with an eye single to tracing the real progress of the science and ascertaining its present status. In substance, this essay is sound to the core; in form, it is simply perfect. Bibliographers there have been, to show very extensive and accurate knowledge of the subject-matter, but none whose grasp of the facts in the case, and whose ability to set them forth with a will and for a purpose, have approached Professor Newton's. In handling a theme which, as the author says in one place, may seem in danger of "expiring through being smothered by its own literature," Professor Newton would prevent such a possible catastrophe by thorough ventilation. Ignoring everything irrelevant to his main purpose, brushing aside all that obstructs, even passing unnoticed all papers in periodicals except those of prime importance, Professor Newton shows the way through a labyrinth of literature to the end he has in view, namely, that of exhibiting the edifice of ornithological science as it stands to-day, after an examination of the materials of which it is composed, and of the workmen who have mainly designed and erected it. To carry on the metaphor, it may be said that we have here the capstone of the whole structure.

It is impossible, within reasonable limits of a review, to go into details here. One thing would lead to another, and we should not know where to stop. Besides, anything we might say would be futile if what has been said should not suffice to send every sincere student of ornithology to the book itself. It would be trite to call it a work indispensable to every ornithological library; let us say, instead, it is one to lie upon the desk of every worker in this branch of natural history, as an almost inexhaustible storehouse of facts he needs to know, and a perennial fount of inspiration on at least one thing worth knowing—the difference between amateurishness and mastership.

An Eclipse Party in Africa. By Eben J. Loomis. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1896.

THIS book records the fresh impressions of an intelligent traveller in regions which, though known to fame, are visited by few. To those who can travel only in the phantom barques of literature, first impressions have a special value, for they suggest the sensations which actual travel produces. But though the book is light and readable, it contains a sufficient amount of solid information to rescue it from any charge of frivolity, and there is little about good or bad breakfasts, wet feet, or the weather—matters of ephemeral interest with which some travellers swell their volumes.

So far as the direct purpose of the expedition went, it was a failure. "A bit of vapor, light as a lady's gossamer veil, white and cool as a fleck of sea-foam, has drifted airily across the disk of the sun. . . . Only the sense of sight, alas! tells the astronomer that he has met his enemy and been defeated." Of course the expedition visited Cape Town, that windy, dusty outpost of civilization, with its queer "butte," and its famous observatory. Mr. Loomis also ascended from the coastal plain to the "Karroo," the table land which forms all the interior portion of South Africa. A dull place, the Karroo, to most eyes—as flat as the Laramie plains, indeed flatter, for no considerable mountains stand above it, and the vegetation is similar in aspect to the sage-brush deserts of Nevada. The Karroo merges gradually into the grass "Veldt" of the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, as one comes within range of the moist winds blowing from the Indian Ocean. But this vast table-land has claims to the respect of all who hold in honor the dignity of repose. Since the Palæozoic, this region has undergone scarcely any serious deformation. Here quiet has reigned while range after range of mountains in other parts of the world has been born and has perished under the action of "water dropping day by day." How surprised the peaceful local Kobolds must have been at the very restless behavior of their human cousins in these latter days!

Mr. Loomis visited the Kimberley diamond-mines, and writes interestingly of the exploitation of the favorite gems. The crystals are found in the "necks" or conduits of ancient volcanoes, and have been brought up from the heart of the earth, suspended in the pasty mass. They are in fact porphyritic crystals, or "phenocrysts," like the quartz crystals in ordinary porphyry. Nowhere else can one see such a sight as a "compound" at Kimberley, where many hundreds of more than half-barbarous black miners undergo a mild and voluntary imprisonment of months at a time, but amuse themselves in leisure hours with the war-dances, ceremonies, and games of their native fastnesses.

The author also writes most pleasantly of

St. Helena and Ascension, peaks on the great submarine ridge of the Atlantic basin. It is strange to think that there are such pleasant wildernesses in which a misanthrope might hide himself from the annoyances of the *fin-de-siècle* existence. The book is beautifully, in fact sumptuously, printed and illustrated, and should be read where the ever resounding sea brings echoes from far-off, unknown shores.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Evelyn, and Campbell, Lewis. The Life and Letters of Benjamin Jowett. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co. $10.
Bailey, Prof. F. H., and Woods, Prof. F. S. Plane and Solid Analytic Geometry. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Balzac, H. de. A Woman of Thirty. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Clifford, Mrs. W. K. The Dominant Note, and Other Stories. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1 25.
Cornford, L. C. The Master-Beggar. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.50.
Cross, A. K. Light and Shade. [National Drawing Books.] Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Damon, Pythias. The King, the Knave, and the Donkey. Chicago: T. S. Denison. 25c.
Dawson, Emma F. An Itinerant House, and Other Stories. San Francisco: William Doxey.
Dodge, Col. T. A. A Bird's-Eye View of Our Civil War. New and revised ed. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Dunning, Rev. A. E Congregationalists in America. Boston: Congregational Publishing Society.
Farmer, Silas. Champions of Christianity. Eaton & Mains. 60c
Giddings, Prof. Franklin. The Theory of Socialization: A Syllabus Macmillan. 60c.
Hogarth, D. G. Philip and Alexander of Macedon: Two Essays in Biography. Scribners $2 50.
Holmes, Mary J. Tempest and Sunshine. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25c.
Hungerford, Mrs. Lovice. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1 25.

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NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 22, 1897.

The Week.

In view of the known increase of importations since the Dingley bill was presented, March 15, the returns of this country's foreign trade last month are very interesting. As was expected, imports increased largely over preceding months. Their total for the month of March—$76,372,831—exceeds by $17,000,000 the February aggregate, and runs $25,000,000 over the January record. Last year the March importations fell below those of January—a fact which makes the current showing even more noteworthy. The month's importations rise, in fact, nearly ten millions over those of March, 1896, and eight millions over 1895. They have not been paralleled in that month since the enormous rush of foreign goods this way in the spring of 1893. In any one of the last half-dozen years, except 1892, imports as heavy as last month's would have turned the balance of foreign trade and created a new trade debt for liquidation. But the actual results show that, even with last month's heavily increased importations, its foreign trade resulted in an export balance of $10,898,700—nearly two millions greater than in the same month a year ago.

In other words, the country's export trade has increased almost as rapidly as its trade in imports. During March our exports rose nearly eight millions over February, and not quite twelve millions over March, 1896. To make the comparison still more striking, it may be added that the export trade last month was the largest ever recorded in this country for the month of March. As a consequence, the already unprecedented excess of exports over imports, for the nine completed months of the fiscal year, has risen now to the stupendous sum of $323,381,519. Such a trade balance outweighs all other factors in international exchange. It is not, therefore, a matter for surprise that, with foreign exchange on London at all principal Continental points falling so low that export gold is leaving the Bank of England daily, there is hardly a symptom of disturbance in our own sterling market. Part of this very remarkable increase in our export trade is due to continued heavy shipment of the cereals; for although wheat exports for March fell below the average of recent years, exports of corn particularly have trebled any previous record. But the new factor in our foreign trade, export of manufactures, has played an equal part. The detailed Treasury returns for February showed the country's manufactured exports of that month to be two millions in excess of 1896, and eight millions over 1895. Reckoning on the not wholly unwarranted assumption that such exports will continue at their present average, it has been figured that for the current fiscal year their aggregate will reach $261,000,000, against $228,400,000 a year ago, $158,000,000 in 1893, and only $102,800,000 seventeen years ago.

The Chicago *Evening Post* denies that the present tariff law produces more revenue than the law which bore McKinley's name, and seems to consider this an imputation on the McKinley tariff. Why it should think so is hard to discover, seeing that the McKinley bill was passed expressly "to reduce the revenue," and that this purpose was declared in the title of the act. The present tariff has not at all times yielded more revenue than the McKinley tariff did, but it yields more under like business conditions. Everybody knows that the revenues of the country are high in good times and low in bad times. We had good times till the panic of 1893. We have had bad times since, as compared with the years immediately preceding. Similar conditions existed only in the last year of the McKinley tariff (1894) and the two following years of the Wilson tariff. The latter went into operation in August, 1894, so one month of the McKinley tariff lapped over on the fiscal year 1895; but that is of trifling consequence. The figures show that the Wilson tariff yielded $21,000,000 more revenue in its first year and $29,000,000 more in its second year than the McKinley tariff yielded in its last year.

The Chicago *Evening Post* concludes its statistical achievement with a rhetorical one equally worthless, viz.:

> "If there had been no portent of the Wilson-Gorman bill there would have been no panic in 1893, no consequent revenue deficit, no need to issue bonds in time of peace, no addition to the national debt, no resulting 16-to-1 free silver craze, and no chance for the ring of silver Senators to bestride the financial legislation of the country and sandbag a nation of 72,000,000 for the benefit of a few thousand mine-owners."

The panic of 1893 took place under the McKinley tariff. Whether it was caused by the portent of something which took place eighteen months later, is a question on which we would rather have the opinion of some slate-writing medium than that of the average Republican editor. As to the statement that the portent of the Wilson-Gorman bill caused "the ring of silver Senators to bestride the financial legislation of the country and sandbag a nation of 72,000,000 for the benefit of a few thousand mine-owners," we suppose that reference is made to the passage of the Sherman act, that being the last financial legislation which the aforesaid silver Senators succeeded in passing. Now this act became a law on the 14th of July, 1890. It took effect, not only long before the "portent" came in sight, but three months before the McKinley act was passed. It was in fact the price paid for the passage of the McKinley act. It could never have passed if the McKinley act had not been pending, nor could the McKinley act have passed unless the Sherman act had passed before it. This explanation was made by Mr. Teller in open Senate, and has never been denied or questioned.

There is every sign that the Senate is preparing to give the country a fresh exhibition of its abilities in the way of intrigue and muddling. Strictly speaking, the Senate is not yet "organized"; rival "steering committees" have been trying to organize it ever since March 4. Senator Gorman appears to be the most expert steerer, having now steered into his combination enough Populists and Free-Silver Republicans to give him a majority, as matters stand. The Republican steerers were disposed to come to his terms, including free-silver control of the finance committee, and so reported on Monday to the Republican caucus. But Bill Chandler was furious. Populists and Free-Silver Republicans bought away from him with committee appointments! He would buy them back again at twice the price, if he had his way. A fine steering committee they must have that had thus steered the party right into the clutches of the enemy. Chandler was for war on the Democrats and for bribing back the Populists to their proper allegiance. Enough Republican Senators thought with him to prevent the acceptance of the committee's report, for the present, at least, and so the ugly snarl continues. As the whole thing makes clear to the Populists and free-silver free lances that they absolutely control the situation, they may be expected to sell their lives dearly. A tariff bill made law by their assent will be a model.

This dubious control of the Senate has apparently brought the labors of the sub-committee on the tariff to a standstill. So, at least, the *Tribune's* Washington correspondent intimates in his pained remarks on the "difficulties" and "perplexities" which beset Messrs. Allison, Aldrich, and Platt. These gentlemen are now "feeling their way with the utmost care." They are reluctantly abandoning their first noble idea of "an ideally successful" tariff, and are now working for one that shall be "practicable" rather than "satisfactory." In other words, the sub-committee is already

"held up," and is now feeling its way to see how much ransom it must pay before being allowed to go on at all. It is confessed that all the main schedules of the tariff are still in dispute, and as far as ever from settlement. It is three weeks since the bill passed the House; the sub-committee has been at work for at least five weeks; yet its members now say that they can bring in no bill at all unless a party caucus gives them orders what to do. Here is financial capacity of the first order. Here is the party of ideas and morals at work framing a revenue bill. With the prospect of this sort of thing going on for three months, with the chance of terrible scandals and raids on the market thrown in, how much relief are our haggard business men likely to get from Congress?

The House bill, if enacted, will be a puzzler. Its opening sentence declares that, on and after May 1, 1897, there shall be levied on all articles imported [when imported?] or withdrawn for consumption the rates of duty prescribed therein. "On and after" May 1, 1897! The free list also begins with similar language, but the 27th section declares that all articles imported between April (not May) 1, 1897, "and the date of the passage of this act" shall, with a described exception, "bear the same duty to be charged upon similar articles in this act." The body of the House bill names May 1, but the 27th section names April 1, and marks the character of "similar articles" (not the imported articles) to be the test of the rates. If "household effects" now free, and free till a new law is enacted, shall have been passed as free by the custom-houses but were not ordered before April 1 to be brought hither, are they to be liable to the rates in the new law, and will the Government have a lien on them for the new duties, even if the owner has "no purpose to sell or part with the same"? Is not the date of ordering the articles shipped, whether before or after April 1, to be the test? However that may be, the purpose of the House was to make dutiable well-nigh everything (excepting the effects of a dead citizen) of over $100 in value. It is important for our countrymen and countrywomen now abroad, or who meditate going abroad, to clearly perceive their fate, carefully study the retroactive clause, and remember what happened on the first day of April.

We are reminded of the existence of the pending treaty of arbitration by receiving a copy of the memorial of Camp Scott, Confederate Veterans, of Minden, Louisiana, representing that these veterans, eighty in number, "having intimately known the actualities of war and forcibly realizing its evils," respectfully ask to be heard "as an authority against it as a method of settling disputes between peoples." They say that "the recent proffer by a powerful kindred nation to substitute, in the adjustment of international differences, the arbitrament of a calm and disinterested mediatory tribunal for the inflamed passions of partisan popular prejudice, offers an opportunity of inaugurating a rational and radical revolution of international procedure which, if now repulsed, may never recur." They therefore ask the Senate of the United States to ratify the treaty, and conclude by saying that as they have accepted in good faith the result of the civil war, they now ask for clemency, not for themselves, but for the generations of both sections who are to come after them. When we compare the tone of this simple and solemn memorial with the vaporings of Senator Morgan and the majority of his Southern colleagues who are so busy hurling defiance around the world, we wonder more than ever how long a form of government can last in which the brave and sincere are represented in Congress mainly by bullies and blatherskites.

The qualifications of three or four hundred men chosen by universal suffrage and the boss system to undertake large business affairs, received a fresh illustration when Congress threw over the Bethlehem and Carnegie steel works for the supply of armor plate for the new battleships, and virtually ordered contracts to be made with the Illinois Steel Company at a much lower price than the Bethlehem and Carnegie companies charged. When the bids came to be opened under the new law, it was found that the Illinois Steel Company's bid was coupled with certain conditions for work in future years which the department could not lawfully accept, and ought not to accept even if it were lawful to do so. If a business firm were building these battle-ships and were under the necessity of having the armor at a certain time, it would make a contract with steel works that could supply the material. This might be done now by merely repealing the law of the last session which limits the price, and authorizing the Navy Department to reject bids if deemed too high. But that policy cannot be pursued because it would open the doors of the House for other legislation than the precious tariff. So Bill Chandler introduces a measure in the Senate for seizing the Bethlehem and Carnegie armor-plate works, operating them on Government account for a year or two, and then handing them back to the owners and letting them sue the United States in the Court of Claims for damages. He promises that the Congress which may be in power when the case is decided shall pay the bill.

Congress is doing so many queer things nowadays that Chandler's bill does not seem so very malapropos as it might have seemed at other times. When the House votes, without debate, to seize property for taxes after they have been paid and a receipt has been given for them and the property itself has been sold, it does not seem so very startling to seize private factories and furnaces in time of peace and hold them against the will of the owners. Yet old-fashioned people will ask the question, under what kind of authority Chandler proposes to act—since Congress itself cannot act without authority. Chandler plants himself on the clause of the Constitution which says that "private property shall not be taken for public use without just compensation," from which he infers that it may be taken with just compensation. But this same clause says that such property shall not be taken "without due process of law." An act of Congress is not due process of law. Due process in such a case is technically known as expropriation or condemnation. It requires certain formal steps under the authority of a court to determine the value of the property and to pass the title to the Government or the corporation which is vested with the power of eminent domain. It requires also that the payment shall be contemporaneous with the transfer. There is no law of eminent domain for taking private property for a limited time, and then handing it back to the owner, nor for taking it and telling the owner to sue you for his money, and get it if some future Congress shall see fit to pay it.

Albany is only one political centre where the spoilsmen are perfectly reckless in their attempts to break down all the reform measures already adopted. There is a strong movement in the Illinois Legislature to repeal the law passed by the last Legislature, under which the merit system has been applied to the municipal service of Chicago. The Legislature is Republican, and the newly elected Mayor of Chicago is a Democrat; yet the Republican State machine favors the repeal, so close is the community of interest between the professional politicians of both parties. The movement to secure from the Republican Legislature of Pennsylvania the reform measures to which the party is pledged, has broken down, and the party "workers" of Philadelphia, in their various ward associations, are passing resolutions against the whole merit system, on the grounds that it is establishing "an aristocracy of office-holders," that it is "a bureaucracy similar to that existing in China," and that "the removal of public office and place as an incentive for political labor constitutes a grave menace to the purity of elections, in that corruption must be resorted to in order to secure the active efforts of citizens in partisan politics," etc. On Thursday a delegation representing the League of Republican Clubs, and announcing themselves as spokesmen for more than a million Republican voters, "embracing the younger and more active element of the party, who had largely contributed to the success of

the national ticket last November," appealed to President McKinley to revoke the orders of President Cleveland by which about 40,000 offices were brought under the rules last year. In short, there seem no bounds to the insolence of the spoilsmen all over the country.

Chicago's new mayor has announced his policy regarding the places under the civil-service law, which he evidently does not expect that the Legislature will repeal. There has been great and just complaint among the Democrats that the Republican mayor who was in office when the law went into effect, filled all the offices with partisan appointees before the day when the competitive system was to go into effect. Mayor Harrison says that he will keep his campaign pledges, and "turn the rascals out" after this fashion:

"All the partisan appointees of the Swift administration, all those who were shoved into places without passing a civil-service examination, will be dropped into La Salle Street some fine morning, with no blanket to cover them. Their places will have to be filled under the civil-service law, for I am not greater than the law. If I violated the law, the Republican Attorney-General might pick me up by the collar, and I might be fined, imprisoned, and impeached."

Nobody can find much fault with this. If the present incumbents are men who would have been entitled to their places under the competitive examination which they ought to have undergone originally, they will stand far the best chance of recovering them under such a test now. So long as Mr. Harrison will enforce the law in filling vacancies thus made, the partisans who were "shoved into places" against the spirit of the law will not command much sympathy.

It is unfortunate for Gov. Black that Lou Payn should appear openly as the real author of his civil-service-looting bill. When the Governor appointed Payn, it was said in extenuation of the act, by persons with muddy moral perceptions, that he really had to do it, because Payn had got him the nomination for Governor and had asked for this office as his reward. It was declared to be uncharitable to say that the Governor's standard of official conduct must be judged by this appointment, and it was predicted that, having paid off his debt to Payn, he would so discharge the duties of his office as to completely wipe away this blemish upon his career at its opening. If now he carries out Payn's wishes in regard to the utter demoralization of the civil service of the State, turning it over to the possession of spoilsmen, will it not be said that Payn is still his master, that he has not yet paid off in full his debt to the man who nominated him? Payn has steadily maintained in public, from the time the Governor took office, that he "owned" the Governor. He has come to this city to see Platt as the recognized spokesman for the Governor, and he habitually has access to the Executive Chamber in preference to everybody else. It would be extremely humiliating to sit in the Governor's chair as the agent of Tom Platt, but to sit there also as the personal property of Lou Payn would be a good deal worse.

Lauterbach's frank confession that he and his Platt associates would rather see a Tammany man elected Mayor than have a non-partisan succeed in getting that office, ought not to surprise anybody who has followed the political career of this remarkable local leader. In fact, nothing ought to surprise anybody in a man who is capable of saying virtually to his followers: We shall be tempted to support an honest man for Mayor, but we must shun the temptation. It was Lauterbach who managed the rotten enrolment of 1895, in which 534 members of Tammany Hall were enrolled as Republicans in twelve Assembly districts, an average of over 44 to a district. It is Lauterbach who has been able to keep his son in a snug "place" in the District Attorney's office, under a Tammany District Attorney and under a Republican District Attorney. He is the ideal leader for the Platt system of government, which is not in any sense a political system, but a spoils and boodle-hunting expedition. He has worked hand-in-glove with Tammany always, and is merely continuing on the old lines now. The only marvel about him and his business is that so many Republicans who are honest men will consent to follow his leadership, and to recognize his nominees as representing their party.

The recent State election in Michigan was not of much importance as regards the minor offices at stake, but it had one feature which is of great significance. The regular Democratic convention was controlled by the Bryan element in the party, which stood on the free-silver platform adopted at Chicago last year. The sound-money men resolved not to support a ticket thus nominated, and named candidates who believed in the principles asserted at Indianapolis when Palmer and Buckner were put in the field. The full official returns of the election have not yet been announced, but enough is known to show that the National Democratic ticket polled at least 30,000 votes. This is a great surprise to all the politicians, as even the most sanguine Sound-Money Democrats did not expect anything like so large a total. Palmer and Buckner received less than 7,000 votes last fall, and some who were prominent in the movement then doubted the wisdom of running a separate ticket in the spring election, not only because it must widen the breach in the party, but also because they feared that such candidates would receive small support. The Sound-Money Democrats who insisted upon carrying through the movement are more than satisfied with the result. A vote of 30,000 in a spring election gives promise of twice that number in a vigorous fall campaign, and this means that the independent Democrats may hold the balance of power in Michigan. It certainly shows that a Bryanized party will stand no chance whatever of carrying the State, while an organized movement of this sort furnishes a base of operations for the reconstruction of Democracy on its traditional principles.

Japan's action in going over to the gold standard has caused great searching of heart among the English bimetallists. The explanation given by their organ, the *Bimetallist*, illustrates Jowett's famous assertion that logic is neither a science nor an art, but a dodge. Japan was enjoying tremendous advantages from the silver standard; everybody knew that except the Japanese. Hence the gold standard will be seriously weakened by the accession of a nation that does not know its own true interest. How long can a standard endure which only foolish peoples adopt? On the other hand, the silver standard becomes all the more convincing and inevitable as its adherents become reduced in numbers and more than ever certain that they are right. This is brave reasoning, but the *Bimetallist* itself distrusts it, for it finally blurts out the real reason for Japan's change, which is that she wants to negotiate a loan in Europe and could not do it on the silver standard. There is nothing like trying to secure a loan to show you what the basis of credit is. And the loaning class is so suspicious and sceptical. Here is the Argentine Republic coming out with a flourish to announce that it is going to resume payment of interest on its public debt a full year before it had agreed to. How is this noble action viewed by the moneyed class of England? In a way to make one blush for human nature. The *Economist* coldly remarks:

"If the Government were in possession of the necessary funds for this purpose, the decision at which they have arrived would be satisfactory to the bondholders and creditable to themselves; but as they are certainly not in that position, it is scarcely to be wondered at that the announcement has been regarded as a preliminary either to a new loan or to some other financial operation."

The war between Greece and Turkey has begun with a series of engagements by sea and land, which cover points on the Ægean and Ionian Seas, and along the intermediate border. It is idle to attempt to forecast the result of a conflict in which the issue must depend upon so many factors besides the forces of the two nations who have begun it. The Turkish army is superior to the Grecian; though how much can be spared for offensive operations is a question. On the other hand, the Greeks have some good ships, and the Turkish seacoast, especially in Asia, is very poorly defended.

THE WAR IN THE EAST.

THE outbreak of hostilities between Greece and Turkey has come, as most people believed it would, without any actual declaration of war in the ordinary sense. Fighting, occasioned by an invasion of Turkey by Greek irregulars, led probably, in many cases, by regular officers, went on for some days before Turkey declared that a state of war existed, throwing the blame on Greece.

As to responsibility for the war, there are really two different questions; one is, Who is morally responsible for the state of things which have led to the conflict? And here the responsibility goes back, no matter how we approach it, to the curious combination known as the Concert. Ever since the Treaty of Berlin, it has been in the power of the six leading nations of Europe to agree upon some policy which would settle the Eastern question. But nothing has been done. The provisions of the Berlin Treaty, and the separate convention made at the same time in connection with it between England and Turkey, have never been carried out. By article xxiii., Cretan reforms were promised, but the Cretan complaint is that, though Turkey undertook to introduce such reforms as should be "adjudged equitable," nothing but promises has been given from that time to this, and nothing but promises will be given, because Turkish reforms are never carried into effect except by the strong arm of European intervention, and that intervention does not come. They say, therefore, that unless the Turkish army withdraws and Crete is annexed to Greece, there is no reason for supposing that effective reforms will ever be introduced, or that the island can be pacified. The only reply made by the Powers to this was to blockade Crete, to threaten to blockade Athens, and to talk vaguely about getting new promises of autonomy from Turkey.

By article lxi. the Porte promised "to realize without delay those ameliorations and reforms which local needs require in the provinces inhabited by the Armenians, and guarantee their security against the Circassians and Kurds." The Powers agreed by the same article to "watch" over the application of these reforms. By the separate convention with England, Turkey handed over Cyprus to England as a pledge for their execution. Not only have they never been carried out, but what Europe has had to watch has been wholesale massacres of Armenians, part of an organized attempt at extermination by the Kurds, against whom they were to be protected, almost under the open orders of the Sultan. This had a direct effect in bringing on the war, because it helped to convince everybody that the Powers did not mean to make Turkey carry out the reforms of the Berlin Treaty, and that their concert was being used, through the fear of war, as a means of bullying all the Christians in the East into submission to Turkey, and of inducing England to connive at a situation which every day made more unendurable.

These facts deprive the ordinary question, Who is responsible for the actual hostilities? of almost all the importance that it ordinarily has. If Greece and Turkey were two powerful countries, like Germany and France, completely able to control their destinies, it would mean much, as it did mean in 1870, whether civilized public opinion believed that Germany or France was the "aggressor." But Turkey and Greece both exist by the sufferance of Europe, and the drift of the whole Eastern question is determined by the action of the Powers. They have driven Greece into a war which, if they had not made waste paper of the Berlin Treaty, would have been wholly unnecessary. The result has been that Greece, though no doubt the aggressor in the ordinary sense, has put Turkey and the Powers wholly in the wrong. The idea suggested just before the outbreak, that Greece, if the aggressor, could reap no reward from the conflict, is a matter wholly beyond the control of the Concert. There are at least three Powers which could never consent to Turkey reaping any reward either, and that the war will end with re-establishing the *status quo* of the Berlin Treaty is out of the question. The fighting on the Gulf of Arta on Sunday at Prevesa is said to have involved territory fortified by the Turks in actual contravention of the Berlin Treaty.

The English Government has put its country in a position which can, in American eyes, seem only a great misfortune. The Tories, who, with their enormous majority in the House of Commons, are for the time able to do what they please, seem bent on proving that the picture drawn of England's attitude towards the rest of the world by the American Jingo is true. While they encourage the bullying of a little defenceless Christian island in the Mediterranean with all their ships, and threaten Greece, they cringe before Russia, and break their own promises to gratify a murderous Asiatic tyrant, who, under the cover of their inaction, revives the horrors of the Middle Ages for them to "watch over." But we know that in all this the English Government does not represent the English people. The majority which Lord Salisbury is employing for these purposes he got through the division of the country on "home rule," and the English electorate no more meant to give him a mandate to uphold the policy of the Concert than we did, in defeating Bryan, to authorize the passage of the Dingley bill.

THE EUROPEAN PROTESTS.

THERE is great difficulty in getting from Washington any information as to what is going on with regard to the foreign protests against the Dingley bill filed with our Government. When inquiry is made at the State Department, the inquirer is told that all protests have been sent to the Senate sub-committee on finance, and that they have not been and will not be made public. The Senate sub-committee holds secret sessions only. Protectionists all profess to believe that foreign remonstrances from any quarter help the Dingley bill, the argument being that the foreigner cries out because he is hurt—what hurts him helps us—and hence his outcries prove that the Dingley bill ought to be passed with all speed. This argument might do if it were possible to keep the nature and origin of the protests entirely secret until the bill were passed, but the difficulty is that the whole story must come out sooner or later.

We have treaties with many foreign nations providing that no higher duties shall be imposed on the importation into the United States of any article coming from them, and vice versa, than are or shall be payable on the like article coming from any other country. (Treaty with Prussia May 1, 1828, art. v.; treaty with Austria, August 27, 1829, art. v.; treaty with Italy, February 26, 1871, art. vi.) This is called the "most-favored-nation clause." The only object of any such treaty is, of course, to put both nations on the same footing, so that, for instance, imports of any product of Germany into the United States, and of any product of the United States into Germany, shall not be discouraged by discrimination through a lower duty on the like article from some other country. It is a provision against international injustice and inequality. There is a treaty with the Netherlands, into the details of which it is not necessary to go here; there is no "favored-nation clause" in our treaty with France. With Peru and Chili, and probably most of the other Central and South American States, we have treaties embodying a sweeping "most-favored-nation" clause. Speaking generally, it has been our commercial policy to prevent discrimination in our tariffs, in order that there may be no discrimination against us in foreign tariffs.

The protests against the Dingley bill thus far filed are based upon the idea that we are abandoning this policy, notwithstanding our treaties, and that the way to meet this action on our part is for the various European Governments to lay their duties so as to keep out American products whenever possible. An examination of all the details here is not necessary; the protests involve an arraignment of the Dingley bill as constructed in violation of treaty rights, and a threat of a "tariff war" against every producer and exporter in the United States who can be reached.

The German protest was correctly given in the *Staats-Zeitung* of this city on April 8. The German Ambassador's note to the Secretary of State bears the date of April 5, and was written under telegraphic instructions from Berlin. It lays

stress on the fact that the United States Government recognized the validity of a previous protest in 1894, by Mr. Gresham's report to the President of October 12, 1894, and the President's annual message to Congress, December, 1894, and threatens retaliation. The Austrian Minister has received instructions to protest in the same way as the German Ambassador, on the ground of the Austro-American treaty of 1829, article 5. Italy has made representations on account of the proposed duties on fruits. The Netherlands have filed a general protest saying that if the United States virtually exclude the few articles now exported from Holland and the Dutch colonies, the Netherlands will have no more interest in commercial intercourse with the United States, and the latter will have to bear the consequences. In France, as stated above, the United States do not enjoy the rights of the most favored nation. France can retaliate at any time and in any way without giving previous notice. As to South and Central America, all the representatives of these republics have pledged themselves to dissuade their respective Governments against entering into any reciprocity negotiations with the United States, the inducements of the Dingley bill being inadequate for such purpose.

An instance is better than any number of generalities. The business of importing beet-sugar into this country is a very considerable one; it amounted in 1895-6 to 604,686,985 pounds, valued at $14,048,914. It comes mostly from Germany. It is now proposed by patriots who worked tooth and nail for the Grand Old Party last year, to keep this all out in order to establish the beet-sugar industry here; and to carry out this design the Dingley bill not only adds to the duty whatever export bounty is allowed abroad (which is the existing system), but makes the duty so high as to be, with this addition, prohibitive, or nearly so. Of course, this will stop the imports, and the German protest is founded on the idea that in doing this we violate the most-favored-nation clause, because we make the duty on German sugar actually higher than that on other sugar of the same kind from other countries. To this our reply is that the law does not make any discrimination against German sugar as such, and that it is Germany's misfortune, not our fault, if she chooses to pay an export bounty. This answer may be valid in point of law; but the Germans care nothing about that. They have just as much right to pay export bounties as we have to lay import duties, and they have made up their minds that they will take a leaf out of our book. It is accordingly proposed to make a discrimination against American petroleum, and let in Russian petroleum to Germany instead. This is what the German protest means. Of illuminating oil we exported in 1895-96, 716,455,565 gallons, worth $48,630,920, chiefly from New York and Philadelphia. The Standard Oil Company and the Pennsylvania Railroad are, of course, not doing anything about it. It makes no difference to Mr. Rockefeller and Mr. Thomson and the stockholders of the great petroleum-carrying roads whether they sell and transport $50,000,000 worth of oil a year or not. They are not pulling all the wires they can to get Quay and Penrose to cut out the beet-sugar schedule. Oh, no, not by any means. They rather like it, for they know that whatever hurts the foreigner helps them, and they are accordingly working hard to get the law passed which will ruin their own business and build up a glorious future for one which has no existence. Apply this illustration to half the export business of the country, and the enthusiasm for Dingley and his bill, which is now spreading like wildfire, is understood. If all the persons who are in the plight of Messrs. Rockefeller and Thomson would come out boldly and speak their minds, what an uproar of jubilation there would be!

WHY THE TARIFF BILL OFFENDS.

THE Republican leaders at Washington, from the President down, are reported to be greatly surprised at the outcry against the Dingley bill. They looked for nothing of the sort. With Democratic opposition in the House only perfunctory and feeble, why should the country be so indignant? No tariff ever proposed has, in fact, had so much popular vituperation heaped upon it. Leading Republicans of the non-official class have said in various parts of the country that the Dingley bill not merely will make their localities Democratic, but will make themselves, for the time being, Democratic. One of the foremost Republican business men of the Northwest goes to Washington and tells the Republican Senators that the bill is "the worst he ever heard of." These things pain Mr. Dingley and Mr. McKinley, and astound them. Tariff bills used not to give such deep offence; why should there be this sudden difference?

One reason is that no tariff bill can any longer be passed in the old hole-and-corner fashion. The discussions of the past twelve years have at least done good to this extent—that the people now know the tariff to be a tax that affects them powerfully. It was once possible for tariff-makers to assume an air of lofty superiority. The plain people could not understand those deep mysteries. Just trust the ways and means committee and their experts, take and spend the revenue which they provide, and meddle no further in things too wonderful for the average mind. But this is all past now. Every schedule, every clause, is to-day eagerly scrutinized, the reason demanded for every change, the effect of every change demonstrated. There are now more and better tariff experts outside Congress than in it. Mr. Dingley may come in with his report asserting great moderation, and with his misleading percentages, but men better informed than he at once show that one of his moderate taxes amounts to 600 per cent. on the valuation, another to 350, and so on. The fact is that the success of protective tariffs depends upon the secrecy with which they can be framed and the concealed nature of their operation. It was the younger Pitt, we believe, who said that a protective tax was the most ingenious means of robbing a nation, without its knowledge, ever invented. But the nation is no longer in ignorance as to this matter. It has learned that a protective tax is a tax which it has to pay like any other, and it is getting to be as suspicious and angry about unjust tariff taxation as about any other kind.

But there are special reasons why the Dingley bill has given deep offence. One of them is that it is, on its face, a bill of false pretences: it professes to be a revenue bill, it is really a measure of class legislation. From the very first its failure as a revenue bill was admitted by the *Tribune;* every day that has passed has made that failure more probable and disastrous. In fact, all talk about the bill as a revenue measure has now ceased to be heard at Washington. It is all a struggle of conflicting interests to see what part of the largess each can get. The representatives of particular industries are becoming more and more impatient at the idea that any goods competing with them shall be imported at all. Revenue at their expense? Perish the thought! Let some other fellow's product suffer the rivalry of imports for the sake of the Treasury, but keep your hands off ours, if you want this bill to pass at all. Thus the extra session to raise revenue has already degenerated into a greedy scramble of tariff beneficiaries to raise the wind. This is one of the things that fill the public mind with disgust at the proceedings in Congress.

There is, however, yet a deeper violation of good faith in the tariff enormities now proposed. They run distinctly counter to pledges solemnly given in the last campaign. It is all folly to point now to the general protection plank in the Republican platform. That was drawn before the silver storm broke on the country. Casting about, as the Republican managers had to, for help in their hour of supreme peril, they invited the aid of Sound-Money Democrats. In accepting it they gave not only tacit but explicit promises that their main aim was to save the gold standard, and that their tariff, if they ever made one, would be very conservative. Mr. Charles Stewart Smith has asserted under his signature that such promises were freely made in this part of the country. Unluckily, it appears now that Mr. Hanna was all things to all men, and made directly opposite promises to the Rocky Mountain Senators. He seems to have promised

anything wanted. But the great fact remains that the whole assumption and conduct of the campaign involved the abandonment of any high-protection aims that the party may have cherished. This is what makes the speedy production of the most outrageous tariff ever known seem so distinctly an act of bad faith.

Finally, the Dingley tariff arouses keen dissatisfaction because it threatens to throw away, wantonly and wickedly, all the country fought for and thought it won last November. The course and logic of the Administration are a complete inversion of the course and logic of the campaign. In that the tariff dropped more and more out of sight; an honest and rational system of currency became more and more clearly the sole issue. Now it is the currency issue which is dropping out of sight. All the flush and fervor of the election is lost in a disgusting exhibition of mercenary greed. It will be hard, if not impossible, for Mr. McKinley hereafter to allege the authority of the people in urging a reform of the currency. He has put tariff and the further demoralization of the currency at the forefront; and if he returns to his true mandate later, it will appear to be only as a grudging afterthought. The promise and the opportunity of the last campaign have been largely thrown away; and it is no wonder that intense enmity has been aroused by the tariff bill which, besides being vicious in itself, has done so much to wreck fair hopes.

VICTIMS OF EDUCATION.

The teaching of English in schools has been much debated of late both in England and in this country. Mr. J. Churton Collins had a paper on the subject in the *Academy* last January, which is certainly suggestive, though not alone in the way in which he intended it to be. He complained sharply of the "extraordinary farrago" which passes for the assigned English in even the best schools. What he would have is a systematic study of English literature. Begin by dividing school-life—averaging from the ages of ten to seventeen—into three periods, the elementary, the middle, the advanced, and fit to each its proper "stage" of teaching in English. "Suddenly to plunge a boy or girl into a play of Shakspere or a book of Spenser," is little short of criminal in Mr. Collins's eyes. First must come the "foundation of the historical study of the subject"; a clear idea of the "evolution" of English literature must next be implanted, the "epochs" mastered, and the "eras" grasped. Then may come reading, getting the "gems" by heart, so leading up skilfully to grammar, syntax, and etymology, and "certainly the elements of Anglo-Saxon." "The pupil," explains Mr. Collins, "would now be past or bordering upon fifteen." What prodigies of learning he reserves for the two remaining years of preparatory school-life, we leave the reader to imagine.

Now we have not a word to say against this scheme of teaching English. Mr. Collins is an expert in his subject, and we are dumb before him. But we beg to observe that all the other specialists have their own exact little divisions of school-life into periods just suited for their subjects. They are as impatient as he at the fragmentary teaching which gives children such confused notions of Latin and Greek and French and German and science and mathematics. Experts in each of these branches want to block out a course in it from ten to seventeen, just as Mr. Collins does. They, too, have their stages and their evolution, their epochs and their eras. They, too, are authorities in their spheres, and who are we that we should gainsay them? We dare not; but we do venture to ask what is to become of the poor children under this combined assault of the educational systematizers and experts.

Every interest or study seems to have a spokesman in these discussions of education, except those who are to be educated. No one thinks, apparently, of consulting the scholars. They are simply a *corpus vile* for the educational experimenter. Less fortunate than the animals in the French fable, they are not even given the option of the way in which they will be killed; to suggest that they do not want to be killed at all is a frivolous wandering from the point. The experiment is the main thing. Can the historical foundation and the stages be crammed into the years from ten to seventeen? That is the question, and whether school-children are choked and stunted and sterilized in the process you must not ask if you are a sincere friend of education. All you are entitled to do is to mutter under your breath, when your harried children escape, confused in mind and ill in body, from the hands of educational enthusiasts, "Well, Jowett was not so far wrong when he called education the grave of the mind."

Happily, the average boy and girl is tough, and may defy the experts to do their worst. A ludicrous oversight of many educational theorists lies in ignoring this fact. Bagehot chuckled, in his time, over the way in which "that apple-eating animal which we call a boy" would foil his educators, and bring away from long years of wrestling with the classics little more than a firm conviction that there were such languages as Latin and Greek. To apples we may now add football and baseball and bicycles, and with all these reinforcements the modern boy may hold his own with the modern educator. The specialists may crowd more and more of their subjects into the curriculum of schools; the average boy merely produces new varieties of humor in the way of examination papers, and goes on his athletic way rejoicing. He simply will not take the thing seriously. At the end of his school-life he, for his part, would be perfectly willing to bring in a bill against his teachers, as the young Englishwoman did against the elderly gentleman to fit herself to marry whom she had in vain undertaken a course of education, "To loss of time in improving my mind, £52 10s."

But the real victims of education are not to be found among average boys and girls. It is upon the exceptionally delicate and sensitive and conscientious that high-pressure schools and bewildering multiplicity of studies work their real evil. How much of dulled interest, of nervous collapse, of utter repulsion at the sight of books, of despairing effort to keep up the pace, of vague sense of wrong and injustice have they been responsible for! The great cause of the mischief is, we believe, the eager competition of the specialists to get their subjects, and the whole of their subjects, into the school courses of study. But mortal capacity, child-capacity, has its limits. Children do not live by foundations alone, or by epochs and eras heaped upon them from all sides. Those whom no education can harm, as none can benefit, emerge from the process uninjured, but the rush and crowding and strain are cruel to the finer natures.

JEFFERSON AND THE TAX ON KNOWLEDGE.

Brunswick, Me., April 14, 1897.

On December 10, 1821, Hugh Nelson of Virginia presented in the House of Representatives a petition from the "Rector and Visitors of the University of Virginia," praying "that the aid and patronage of Congress may be extended to the cause of science and literature generally, throughout the United States, by an exemption from duties of all books and other articles generally used in acquiring information." The petition was signed by Thomas Jefferson as Rector, and bears date of November 30, 1821; its main arguments, however, and much of its phraseology, had already been incorporated in a letter of Jefferson, dated September 28, to an unnamed correspondent (*Works*, Cong. Ed., vii., 220-222), in which a concerted appeal by colleges and other institutions of learning for the removal of the duty then imposed upon books had been suggested. The petition, which is of considerable length, begins by reciting the fact that the tariff on books is "peculiarly inauspicious" to the development of institutions such as the University of Virginia, lately established, and continues:

"That at an early period of the present Government, when our country was burdened with a heavy debt, contracted in the war of Independence, and its resources for revenue were untried and uncertain, the National Legislature thought it as yet inexpedient to indulge in scruples as to the subjects of taxation, and, among others, imposed a duty on books imported from abroad, which has been continued, and now is, of fifteen per cent., on their prime cost, raised by ordinary custom-house charges to eighteen per cent., and by the importers' profits to perhaps twenty-five per cent., and more.

"That, after many years' experience, it is certainly found that the reprinting of books in the United States is confined chiefly to those in our native language, and of popular cha-

racters, and to cheap editions of a few of the classics for the use of schools; while the valuable editions of the classical authors, even learned works in the English language, and books in all foreign living languages (vehicles of the important discoveries and improvements in science and the arts, which are daily advancing the interest and happiness of other nations), are unprinted here, and unobtainable from abroad but under the burden of a heavy duty. . . .

"That the difficulty resulting from this mode of procuring books of the first order in the sciences, and in foreign languages, ancient and modern, is an unfair impediment to the American student, who, for want of these aids, already possessed or easily procurable in all countries except our own, enters on his course with very unequal means, with wants unknown to his foreign competitors, and often with that imperfect result which subjects us to reproaches not unfelt by minds alive to the honor and mortified sensibilities of their country.

"That, to obstruct the acquisition of books from abroad, as an encouragement of the progress of literature at home, is burying the fountain to increase the flow of its waters. . . .

"That books . . . are capital, often the only capital of professional men on their outset in life, and of students destined for professions. . . .

"That this is the only form of capital on which a tax of from eighteen to twenty-five per cent. is first levied on the gross, and the proprietor then subject to all other taxes in detail, as those holding capitals in other forms, on which no such extra tax has been previously levied."

The memorial concludes by praying,

"that Congress will be pleased to bestow on this important subject the attention it merits, and give the proper relief to the candidates of science among ourselves, devoting themselves to the laudable object of qualifying themselves to become the instructors and benefactors of their fellow-citizens."

This petition was referred to the committee of ways and means, and does not seem to have been taken up again; but there is evidence, apparently, that Jefferson's proposal of joint action was well received, in the presentation in the House, on December 27, by Benjamin Gorham of Massachusetts, of "a memorial of divers colleges and literary and scientific societies, within the United States, praying that all printed books, which may hereafter be imported into the United States, may be exempted from the payment of duties." This, also, was referred to the committee of ways and means.

The discussion was now transferred to the Senate. On the same day that Gorham presented the above memorial in the House, Richard M. Johnson, of Kentucky, submitted to the Senate the "memorial of the Transylvania University, in the State of Kentucky, praying the repeal of the duty on books imported into the United States." The memorial was referred to the committee on finance, consisting of John Holmes of Maine, John H. Eaton of Tennessee, Nathaniel Macon of North Carolina, Martin Van Buren of New York, and Walter Lowrie of Pennsylvania; on January 8, 1822, this committee made, through its chairman, Holmes, an elaborate adverse report. After noting the fact that the tariff act of April 27, 1816, then in force, included books among the unenumerated articles at a duty of 15 per cent. ad valorem, but that books, scientific apparatus, etc., imported for the use of educational institutions and learned societies, were admitted free; that the growth of the printing industry in the United States had been rapid, but that it would be "unequal, impolitic, and unjust to single out this important branch of industry, strip it of all protection, and leave it to struggle with powerful competitors, to its serious embarrassment and probable destruction," the report says:

"The inquiry, then, is, What portion of the community requires this repeal? Every college, academy, and other seminary, and every corporation for literary purposes, is now exempt. All members and students of these institutions are, consequently, exonerated of the burden of this tax. The question recurs, Who is to experience the benefit of the exemption? Surely not the instructors, nor students in the higher branches of literature; for they are already relieved. Certainly not the members of our common schools; for ordinary British editions are compensated by a bounty. American school-books are plenty and cheap, and those in foreign languages are not required for general use; and it is equally certain that our manufactories forbid it, and our Treasury can scarcely afford it. None, then, but the professional gentleman, who can afford to extend his library beyond the resources of American publishers, or the scholar of wealth and leisure, who would indulge his taste in selecting the most elegant and expensive editions of foreign authors, can be interested in its favor. And is it expedient at this time to interpose this relief? To tax foreign luxuries is a dictate of the soundest policy. Expensive and highly finished editions are as much a luxury as any other extravagant expenditure. A moderate duty on such books, to be limited almost exclusively to gentlemen of wealth, could never subject us to the imputation of an indifference to education. Few nations, perhaps, have done more for the diffusion of knowledge. . . .

"With few exceptions, the English is our native and ordinary language. It is spoken as universally and purely as in England itself. But lately, we were a part of the British Empire. From thence we have derived many of our habits, customs, and laws. We still esteem Great Britain as eminent in arts, sciences, policy, and power. Our principal and subordinate seminaries of learning are chiefly furnished with British books, and our youth are taught by British authors, wedded to their own institutions, and exultingly proud of their country, constitution, and laws. These means of a foreign influence have long been perceived, and have excited the jealousy of grave and intelligent politicians. Our Government is peculiar to ourselves, and our books of instruction should be adapted to the nature of the Government and the genius of the people. In the best of foreign books we are liable to meet with criticisms and comparisons not very flattering to the American people. In American editions of these, the offensive or illiberal parts are expunged or explained, and the work is adapted to the exigencies and taste of an American reader. But withdraw the protection which our tariff affords, our channels of instruction will be foreign, our youth will imbibe sentiments, form attachments, and acquire habits of thinking adverse to our prosperity, unfriendly to our Government, and dangerous to our liberties."

In spite of this adverse report, however, the matter was not allowed to drop at once, for on the following day, January 9, Senator Harrison Gray Otis of Massachusetts came forward with a resolution calling upon the Secretary of the Treasury for "a return of the net amount of duties collected annually for the last five years upon the importation of books, distinguishing, so far as it can conveniently be done, the amount accruing upon books printed in foreign languages." The report was not sent to the Senate until April 2, followed, two days later, by a substitute report; the end of the session was approaching, however, and no action on the report appears to have been taken. On January 15, Senator Mahlon Dickerson of New Jersey followed Otis with a petition of the American Philosophical Society of Philadelphia, setting forth

"That in some of the custom-houses of the United States, this statute [of 1816] has been so construed that books sent as presents to philosophical institutions, or by way of exchange for the memoirs, transactions, and other products of their gratuitous labors, have been considered as liable to duty, and the duty has in fact been exacted, and has been paid in some instances by your memorialists—that, under this construction, learned societies can derive but little benefit from the enactment made in their favor, as they are not in general rich enough to import many books in the way of purchase; the greatest part of what they receive from abroad being by way of donation or exchange."

The memorialists therefore prayed for the free entry of books received in exchange, and also, if possible, of books in manuscript and in foreign languages. Accompanying the petition was a statement showing the usage of various European countries in regard to the importation of books. The petition and schedule were ordered printed, though not without opposition from Lowrie and others. The report of the committee on finance was considered in the Senate on January 26, and February 14, and February 22, being finally, on motion of Eaton, laid on the table.

So far as Jefferson was concerned, the matter seems to have been laid aside for some three years. On February 4, 1824, however, he wrote to Jared Sparks:

"I am much pleased to see that you have taken up the subject of the duty on imported books. I hope a crusade will be kept up against it until those in power shall become sensible of this stain on our legislation, and shall wipe it from their code, and from the remembrance of man, if possible."

The reference is to an article by Sparks, in the *North American Review* for January, 1824, on C. J. Ingersoll's annual oration before the American Philosophical Society, in the course of which Sparks spoke strongly against the maintenance of the duty on books. Tucker states (Life of Jefferson, vol. ii., pp. 466, 467) that Jefferson "presented a petition to Congress against this duty in the session of 1823, which, being drawn by himself, was circulated among the members, as an object of interest and curiosity, not only as his autograph, but as a remarkable specimen of neat penmanship for one then eighty years of age." It was all in vain, however; as Tucker remarks, "the interest of the booksellers prevailed against that of the community." The answer of Congress to Jefferson's petition, so far as any seems to have been vouchsafed, is to be read in the tariff act of 1824. By that act, books printed before 1775, and all books in languages other than English (except Latin and Greek), were subjected to a duty of four cents a volume; Latin and Greek books, fifteen cents a pound if bound, thirteen cents a pound unbound; all other books, thirty cents a pound bound, and twenty-six cents a pound unbound.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

FRANCE AND THE EASTERN CRISIS.

PARIS, April 7, 1887.

CIRCUMSTANCES have much to do with the success of a book. Few people had read the valuable and exhaustive work of M. Victor Bérard on 'Turkey and Modern Hellenism before the present crisis in the East. M. Victor Bérard travelled in all parts of Greece and of the Balkan Peninsula, and describes with the greatest accuracy the curious mosaic of races which have lived so long under the domination of the Turkish conquerors. His account gives a vivid idea of the difficulties which are found in the solution of the Eastern question, and in the constitution of new states which struggle for the succession of the impotent Ottoman Empire. The work received a prize from the French Academy. M. Bérard now

gives us a new volume, entitled 'La Politique du Sultan,' which is the result of a recent visit of the author to Constantinople. The effect of it (it appeared at first in separate parts in the *Revue de Paris*) has been considerable, so much so that the author was brought at once into notoriety and had to issue a second edition of his volume on 'Turkey and Modern Hellenism.'

M. Lavisse, the editor of the *Revue de Paris*, contributes a short preface to the 'Politique du Sultan.' He remarks, with much truth, that the French public has become very indifferent to foreign matters; they are an object of attention to the people who follow closely the movements of the Bourse.

"Remark," he says, "this strange anomaly. There is not a single act of a minister, small and insignificant as it may be, which cannot be discussed and become the occasion of a question or an interpellation, of a ministerial crisis. Let a prefect be changed before or during the election, the ministry can be criticised and changed. But a treaty of alliance can be concluded which will determine our entire policy, and, suddenly, some circumstance may force us into an attitude, and this act of sovereign power escapes all discussion."

Must such alliances be concluded secretly? Must their clauses remain unknown to the nation? M. Lavisse admits that foreign affairs have the benefit of an extraordinary reserve. Nearly the whole of Europe is still monarchical, and monarchies will make secret treaties. The secret is not quite impenetrable, and we should probably learn but little if the text of the treaties of the Triple Alliance were published; the same may be said of the Dual Alliance between France and Russia. We have learned, also, recently that there are what may be called sub-treaties: recent debates have shown us that while Germany was binding herself to Austria and to Italy by the Triple Alliance, she had a sub-treaty of some sort with Russia. We have reason to believe that Russia, either at the end of her last war with Turkey or more recently, concluded a secret treaty with Turkey, guaranteeing the integrity of the Ottoman Empire, and that the existence of this treaty has been a stumbling-block to the great Powers and forced them to refuse Crete to Greece, and to give to Crete only autonomy under the suzerainty of the Sultan.

Not only are treaties kept secret, even in our time of parliamentary government and of unlimited freedom of the press, but we are often kept in ignorance of facts which are of paramount importance. Our newspapers do not leave us in ignorance of the movements of a tenor or of a *diva;* we are informed with astonishing rapidity of the meanest incidents of private life; we know who dined yesterday with X, who led a cotillon at Mrs. X's ball; we know why such a one committed suicide, why the porter of a house at Montmartre had a quarrel with his wife, etc.; but, it is really humiliating to say, we were for more than a year (for about eighteen months) totally unaware that from 200,000 to 300,000 Armenians had been massacred in cold blood in various parts of Asia Minor; it was only when an attack was made on the Ottoman Bank in Constantinople that public opinion was aroused and began to take an interest in this question of the Armenian massacres. Till then the meagre news given from time to time in the papers had been represented as mere inventions of the Armenian Committee in London. Our press, which is indefatigable in its harmless assaults on the "perfide Albion," succeeded in persuading the public that the Armenian massacres were pure fiction. The public was kept in ignorance by a press which seemed to be an accomplice of the Sultan; the Chambers were kept in ignorance by the diplomatic reserve of a silent minister of foreign affairs. The Chambers, as well as the public, were, so to speak, completely blinded. We had secured the Russian alliance, we had had a visit from the Tsar; what more could be asked? The Minister was surrounded by a halo, the nation could trust him and trust our Russian friends.

The crisis in the East was really unexpected; public opinion was not prepared for it, and the result has been that the Greeks were at first looked upon as what we call *trouble-fêtes*. As M. Lavisse justly says: "If the reports of our consuls had appeared, from the beginning, the prejudice in favor of the Sultan, which cannot be denied, could not have been maintained; and if the Sultan had felt that he had really to deal with France, he would not have laughed in our faces, as he has done several times." M. Bérard says in his book that as many as seventeen French papers have been, of late years, in the pay of the Sultan, who took the place of the unfortunate Panama Company, which squandered millions of francs upon journalists and Deputies.

It must be said, also, that the Turkish debt is wholly held, at the present time, in France and in England. There exists a financial committee which undertook, after the last reorganization of the Turkish debt, to levy and to centralize a number of taxes in Turkey, and to apply this income to the payment of the Turkish debt and of the guarantees given to some Ottoman railways. This commission has fulfilled its function with great regularity and with marked success, though perpetual demands of the Sultan and of the camarilla of the Porte have thrown constant difficulties in its way. The crisis in the East has been most unfortunate for the financial reorganization of the Ottoman Empire, and every effort has been made to minimize it and to preserve the *status quo*. That the *status quo* will be preserved, with an autonomous Crete, seems very probable at the moment when I write. The great Powers will make every effort to hinder a war between Greece and Turkey. They will be confronted with difficulties when they try to carry into execution the plan they have formed for Crete, as the island is not now, financially speaking, able to support the expense of a separate government, with an executive power, a police, courts, etc. The autonomy of Crete is only a stepping-stone to the annexation of the island to the Greek Kingdom; but, in the absence of any great leading political mind in Europe, which has been felt since the retirement of Prince Bismarck, European diplomacy is contented with small victories, and lives, so to speak, from day to day, in mortal fear of a general war.

Europe continues meanwhile its ruinous armaments, and leaves to the future the solution of many problems. Among the most ominous questions which must preoccupy all thinking minds is the future organization of the Balkan states, and the fate of the various parts of the Ottoman Empire. The 'Politique du Sultan' throws a lurid light on these questions. M. Victor Bérard made his notes in Constantinople after the massacres. His description of Hasskeui, a faubourg inhabited chiefly by Armenian families, is heartrending. Hasskeui is almost unknown to Europeans, as it is separated from Galata and Pera by the arsenal of Tershane. The inhabitants do their work in the city and return at night; workmen, tailors, shoemakers, very poor, living on the edge of the fields and the cemeteries. The dragoman of the embassy was distributing some blankets in a church at Hasskeui when M. Bérard made his visit. After the distribution the dragoman said:

"I used to know everybody here. Already, in 1895, after the massacres of Stamboul, a hundred and sixty men took refuge in this church and would not leave it. The embassy sent me to negotiate with them, each embassy having taken charge of an Armenian quarter. I succeeded in reassuring them. They only begged to have turned out of Hasskeui two Mussulman butchers and a man from the arsenal who had constituted themselves a sort of committee for the massacre, and who threatened them with death. Notwithstanding our representations, these bandits were not disturbed, and when the *assommeurs* came, the work was ready. The Armenian doors had been marked with chalk. The party came by boat, on Wednesday, August 26, towards five o'clock, and during the whole night and the whole of the next day, thirty hours in all, they were at work. The first Armenians, whom they found at the landing, were taken to the butchers. As they struggled they cut their hands, and the butchers screamed, 'Pig's feet to sell!' Then they were bludgeoned, after the fashion adopted in this well-organized execution. The bands had for their only weapons sticks (*sopas*), all of the same form and length, made, it is believed, for this use, in the workshops of the navy, and it is known that a few days before they had been distributed in the different posts of the police. . . . The *sopadjis* threw the Armenians on the ground and knocked them on the head till it was reduced to a pulp or separated from the trunk. The police surrounded the quarter and drove back those who took to flight. They proceeded methodically; not an Armenian house was forgotten."

After the description *de visu* of this poor quarter, M. Bérard tells the tale, horrible in its monotony, of the Armenian massacres in Asia Minor. His last chapters are entitled, "The Sultan and Armenia," "The Mussulmans in Europe." His conscientious work leaves a most painful impression on the mind, the sense of an incurable disease in the Mussulman world, and of an incurable impotence in Europe. Mussulman fanaticism confronts European scepticism, and we feel that it may confront it for generations to come.

MORE READINGS FROM THE ITALIAN RENAISSANCE.

ITALY, March 31, 1897.

IT says something for a poet's love of fatherland and of mother tongue (especially when the poet is Carducci), that he has devoted two years to the selection of 'Readings from the Italian Renaissance,'* and this with "such heartfelt satisfaction" that he would fain have written fewer verses and have put his time to better purpose,

"so great is the moral elevation, so keen the spur to human perfection, which well-born minds find in the revelations of a great soul, in the narration of a sublime fact, in the exposition of thoughts superior to the senses, to immediate utility and practicalness. Nothing is so æsthetically beautiful as the devotion and self-sacrifice of a man to liberty, to country, to an idea: no drama seems to me so moving as the delirium of Camillo Cavour when dying; no epopee so true and splendid as the battles of Calatafimi and of Palermo; no lyric so lofty as the martyrdom of Giuseppe Andreoli, of Tito Speri, of Pier Fortunato Calvi. Filled with such sentiments, while selecting these Readings with a view, not only to our schools, but to the families and the youth of the country, I seemed to live again in better, bygone times."

* 'Letture del Risorgimento Italiano. Scelte e ordinate da Giosuè Carducci' Vol. I., 1749–1830 Vol. II., 1831–1870. For the preface and subject-matter of the first volume see the *Nation*, vol. 61, p. 361. *Rinascimento* is the word used by Carducci for Italy's *literary* rebirth; *Risorgimento* for her *political* resurrection.

Yet some people of importance demurred:

"One newspaper, edited by professors for the use of schools, informed me that nothing in the first volume was worth reading except the preface. Is it possible? Can the story of the martyrs who gave them a country, of the cities whose heroism cancelled the supine servitude of their forefathers, can the noble pages which rekindled souls in the cemetery of ages—the pages of Vittorio Alfieri, of Ugo Foscolo, of Vincenzo Gioberti, and of Giuseppe Mazzini—be reading unworthy of the youth of Italy? Alas, what a diminutive of 'the man' is a mere professor, a pedagogue, a *letterato!* I quite understand how clericals and anarchists issued from the schools where the teaching of Italian consisted in comparing the variants of the 'Promessi Sposi'; that of Latin in delving for grammatical exceptions and metrical difficulties; where five months passed in arranging the dynasties of the Pharaohs, and other five in deciphering the legislation of the Longobards.

"Somebody wrote that 'I did not create' Italy, (a silly, saltless phrase); that 'neither did I invent the history of Italy!' Assuredly I did not, but you neither write nor teach it! The people of France have noble and eloquent narratives of her recent glories and misfortunes, all adapted for family and school reading, and for young men and women. We have been left to Botta, to Colletta, and to Cantù! The generation which succeeded the writers of the Renaissance have set themselves to copy France in all her worst productions; to copy what is really the detritus, the refuse of her social dissolution, precisely all that Gioberti and Mazzini most earnestly admonished them to avoid. The quasi-contemporaries of Cavour, of Farini, of Ricasoli, write novels where 'all is said and done,' producing a literature unsuited to Italy, instead of writing history, of which she was once the universal teacher. I have not attempted a compendium of history, nor an anthology of eloquence, but merely to hold up a mirror of patriotic and civil education."*

The criticism on the instruction given in Italian schools is strictly just. Students fairly up in ancient history, sacred and profane, know simply nothing of that of their own country during her revolutionary struggles; were those between fifteen and twenty years of age to be subjected to an examination in dates, names, facts, and events from 1815 to 1870, 90 per cent. would be plucked. The "Moderates" allowed but two names to be spoken in the schools—Victor Emanuel and Cavour; the Liberals, who, after sixteen years of expectation, came to power, had too many irons in the fire to attend to such small matters. Be it said to the credit of the late Minister of Public Instruction, Guido Baccelli, that he introduced and recommended these 'Readings' in the public schools. Carducci's hopes for the future of his country are centred in her youth; hence his retention of his chair in the University.

It is, indeed, chiefly on their behalf that he has broken the contemptuous silence so long maintained towards the motley crew of scribblers and coxcombs who, wounded in their weakest point by the indifference of the public to their effusions in verse and prose, have been bewailing here and in France the hard lot of unappreciated genius in unhappy Italy. In the *Vita Italiana* of the present week Carducci makes a fell sweep of these "Horse-Flies" as he aptly designates the pestiferous brood:†

"Listen," he begins; "we are forwarned. Italian literature does not, cannot exist, because Italy has no literary centre, no common literary language universally recognized! But this cry is older than the cuckoo's. . . . These jeremiads are as ancient as are the authors of hissed plays and unread novels. If Italians rarely succeed in composing popular dramas, or in writing novels that people read from beginning to end, is history or ethnology to blame?"

Then it is recorded how high-souled Frenchmen, while admiring, translating, and disseminating throughout Europe the fresh productions of the Italian patriots* (thus proving that Italy *had* a literature), "deplored that concentration of France in Paris which absorbed all efficacious individuality, kneading all into uniform dough"; how England, "who possesses the most original, freest, and truest of modern literatures," had at least two centres, while Germany had several; how Greece, "the mother of literature, abhorring concentricity and types," had at least four hearths and laboratories. Italy, too, in the fifteenth century,

"had as many literary centres as regions—one might say as cities, the copiousness and variety of productions blending ultimately in characteristic unity. And during the first half of the eighteenth century, when Italy was divided as never before or since—when Naples, Rome, and Venice all breathed a different air—did not Vico, Metastasio, Goldoni embody the representative potency of the Italian people, apparently so utterly shattered and sundered? These three were Italians *per eccellenza*, each so profoundly different the one from the other, yet each responding to the various facets and manifestations of the Italian mind and nature; all their works first or last becoming an integral Italian portion of European literature. But a literary centre—Milan, Florence, Rome? No. Italy, all was Italy! From the Alps, by the Apennines, to the two seas; along the Ligurian shores; by the banks of the Piedmontese and Lombard rivers and lakes; away over the hills of Emilia and Tuscany; by smiling Piceno, serene Umbria, and solemn Comarca; through the rigid and florid Abruzzi, the fertile Campania and Apulia; and in sunlit Sicily, in the stern island of the *nuraghi*†—wheresoever, with the spirit of the Gracchi, the power of Cæsar had set the impress of the queen of Mediterranean civilization, of Rome, in the fusion of Ligurian, Iberian, Umbrian, Etruscan, Gallic, Oscan, Sicilian, Grecian elements—everywhere, all the country over—Italy, all was Italy! Every region was a hearth, every city an altar."

The part of the essay treating of *la lingua* is inimitable in its exhaustive survey, its subtle irony. "Between Mentana and Porta Pia; in the square of San Firenze, where Dante conversed; behind Palazzo Vecchio, where Machiavelli wrote, the catchword repeated by every magpie in Italy, is, 'We want a tongue, we want a tongue.'" One morning Broglio, a Valtellinese Minister of Public Instruction, woke up after a nightmare:

"Mother Italy, seated upon his chest, held in one hand the lance of the Quirites, in the other the escutcheon of Savoy, but she was tongueless; and, opening her mouth wide, the future author of the 'Life of Frederick II.' gazed in horror on a bloody lizard writhing there, and heard a sound of ah, ah, ah! To that dream of the Valtellinese minister many wondrous deeds and words are due—lastly, this famous message sent to France, 'Italy has no universally accepted literary tongue.'

"So, so! Ariosto and Bartoli, Ferrarese; Baretti and Alfieri, Piedmontese; Parini and Manzoni, Milanese—pray, what tongue was theirs?"

Reaffirming the existence of an accepted literary language, Carducci refers to the divergence of the two currents, the two schools (which, for brevity's sake, we will call by their old names—Classic and Romantic), and asks what is the rational course to pursue.

"It behooves us to restore national literary traditions to compact unity; to do this, we must proceed with gravity of purpose and of study, and possibly it may be necessary to remodel our system of secondary instruction [*i. e.*, the technical schools, the gymnasiums, the lyceums, etc.]. If it be true that the majority in Italy write badly, as the preachers (who rant none too well) affirm, let us write better; or, to put it modestly, let us set ourselves to learn to write better."

"*Macchè!* 'Let us create a European literature,' say the preachers!" The eight close columns devoted to this idea, suggested by Goethe and embraced by Mazzini, must be read in their entirety; not a phrase can be detached, nor a paragraph quoted, even if space permitted.

The "horse-flies" are left nameless, and nameless we leave them. Suffice it that they are scribblers of a certain age who have been trying to hound down and to cast ridicule on certain young writers who, Carducci maintains, must be allowed, nay, assisted, "to win their spurs." To these the moral of his lesson runs: Whosoever has a good and true thing to say in Italy, has an Italian language ready at hand in which to express his thoughts, and a capable audience willing to appreciate them. Whosoever fails, does so because he has no good or true thoughts within himself, and could not in any clime or in any language secure listeners or admirers. J. W. M.

* The contents of this second and last volume are as choice as they are impartial. We have "The Italic Peninsula" by Napoleon I. Balbo, Tommaseo, Settembrini, Giob rti, Massimo d' Azeglio, Cav ur, Farini, Massari, Cibrario, all the pillars of the moderate church, take their stand with Mazzini, Montanelli, Brofferio, Guerrazzi, Cattaneo, Guerzoni, Felice Cavallotti, and Alberto Mario. Carducci gives but one reading from his own vast contribution to Renaissance literature, that gem of gems on "The Death of Garibaldi."

† "Mosche Cocchiere." See La Fontaine's Fables, VII. 9.

* In allusion to Ginguené, Sismondi, Cousin, Fauriel, and Baudry the publisher; all enthusiastic admirers of Manzoni, of the Romanticists, and of some of the Classicists who followed in the footsteps of Foscolo and Leopardi.

† Sardinia, where vast numbers of *nuraghi*, ancient and probably sepulchral monuments, cone-shaped, from 20 to 30 metres high, built of stones without cement, abound.

Correspondence.

HOMER IN THE SCHOOLS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: There is a good deal of force in Prof. Hogue's communication to the *Nation* of April 8, but there is another side to the subject which should not be overlooked, even if it involve a defence of "a pedagogical mistake of the first order." Considered abstractly, it does seem absurd to plunge a pupil who has studied a hundred pages or so of Xenophon into a strange medley like the old Ionic of Homer. If the student were beginning a course of study in Greek which was to continue through his whole college course, Homer might be postponed till the time suggested by Prof. Hogue, and a logical course adopted which would tend still more to disgust the young American of to-day with Greek. Greek is, however, no longer an obligatory study throughout a college curriculum, and students may drop it entirely in some colleges, after they have once entered. If it be unwise pedagogically to study Homer in secondary schools, it is, on the other hand, certainly a most wise arrangement for arousing a genuine interest in Greek literature. Herodotus might do something to counterbalance the uninspiring pages of the 'Anabasis,' but his influence, as compared with Homer, would be but slight.

In this matter I write from an experience of over fifteen years in teaching Homer in the secondary schools, and I am thoroughly convinced that it would be a most lamentable mistake to drop Homer from the list of college requirements. There is no subject in the classics read in the preparatory schools in which so deep an interest can be kindled as in Homer. The difficulties, which might seem appalling at

first sight, vanish into thin air in the light of experience. The interest of the subject-matter is so great that it does not require much time to learn the peculiarities of the dialect sufficiently to read intelligently and with great enjoyment. While admitting that Homer contains material suitable for advanced work in college, I also maintain that, in the simplicity of his style and the fascination of his story, he is preëminently fitted for awakening in our youth a desire to know more of that strange world of over twenty centuries ago, so unlike our modern life and yet so like it in the human characters we find there.

There is one change in the study of Homer I should be glad to see sanctioned by the Committee of Twelve. Let a division be made between the 'Iliad' and the 'Odyssey.' Let the colleges reserve the 'Iliad' for themselves, and prescribe the 'Odyssey' for the schools. There are many reasons why this would be a wise course, but this is not the place to set them forth.

In the interest of the Greek departments of American colleges, which desire to attract our youth to the study of the noblest of languages, I sincerely hope the view of Prof. Hogue will not prevail, for I believe that the study of Greek in our schools, which is already waning, would receive a most serious blow. WILLIAM F. ABBOT.

CLASSICAL HIGH SCHOOL, WORCESTER, MASS.

THE CREDIBILITY OF BOUCHER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent, in No. 1659, who objects to the view I expressed, in my 'True George Washington,' as to the value of Boucher's testimony, has certainly never tested the trustworthiness of his sketch of Washington. In the first eight sentences of that sketch we find the following errors:

"Washington was the second son." He was the third.

"Lawrence . . . did not acquit himself . . . well" at Carthagena. He was specially praised in the official account.

Lawrence "died at Barbadoes." He died in Virginia.

George was "Surveyor of Orange County." He was Surveyor of Culpepper County.

He was sent "to examine" the "encroachments" of the French. He was sent to carry a letter.

"He published his journal." It was done by the Governor.

"A Col. Jefferson . . . commanded." It was Col. Fry.

"Col. Muse . . . was second." He was major and below Washington in rank.

"At Braddock's . . . defeat" Washington "acquitted himself . . . decently" but not "greatly." He preëminently distinguished himself.

Here, then, are ten absolute misstatements in the first eight sentences; enough, I think, to justify me in discrediting any statement of Boucher's which was made, not from personal knowledge, but from hearsay.

If I used Boucher's statements concerning Washington's morality and the amusement excited by his journal, it is because they fall into quite a distinct class from the foregoing examples. Whether a man is moral, or whether he is laughed at, can be a matter of general repute in a community and may even be asserted by one who does not personally know him. On the point of his morality, Boucher, from personal acquaintance with Washington and his circle, was in a position to speak with fair credibility. Surely your correspondent must realize the difference between attempting to give specific facts in a man's life, and giving a general characterization. The first eight sentences of Boucher's sketch, which deal wholly with facts of Washington's early life, all of which occurred before Boucher was eighteen years of age, and most of which occurred before Boucher even came to America, are a tissue of errors; the last six sentences, which are merely generalizations, are worthy of credence and quotation because they accord with the known facts, and were such as Boucher could speak of from personal knowledge.

The fact that there were convict teachers in Virginia is no proof that Washington was taught by a criminal of the name of Hobby, any more than the existence of colleges to-day proves that a man must necessarily have received his education from one of them. Washington's education was too slight to require a multiplication of its means, and we have enough other influences to account for what he obtained to be able to do without this convict, who has proved indeed a *hobby*-horse to those writers who search for the picturesque in history. But in closing I will add that in my book I did not deny that Washington might have been taught by a convict, but only maintained that better evidence than Boucher's must be produced to make it an historical fact. PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I was much interested in the comments of your correspondent of April 15 who maintains the accuracy of Rev. Mr. Boucher's statement as to the early education of George Washington by a "convict servant," which had been questioned by Mr. Paul Leicester Ford in his 'True Washington.' In support of the parson's assertion concerning the instruction of planters' children in colonial times by "indented servants or transported felons," I send, from the records of a well-known Virginian family, a notable instance occurring at a much earlier period.

Col. John Carter of Corotoman was a very prominent and wealthy planter of Lancaster County, which he had represented in the House of Burgesses for many years. He was lieutenant of the shire, commander-in-chief of the military forces of the Northern Neck of Virginia, and eventually member of the colonial Council. Though essentially a man of action, who lived in stirring times, yet he seems to have collected a fair library about him. His will, which I recently perused at Lancaster C. H., is dated 1669, and from a bequest therein we learn the method of securing instruction which obtained in his day.

To his eldest son, Col. John Carter, jr., his executor, he leaves "all my books—only my son Robert is to have the sixth part of them in goodness and value—and my wife [the fifth of his spouses, who all lie buried by his side and enumerated on his tomb-slab in Christ Church chancel] to have 'David's Tears,' 'Byfield's Treatise,' and 'The Whole Duty of Man,' and her own books." His executor is specially charged to see "that my son Robert, in his minority, be well educated for the use of his estate, and *that he have a man or youth servant bought for him*, that hath been brought up in the Latin School, and that he constantly tend upon him, not only to teach him his books, either in English or Latin, according to his capacity (for my will is that he shall learn both Latin & English, & to write), but also to preserve him from harm, and from doing evil; and as soon as he is free or dead, *to have another bought*."

This son Robert, then a boy of six years, became afterwards one of Virginia's most celebrated worthies, the famous "King Carter," so called from the vast landed estate, 300,000 acres, 1,100 slaves, and £10,000 stg. which he left to his heirs, and whose once splendid tomb, now in ruins, at Christ Church, recited that he was six years Speaker of the House of Burgesses, and Treasurer under the serene Princes William and Mary, Anne, George I. and II., President of the Council, and Governor of the Colony more than a year, who by his two wives . . . had many [15] children, on whose education he expended large sums of money." Under the will of his elder brother, Col. John, whose eventual heir he was, he became also possessed of the family library, containing, according to the inventory, valuable works in Latin, Greek, French, and Spanish, English history and divinity, poetry, etc., besides his law books and the then highly esteemed 'Eikon Basilike,' 'Basilikon Doron,' etc. WILSON MILES CARY.

915 N. CHARLES ST., BALTIMORE, April 18, 1897.

FICTION-READING IN ONTARIO.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In view of your recent article on "Fiction-Fiends," it may be of interest to your readers to know that in the province of Ontario the reading of fiction is on the decrease. According to the speech of the Hon. G. W. Ross, Minister of Education, delivered in the Legislative Assembly on March 4 of this year: "The percentage of fiction read during 1896 is 48 per cent., as compared with 57 per cent. in 1890. In 1880 the amount of fiction read was 80 per cent. of the whole reading." In the case of the leading city, Toronto, the decrease is still more remarkable. In 1885 fiction was 64.5 per cent. of the entire circulation. In 1896 it was only 46.8 per cent. in a circulation of over half a million volumes. Neither in the city nor in the province has there been any change of classification in that time.

For the province the total issue for 1896 was 1,917,365 volumes for 319 libraries reporting, as against a total issue in 1883 of 251,920 volumes for 93 libraries reporting. The total population of the province is about two millions. A. M.

DALHOUSIE COLLEGE, HALIFAX, N. S., April 14, 1897.

UNCUT LEAVES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The current number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* has just come to hand. With its sheets folded and re-folded and folded again, it takes five minutes to cut the leaves. Other magazines require from two to four minutes. Estimating a monthly sale of three million uncut magazines in this country and in Europe, demanding on an average three minutes each for cutting the leaves, and an annual issue of two thousand uncut books in editions of a thousand each, requiring five minutes per volume for cutting, we find that nearly two million hours are spent each year, in this country and in Europe, in putting books and periodicals into a readable condition after they have been received from the publishers.

The above estimates are probably considerably below the truth. Why should not pressure be brought to bear on all publishers to issue their books and magazines either trimmed or cut open by the new process recently adopted by the enterprising proprietors of one

of our popular ten-cent magazines? This process leaves the edges uncut, and is thus not open to the objections raised against paring or trimming the margins of books. "What greater crime than waste of time!" exclaims the old proverb. How long must we continue to wear out our patience and waste our time in plying the paper-cutter?

Very truly yours, PERCY F. BICKNELL.

LIBRARY OF THE UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS,
CHAMPAIGN, April 15, 1897.

BRYANT'S PORTRAIT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Permit me to correct the following statement made in the *Nation* of April 15:

"Nor was it [the portrait of Bryant] afterward, as Mr. Howe says, published in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for May, 1841, with a notice by Poe. This magazine was not issued after 1840; and though *Graham's Magazine*, which succeeded it, published a portrait of Bryant, it was not in May, 1841, but in August, 1843, and the artist was not Inman, but Thompson, and the writer of the notice was not Poe, whose Bryant article appeared in *Godey's* for April, 1846."

Inman's portrait of Bryant, engraved by G. Parker, with notice by Poe, appeared in the *Gentleman's Magazine* for May, 1840. Mr. Howe, therefore, has made a mistake merely in his citation of the date.

Yours truly, BEMFORD SAMUEL.

RIDGWAY LIBRARY, PHILADELPHIA, April 17, 1897.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have just been able to look back to my record of the Cretan insurrection of 1866-7-8, and find that I am mistaken in saying, in my letter to the *Nation*, that the suppression of the movement by Bulgaris took place within three months of the refusal of the offer of autonomy made by A'ali Pasha. It was a year after. A'ali landed on the 4th of October, 1867; on the 11th of November Omer Pasha was recalled in disgrace, and in September of the year following the plan of Bulgaris for suppressing the insurrection came into effect.

But the sequence of events was the same, and the course of fewer or more months did not change the relation of parties, but showed the tenacity of the insurrection, which the Greek Government stifled that it might not end in autonomy and so Greece lose the opportunity of worrying Turkey and securing annexation.—Yours truly, W. J. S.

HOTEL VICTORIA, ROME, April 6, 1897.

SUNRISE AT MOSCOW.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Now that Mr. Scott has furnished us with a witty criticism of Mr. Richard Harding Davis's astronomical observations at the coronation of the Czar, I venture to add a word. When I read Mr. Davis's account, I bethought me that Moscow enjoys none of the famous "white nights," and that the Muscovites sometimes make the journey to St. Petersburg for the express purpose of witnessing them. Then I looked up the data in my Russian calendar. On May 26 the sun rises, at Moscow, at 3:30 A. M., and sets at 8:24 P. M. At St. Petersburg, on that day, it rises at 2:59 A. M., and sets at 8:55 P. M. On the longest day, which in Moscow is June 21, the sun rises at 3:14 A. M., and sets at 8:49 P. M. The longest days at St. Petersburg are June 19-23, inclusive, when the sun rises at 2:36 A. M., and sets at 9:27 P. M. Perhaps it was the moon, in festive array for the great event, which Mr. Davis saw.—Very truly yours,

ISABEL F. HAPGOOD.

NEW YORK, April 15, 1897.

RASK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reply to the question of Mr. A. D. Hodges, jr., in the *Nation* of yesterday, I will suggest that *rask* was *ross*, the rough outer portion of the bark of certain trees. In northern New England the bark of the hemlock was formerly extensively used for tanning, and, as late as the early part of the present century, the ross was removed from the bark before grinding, and tanners and others used it for fuel. SIDNEY I. SMITH.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., April 16, 1897.

Notes.

THE Dante Society, of Cambridge, Mass., puts out through its Council, of which Prof. Norton is the head, an appeal for an enlarged membership on the ground of substantial past achievements. It now barely maintains itself and its admirable working library, and needs additional support for more extensive publications. It has in hand a concordance to Dante's minor Italian works (*Vita Nuova* and the *Canzoniere* being finished), and a revision, by Prof. E. S. Sheldon, of Blanc's 'Vocabolario Dantesco.' The Society has already to its credit Dr. Fay's Concordance to the 'Divine Comedy.' The annual membership fee is five dollars (one guinea in England), and may be sent to the Secretary, Prof. A. R. Marsh, Cambridge.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, have undertaken a new, illustrated edition of Francis Parkman's Histories from new type in twenty medium-octavo volumes, with 120 photogravure plates made in Paris and consisting chiefly of authentic portraits and contemporary prints, together with some original designs by American artists. The edition will be limited. The same house will presently begin issuing, in conjunction with Sampson Low, Marston & Co., a History of the Royal Navy from the earliest times to 1898, in five volumes, fully illustrated. 'Captain Shays, a Populist of 1786,' an historical romance by George R. R. Rivers, is also in the press of this house.

Dodd, Mead & Co. announce 'The Personal Life of Queen Victoria,' by Miss Tooley; 'The Romance of Isabel, Lady Burton,' with portraits and other illustrations; 'The Treasure of the Humble,' by Maurice Maeterlinck; and a volume of charades, 'The Green Guess-Book.'

Mr. Gladstone's 'Later Gleanings: Theological and Ecclesiastical,' and a 'Concordance to the Greek Testament' emanating from T. & T. Clark, Edinburgh, will bear the imprint of Charles Scribner's Sons in this country.

The New Amsterdam Book Company publish this month 'The Crimean Diary of the late Gen. Sir Charles A. Windham, K. C. B.,' and 'The Letters of De Brosses,' translated by Lord Ronald Gower. They have in preparation Lord Lytton's Works in twenty-eight volumes.

'The Half-Caste: An Old Governess's Tale,' by the late Miss Mulock, will be published in a few days by Thomas Whittaker. The story first appeared in *Chambers' Journal*, and is now first issued in book form.

'Maude,' a story written by the late Christina Rossetti when a young girl, will be issued shortly by Herbert S. Stone & Co.

"The Duodecimos" resume publication with 'The Poems of Mrs. Anne Bradstreet (1612–1672), together with her Prose Remains,' to which Prof. Charles Eliot Norton furnishes an introduction. This fifth edition of the verse of the first American poetess will be printed from new type on hand-made paper at the De Vinne Press, with portraits and views, in a limited edition (12+132, the major number being for sale). The Treasurer of the Duodecimos is W. Irving Way, Monadnock Building, Chicago.

George P. Humphrey, 25 Exchange St., Rochester, N. Y., is to issue monthly a series of "Colonial Tracts," reprints of some of the more valuable pamphlets relating to the early history of America, at $3.00 per annum or 25 cents apiece. The May number will consist of Sir R. Mountgomery's "Discourse concerning the Designed Establishment of a New Colony to the South of South Carolina," etc. (London, 1717).

Rev. Dr. C. Ellis Stevens's book, 'Sources of the Constitution of the United States,' is being translated into the French language by a member of the French diplomatic service, and is about to be published in Paris by Guillemin & Co. in their well-known series of notable foreign works.

The ample and generous style of the Centenary Edition of Carlyle's Works, undertaken in England by Chapman & Hall and in this country by Charles Scribner's Sons, becomes more impressive by multiplication of the volumes. We have now before us the 'French Revolution,' in three volumes, the first of the 'Cromwell,' and the single volume of 'Heroes and Hero-Worship.' Three important plates, after old prints, accompany each, and in the case of Rousseau, for 'Heroes and Hero-Worship,' the publishers have made apt selection of a portrait which nearly enough corresponds to Carlyle's unflattering picture of that author, whereas another choice, just as authentic, but putting quite a different face on the matter, would have been possible and easy. This edition, we will remind our readers, presents Carlyle's text without gloss, and with only introductions, general and particular, from Mr. H. D. Traill. The thirtieth and final volume will consist of matter never before published in a collected form. The price is remarkably moderate for so fine a manufacture.

From Messrs. Scribner we have also the fourth volume of the uniform edition of Rudyard Kipling's Works, 'In Black and White,' twenty-three short tales in all, with three illustrations modelled in low relief by the elder Kipling, each one a type of Indian character or manners, rendered both knowingly and artistically.

From Macmillan we have another volume in their handsome series of standard novels of the early part of the present century, being Thomas Love Peacock's 'Misfortunes of Elphin, and Rhododaphne,' to which Prof. Saintsbury furnishes an introduction. They have also issued for J. M. Dent & Co. another of the translated works of Balzac, 'A Woman of Thirty,' with Prof. Saintsbury again for usher, and six fresh volumes in the "Temple Classics" under Mr. Israel Gollancz's general editorship, namely, 'Gulliver's Travels,' 'Le Morte Darthur' in two volumes, the 'Essays of Elia,' Bacon's Essays, and the first volume of

Montaigne's in Florio's version. These are charming little copies of first or early editions, with some editorial apparatus, *e. g.*, in the case of Bacon, marginalia, an index of quotations and foreign phrases, and a glossary.

'Life's Comedy,' first series (Scribners), is a quarterly selection from the cartoons and smaller pieces in *Life*, here divided into "The American Girl," "Sweethearts and Lovers," "The American Family," and "Our Bachelors." The residuum of pure humor after separating the illustrations which are fitted with cynical or worldly legends, is so slight that we find this collection rather melancholy than otherwise; nor can we think the influence of such illustrations, week in and week out and year after year, on the readers of *Life* anything but unwholesome. While the cleverness of the artists, too, is undeniable, what they give us is a millinery show; it is not comic art.

That "cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day," 'Hazell's Annual,' for 1897, revised to November 21, 1896 (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners), exhibits its customary freshness. Maps of Armenia, Guiana-Venezuela, the Egyptian Sudan, and the Transvaal mark the political physiognomy of the past year, as do some of the new biographies—Bryan, McKinley, Laurier, Krüger, etc. Nansen's expedition with the *Fram* is summarized, and among the curious rubrics which show the inclusiveness of Hazell is "Tsetse Fly Disease," from which we learn that this pest of the South African exploration and settlement is being taken in hand by "a committee of expert pathologists" for an exhaustive inquiry. The infected areas are being mapped with great minuteness, and the actual parasite of the tsetse is being experimented with in London. An item like this, with all that is implied in it historically and scientifically, cuts a large figure in the comparison of the beginning of Queen Victoria's reign with its sixtieth year.

Tennyson's 'The Princess,' burlesque though it is, in the main, has such characteristically Tennysonian beauties, especially in the scattered lyrics, that it serves well enough, for young students, as an introduction to the study of the poet, and, partly because of those beauties, partly, no doubt, because of its collegiate atmosphere, it has been much studied, of late years, in secondary schools. To the school editions of W. J. Rolfe and H. W. Boynton is now added that of Prof. G. E. Woodberry of Columbia. The volume forms one of the series of English Classics published by Longmans in direct preparation for the uniform college entrance requirements in English, and is one of the books prescribed "for study" for the examinations of 1898. Mr. Woodberry's introduction, of 24 pages, is interesting and clear; his explanatory foot-notes dealing with archaisms and historical allusions, while sometimes rather elementary even for the college preparatory student's needs, are brief and to the point; the longer notes are thrown into a useful appendix, in which are given some of the most obvious literary parallels. This last is an excellent feature; the student cannot be too early taught to look out for such parallels, and to recognize that the study of English literature is vain unless it be based on a scholarly knowledge of the classical literatures which the greatest English poets have, above all others, delighted to echo. On p. 139 occurs the slight typographical error "Olympia" for "Olympian."

Storer's 'Agriculture' appears in a new (seventh), enlarged and thoroughly revised edition (Charles Scribner's Sons). New chapters on Ensilage and on Symbiosis have been introduced, and much other matter rendered necessary by the progress of science has been added. The two volumes of the first edition, which was issued in 1887, have grown into three; the 1,024 pages to 1,874. Though the work appeals especially to the practical farmer and the student of agriculture, it will be read with interest and profit by all who are fond of rural affairs.

Prof. A. Rebière's 'Les Femmes dans la Science' (Paris: Nony & Cie.) has swelled from the modest brochure of a few years ago into a fine octavo volume of 360 pages, with twenty-five portraits and a half-dozen facsimiles of autographs. There are notices of six hundred and nine women, arranged in alphabetical order and varying in length from two words to a dozen pages. This large number, it must be confessed, is reached only by the exercise of the greatest liberality on the part of the author, who admits, *e. g.*, George Sand among the chosen ones on the ground of her "fondness" for mineralogy and botany, "Sara" for being one of the daughters of Pythagoras, and Mrs. Henry Draper for "being reputed" to have participated in the labors of her husband. But this hospitable spirit does not lessen the value of this dictionary of women in one way or other connected with the sciences. The collection of opinions on the intellectual capability of women (pp. 289–319), and even the *menus propos* or undigested notes (34 pp.), may still be of interest to some belated students of the woman question. The author requests readers of both sexes to notify his publishers of any omissions and errors they may discover in his work.

La Fontaine has still another biographer and critic in M. Georges Lafenestre, himself a delicate and graceful poet of deep and true artistic feeling, who has written the latest of the monographs, save that of Malherbe, published by Hachette in their collection "Les Grandes Écrivains de la France." This "La Fontaine" differs from that of Taine in not being a special study of the Fables, and from that of Faguet, in the series of "Classiques Populaires," in being more thorough and covering more ground. M. Faguet, it is true, is at present engaged in giving, in his Sorbonne course, a new and scholarly study of the poet which bids fair to be a work of mark. M. Lafenestre's book is delightfully written, and is free from that laudation at any cost which spoils many a biography and critical estimate. That La Fontaine had faults, that some of his work is immoral and was deservedly condemned, are facts accepted and set forth without fear by his latest biographer, though he rightly dwells at greater length and with evident pleasure on the qualities and beauties of his subject. The life of the poet is told concisely and pleasantly. The difficulties of La Fontaine with Louis XIV., whose favor he never gained, the reasons for the non-appreciation of his work by Boileau, the wholly delightful tilt within the august portals of the Academy, are all recounted with spirit and fairness to all parties. The critical estimate of the worth of the Fables and other writings is distinctly satisfactory.

Burggraf's 'Schillers Frauengestalten' is a very successful attempt to prove that the generally accepted idea in regard to woman's influence on Schiller is not well founded. It has been largely maintained that only a strong masculine mind like that of Kant or Goethe ever nourished Schiller. To counteract this belief, the author starts with Schiller's statement to the Von Lengefeld sisters, that woman's society was necessary to him, and that to her sex he was indebted for his happiest hours. Then he studies the characters of the women with whom Schiller was in any way associated, both the passing acquaintances that soon faded from the poet's mind, and also the women of strong, deep, and earnest character who left a lasting impression upon him. As the author takes them up, he writes a biography of each, longer or shorter in proportion to her intimate relations with Schiller, with these questions in mind: What has she been to him? what has she given him? what on his human side, what on his poetic side? The close relation between Goethe's female friends and the female characters of his books has always been emphasized, and it has been thought that no such relation existed between Schiller's acquaintances and the women of his writings. Burggraf very happily shows the falsity of this belief by a long and clever series of comparisons. The poet's wife exerted by far the greatest influence upon him, and this is seen especially in the change in Schiller's idea of patriotism, as it appears in his early works, contrasted with the later ones.

Beginning with volume 6, the Kansas University Quarterly will appear in two series: A, Science and Mathematics; B, Philology and History. The first number of series A contains a continuation of Williston's Brazilian Diptera and some palæontological memoirs, besides two useful papers on gypsum. The series devoted to Philology opens with an article on "Analysis in Logical Composition."

Heligoland is the subject of an important memoir contributed to the latest volume of the *Acta* of the University of Lund by H. H. von Schwerin. He treats in detail of the history of the island from the earliest mention of it by classical writers down to its cession to Germany, dwelling especially upon the chronicle of Adam of Bremen as well as upon the local folklore and legends. In connection with an account of the geology of Heligoland, a series of charts is added, showing the extraordinary changes effected in its contour by the action of the sea.

The thirty-fifth volume of the reports on the geological map of Switzerland is by Dr. Carl Burckhardt, a pupil of Heim's, on the limestone range north of the Klönthal ('Monographie der Kreideketten zwischen Klönthal, Sihl und Linth,' Bern, 1896). It is particularly interesting on two sides: first from the peculiar structures of the range, in which two systems of folds are involved, one about at right angles with the other; and again from the illustrations, in which Heim's graphic skill is reflected in the handiwork of his pupil. The numerous geological sections and diagrammatic views are so effective that the difficulties of the text are largely resolved by their aid.

Bulletin 144, United States Geological Survey, gives an account of the glacial moraines of the Missouri coteau, by J. E. Todd, State Geologist of South Dakota. Here, as in so many of the more modern essays on glacial geology, one may learn of the remarkable importance of glacial action in determining the geographical features of to-day. On the plains of Dakota the moraines form the dominant relief of the surface. In a district about sixty miles southeast of Bismarck there is a belt of morainic hills, six to ten miles wide, so rough and with so many stony hills and marshy hollows as to be a formidable barrier to travel. The hills and hollows are all

much alike, so that the traveller may easily lose his way among them. The moraines are traversed by the abandoned channels of streams that were active while the ice was present. Their beds are now often occupied by shallow lakes.

Dissertations and other essays by graduate students in our universities are of growing importance. Four recent publications of this kind on geological subjects deserve mention: The Neocene of the Santa Cruz Mountains (California), by G. A. Hall, of Stanford University; Geology of the Fox Islands, Maine, by G. O. Smith, of Johns Hopkins; Bibiliography of Geological Literature of the State of Virginia, by T. L. Watson, of Cornell; and the Geology of Santa Catalina Island, by W. S. T. Smith, of the University of California. The Pacific slope has a good share in these productions.

—Quite the most brilliant paper in the *American Historical Review* for April is that by Prof. Edward G. Bourne of Yale on the disputed numbers of the *Federalist*. Our epithet is not inconsistent with the scholarly painstaking on which the writer's argument is grounded. Dismissing the battle of the "lists" which ascribe to Hamilton or to Madison, Prof. Bourne takes up the controversy with reference to the natural division of subjects among the three authors of the *Federalist*, the logical nexus of the numbers, and, finally, the internal and collateral evidence of authorship. He finds no hiatus between No. 49 and the admittedly Madisonian discussions Nos. 47, 48, which, with Nos. 49–51, relate to the partition of powers, and, with Nos. 49–58, continue the task impliedly assigned (in No. 37) to Madison of reviewing the work of the Convention; Nos. 52–58 form a connected examination of the structure of the House of Representatives; Nos. 62, 63 deal with the make-up of the Senate, and are a proper sequel to No. 58, having been dislocated by Madison's necessity of leaving New York for Virginia, and by Hamilton's of keeping up the series in the meantime with Nos. 59–61. All but three of the questionable numbers (viz., 55, 57, and 58) are taken up in detail (much compressed by reason of the *Review's* exigencies as to space), and in every instance a case is made out for Madison, sometimes slightly, sometimes powerfully, and altogether with a cumulative weight that is to our mind absolutely conclusive. Prof. Bourne parallels the text of the numbers from Madison's Writings and from his debates in the Convention, with greatest fulness in the case of Nos. 62, 63, but not less surely in other instances. Both the ideas and the phraseology show a striking concurrence. Of rhetorical earmarks only one is noted, in No. 56, viz., the word "monitory," which was a favorite with Madison; in special learning, the reference to Polybius in No. 63 is matched in other writings of Madison's, but Prof. Bourne has not encountered in Hamilton's any sign of acquaintance with this historian. On the whole, this is one of the most solid and satisfactory pieces of historical criticism that we have met with in a long time.

—A pathetic interest attaches to the late President Francis A. Walker's last annual report to the corporation of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, which, though dated December 9, has only recently been published. His lucid and vigorous treatment of the various topics touched upon, his wise recommendations for enlarging the sphere of activity and for broadening and liberalizing the work of technical education, give no indication of diminished strength. Among the valuable suggestions is one in respect to opening the courses of history and the related subjects of economics, statistics, sociology, and government to the teachers of history in the schools of Boston and vicinity. President Walker's largeness of view is apparent in the remark made in connection with the appointment of one of his professors as a member of a State Commission: "I consider it sound policy for an institution of the higher learning liberally to encourage its professors to connect themselves with the public service, and with the active interests of the community, in every way and to every degree which may be compatible with the full and proper performance of their duties as teachers. Altogether, in addition to the consideration of the service that may be thereby performed for the State and its citizens, I believe that the teachers bring back to their classes from such work and service much which is of great value to the student." Further, one discovers in the report evidences of the kindly personal interest in his students which was so marked a characteristic of President Walker, when it adverts to the need of a reading-room for the promotion of "better social relations," to the club-houses, and to the association which aims "to secure pleasant and wholesome homes for newcomers." Special stress is laid on the need of a new building for properly and adequately carrying on the constantly enlarging work, especially in the various departments of engineering, architecture, and biology, and it would seem as if no more fitting monument than this could be raised in memory of President Walker.

—In P. K. Foley's 'American Authors, 1795-1895,' we have a well printed octavo of 350 pages, of which 500 copies only have been issued (in Boston) "for the subscribers." The compiler's evident intention has been to include the titles of books by writers who, within the last hundred years, have published enough works of the class usually called belles lettres to entitle them to be fairly termed littérateurs, and the work includes the youngest of our contemporary writers, even to those born as recently as 1865. In a number of cases the aid of the author himself is very manifest, but except where this has been given the list is far from satisfactory; there are many omissions of names and titles which should be included, misprints abound, and little judgment or unity is shown throughout. The works of some few writers are set forth at great length, and the titles of their writings are greatly multiplied by giving all books to which they contributed a poem or a preface. In a few cases all the non-literary writings are included, even to medical and mathematical works, while in others they are excluded. Indeed, the very selection of names shows want of discrimination: twenty authors or more are included who were practically unknown to their own generation, much more the present, and it is difficult to treat with any seriousness a book which puts beside our best literature the writings of Ignatius Donnelly, E. P. Roe, and Ella Wheeler Wilcox. One fact which the chronological arrangement serves to bring out with unusual clearness is the fertility—one is tempted to say superfetation—of certain of the modern novelists. Among these, Mr. Crawford, with a record of twenty-eight tales in fourteen years, stands first, but he is hard pressed by Julian Hawthorne and Edgar Fawcett. The exact use of the list is not altogether easy to define, since the titles are far too brief to make it of value to the collector, and the material is already in print in much better form.

—The state of public opinion in China, since the war with Japan, is perhaps of equal importance to the student of Oriental affairs with the ideas of the rulers at Peking. The publications of "The Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese" show the growth of three different sets of opinion among the thoughtful Chinese. The society we speak of is composed of Scottish and other business men at the ports, and the most scholarly and progressive of the missionaries in China. It has for its president the man whom probably all foreigners agree in believing to be the most important foreigner in China, Sir Robert Hart, the head of the imperial maritime customs. The Society is an evolution of the School and Text-Book Committee of 1877. Its object is the circulation and publication of literature, based on Christian principles and adapted for all classes, throughout China and wherever Chinese are found. The Society publishes a monthly magazine entitled the *Wan Kwoh Kung Pao* or *Review of the Times*, which, though animated by a Christian purpose, is full of literature which all intelligent Chinese are likely to read. For example, in the number for January, 1897, we find well-rendered translations of an article from *Blackwood* on the Apotheosis of Russia, and others on the Will of Peter the Great; the story of how the English became Christian; an irenic paper on the Relation of Christianity to Confucianism; Chinese theories of human nature, effects of opium, Li Hung Chang's travels, a foreign mail summary, telegraphic intelligence, and various notes of interest on a variety of subjects. The editor is the veteran American missionary, Rev. Young J. Allen, who, during the twenty-eight years, has shown himself so sympathetic a helper of the Chinese and interpreter of Occidental to Oriental civilization. Last year he wrote and printed in the magazine an elaborate History of the Chino-Japanese War, from the first despatch received from the Chinese Resident Yuan at Seoul down to the retrocession of the Liao Tung Peninsula. This work excited so much interest among the Chinese that a native publisher issued it in book form, whereupon Dr. Allen revised it and published it in twelve volumes, having enlarged it from 70,000 to 90,000 characters, including an appendix on educational reform. Though undoubtedly revolutionary in its character, it has reached the Government and cabinets of the three kingdoms, China, Japan, and Korea, and copies have been requested for the imperial archives at Peking. It is the one truthful history of the war which the Chinese can and will read. That it is now being read widely is beyond all doubt.

—The gist of the Society's report for 1896 is that there are now in China three parties, the first of which we may call the party of despair—the radical, revolutionary, or absolutely pessimistic party, which demands that the whole Mantchu-Chinese system shall be swept away. This phase of opinion is most current in the southern provinces, where there has always been most of the bitter national feeling against the Mantchu rulers in Peking, and where rebellions have been most frequent. The second party is that of ultra-conservatism, which attributes the decay of China to the fact that for two thousand years past Confucianism has

not been interpreted, understood, and practised properly, and hence the collapse of the country. These partisans say, "Let us go back to pure Confucianism and to original principles." This is their one remedy, and their earnestness is seen in the revival of schools and colleges based on a reactionary interpretation of the writings of and commentaries upon Confucius. The third party, which might be called liberal, is the one that frankly recognizes Chinese shortcomings, and, without despairing or asserting the all-sufficiency of Confucianism, believes in wisely selecting and adopting the best features of Western civilization.

—If the degree of freedom of the press enjoyed by a country may be taken as a fair index of its enlightenment, a rather low position must be assigned to Austria in the scale of civilization. The law requiring every publisher of a newspaper in Vienna to deposit 8,000 florins (about $3,800) with the authorities before issuing a single number of the paper, and thus limiting journalistic enterprise to comparatively wealthy persons, was abolished last year, but the even more onerous burden of the newspaper stamp is still in force. Every number of a daily or weekly newspaper must bear a kreuzer (half-cent) stamp, a tax which is also imposed on every foreign newspaper arriving in an Austrian post-office. Thus the price of the paper is greatly increased and its circulation correspondingly diminished. Every one who takes a newspaper must either be a permanent subscriber or purchase it at certain places, chiefly at the "imperial royal tobacco shops." The sale of newspapers on streets, in cafés, restaurants, or other public places of resort, is strictly forbidden, and subjects the offender to severe penalties. As the result of these repressive measures there are published in the Austrian empire only 111 daily and 575 weekly journals. The same restrictions extend to almanacs, to each of which, no matter how small and simple it may be, a stamp of six kreuzers (three cents) must be attached. The effect of these taxes on the most popular means of diffusing useful information is perceptible in the extreme ignorance of the lower classes as regards all political, social, and industrial questions of the day. Indeed, this is the sole object of the reactionary party in imposing such taxation on the spread of knowledge among the people. As a source of revenue it is of small account; the whole amount derived from stamps on Austrian newspapers and almanacs is 1,900,000 florins (about $890,000), and on foreign journals less than 180,000 florins (about $82,000). Hungary, on securing a certain degree of governmental independence, abolished these stamp-taxes nearly thirty years ago. How long they will stain the statute-books of Austria remains to be seen.

NANSEN AND THE *FRAM*.

Farthest North. By Dr. Fridtjof Nansen. With an appendix by Otto Sverdrup, captain of the *Fram*. Harper & Bros. 1897. 2 vols. 8vo, xiv, 587 and xii, 714 pp., with many illustrations.

THE most important artificial factor in Nansen's success was his vessel, the *Fram*, and perhaps his most striking contribution to methods in Arctic work was the demonstration that a vessel can be built which, under ordinary circumstances and with average luck, will resist or successfully evade the tupendous power of the crashing floes. The experience of two centuries of exploration had resulted in a practically unanimous opinion among Arctic experts that the project was impossible; but, as the world knows, the "impossibility" is now an established fact. Of the $125,000 which the expedition cost, considerably more than half was put into the ship. Her dimensions were, length of keel 102 feet, length over all 128 feet, beam 36 feet, depth 17 feet, extreme draught of water when fully loaded 15 feet, with a displacement of 800 tons and a measurement (gross) of 402 and (net) of 307 tons. Apart from her machinery, she carried 380 tons of freight. Her rigging was that of a three-masted schooner, with a triple-expansion engine of 220 indicated horse-power, giving, under favorable circumstances, a speed of six or seven knots. Built of the strongest materials, her sides were from 24 to 28 inches thick, with the most substantial interior bracing. Particular attention was paid to the lining of the living-rooms with a thick series of non-conducting substances, so that condensation-drip, the plague of previous expeditions, was entirely avoided.

Besides the commander, Sverdrup, and Dr. Nansen, chief of the expedition, the party comprised eleven persons, all Norwegians. It is needless to say that the equipment included everything that experience and good judgment suggested as likely to contribute to the success of the work; among novelties, perhaps the most useful was the employment of a windmill which served to provide electric light for the quarters. Through the kindly offices of Baron von Toll, a supply of Ostiak dogs to meet the expedition at Yugor Strait was arranged for, as well as relief stations on the New Siberian Islands, in case a retreat should be necessary in that direction.

On the 24th of June, 1893, the *Fram* left Kristiania. The last telegrams were sent from Vardö, on the northern coast, on the 21st of July, whence the expedition started for Khabarova, on Vaigatz Island, at the entrance to the Kara Sea. The *Fram*, as might be expected, from her rounded bottom with no projecting keel, was a wet and uncomfortable sea boat, but conditions were favorable, and, on the 31st, the anchor dropped at Khabarova. Here the dogs were secured, repairs made to the engine, and the Yugor Strait examined for a passage. The expected coal-tender not arriving, it was decided to push on, and on the night of August 3d the ship got under way, keeping along the Siberian coast eastward. On the 10th of September the northern point of Siberia, Cape Cheliushkin, was safely rounded, and the *Fram* pushed eastward towards the New Siberian Islands, turning northward on the 13th. A suitable bight in the ice was sought and found. On September 25th, in latitude 78° 45′, the vessel was finally frozen in, about 150 miles north of the western part of the New Siberian Islands.

Then began the routine of the drift. The party found plenty to do in arranging the ship for the winter, erecting the windmill for electric service, getting out the daily rations, providing ice to melt for the water-supply; the invention and repair of tools and instruments, including punched zinc sheets for the mechanical organ; making canvas boots with wooden soles; keeping the bilge free of ice from leakage and condensation; and the scientific observations. Most of these were under the charge of Lieut. Scott-Hansen, and included observations for position of the ship; magnetism and auroras; temperature and air-pressure; the electrification of the air and direction of the winds. In addition, there were tests of the saltness of the sea-water; soundings with temperatures at different depths; the collection of sea-animals, such as small crustacea and worms, by means of a fine silk net lowered under the ice; and observations on the thickening and other changes of the ice. For a time some anxiety was felt as to the way the vessel would meet the pressure of the ice, but her behavior soon inspired such confidence that little attention was paid to disturbances which would have crushed any ordinary vessel like a nutshell.

The daily routine included breakfast at eight A. M.; then attention to the dogs, and other duties; dinner at one P. M., followed by a short siesta; then work till six, followed by supper, books, pipes, cards, and music. At midnight the watch was set and the others turned in. The table was bountiful, and included many delicacies and sweets, but no stimulants. Birthdays and anniversaries were celebrated, breaking the monotony; while the advent of puppies and the pursuit of occasional ice bears supplied the chief items of excitement. A newspaper, *Framsjaa*, was issued by some of the party, and contributed to the general amusement. Throughout, the relations between the members of the party were cordial and fraternal; complete confidence in their leader and in the success of the expedition seeming to have been felt by every one. The general health of the party, too, was excellent. On the 26th of October they had the last view of the sun, after which there can be little doubt that the brilliant electric illumination did much to keep up their spirits.

No bergs were seen, and the height of ridges caused by overthrust floes rarely exceeded twenty feet, and was never more than thirty feet. The ice was in more or less constant motion; lanes of open water appeared at any time. The thickness of the floe averaged six or seven feet, and sometimes reached eleven. In extreme cold weather it was hard and brittle, at other times would bend into considerable waves without breaking: fresh edges showed layers in a sort of stratification. The autumn ice grew thicker constantly all winter and into the spring, but more slowly as it thickened. In summer the drainage layer of fresh water, floating between the ice and the colder salt water, freezes on the under side of the floe. As the latter melts, the subjacent layer increases. The original floe, from about seven feet thick in April, melts to about five in the following October. The heavier ice is solely the result of overthrusting, and this under the *Fram* amounted to more than twenty feet. The ice was coldest about the end of March: 3.2° F. at a depth of 1.2 metres and — 22° F. at 0.8 metre from the surface. January 23d, 1894, a solitary walrus appeared from an opening in the floe, which shows that many breathing-places must have been accessible. Nansen remarks that the Polar Sea "must be considered as one continuous mass of ice-floes in constant motion, now frozen together, now torn apart or crushed against each other."

On the 16th of February the first view of the sun was had by refraction. On the 6th of April an eclipse helped the party to rate chronometers. In June, fresh-water pools formed on the ice, one so large that they had boating parties on it. A few days later this drained into the sea through a perforation in the floe beneath it. Lanes of water appeared in all directions, but usually narrow and irregular; an impediment to travel over the ice, but of no use for navigation. The drift of the vessel

was very irregular and obviously dependent upon the winds; not necessarily the wind at the spot where the vessel lay in the ice, but the resultant of the general winds of the region, as in the case of the *Jeannette*. Thus, while the general motion of the ice was in the direction anticipated by Nansen before starting, the chief cause of this, as predicted by Mohn, was wind-pressure and not the motion of ocean currents. It is of course true that the outflow from the Polar Sea along the Greenland coast, due to a variety of causes acting in the same general direction, takes the form of a distinct oceanic current, but the motion of the ice in the more remote portions of the sea appears to be entirely dependent upon the winds.

The most important contribution to physical geography made by the expedition was the demonstration of the existence of deep water ranging between 1,800 and 2,100 fathoms. The lines originally provided proved too short to measure the depths found, and they were added to by strands unwound from wire cables, until a sufficient length was reached. The water near the surface, below the ice, ranged between 29° and 30° F., increased to about 32° at 156 fathoms, then diminished to 30° F. at 1,625 fathoms, and again increased to 33° and a fraction near the bottom. Such changes seem characteristic, and do not alter materially with the season. As spring advanced, a few birds were seen: gulls, kittiwakes, fulmars, the black guillemot and skua, and once a snow-bunting—8 species in all. On the 3d of August, Ross's gull, which had also been collected by the *Jeannette* in the region to the west, made its appearance. It seems to range as far east as Franz-Josef Land, but has not yet been reported from Spitzbergen. Several dogs died of a mysterious disease which ended in convulsions or paralysis. A few small algæ and diatoms were found in great abundance in the melting ice.

In September, 1894, Nansen concluded that the drift of the vessel was probably not to be expected to carry her into a much higher latitude, and determined to attempt with one companion a sledge journey over the ice by which he should explore further to the northward. His reasons are given at length, and seem fully to warrant the bold attempt to assault the bulwarks of the Pole. In November, 1894, the trip was positively decided on, and Johansen selected as Nansen's companion. The outfit comprised both kayaks and sledges. The former were built with frames of bamboo, 12 feet long, 28 inches beam, and 12 to 15 inches deep. They were covered with canvas soaked in paraffine and tallow, and weighed 41 pounds each. The sledges were 12 feet in length, with runners about three inches wide, shod with German-silver plate, underneath which was fastened a guard-runner of maple carefully tarred. Bags of pemmican were compressed so as to form a bed for the kayak. The clothing selected was of heavy woollen, covered with a thin canvas suit to exclude snow-dust; Finnish boots of deerskin with grass packing to absorb moisture; mittens and felt hats; and a double sleeping bag of deerskin. Two guns, each having a rifle and a shot barrel, were taken, with 180 ball and 150 shot-cartridges. The snowshoes were Norwegian ski; but the experience, both of Peary and Nansen, indicates that in many cases Indian snowshoes would have been more useful. A silk tent and an excellent petroleum cooking-apparatus were among the indispensables.

A provisional start with six sledges was made February 28, but, the equipment being found too heavy, the party returned to the *Fram* March 3. A final start with three sledges averaging 440 pounds, and nine dogs each, was made March 14th. On the first day nine miles were traversed, the temperature ranging from 40° to 45° F. below zero. Up to the 23d there was fair travelling over tolerable ice. Subsequently many pressure ridges, lanes and pools of water, and some severe storms made the going very bad. On the 8th of April a "chaos of ice-blocks" barred the way. The latitude attained was 86°, 13.6′, in about east longitude 95°. Progress was so slow, with no prospect of improvement, that it was decided to turn southward. On the 12th of April exhausted nature asserted itself and the pair slept so long that their watches ran down. As the dogs began to give out from exhaustion and overwork, they were killed and the flesh fed to the survivors. At first some of them refused to eat it; but, later, hunger destroyed all canine scruples. No bergs were seen; the ice consisted of floe with overthrust ridges and hummocks. On the 26th of April a fox-track was seen, and May 19th the travellers were astonished by the appearance in an open ice lane of a school of narwhals. Ten days later the first bird, a fulmar, and the next day a guillemot and seal, were observed. The lanes became innumerable. Young ice was crossed for more than thirty miles, indicating recent open water to that extent or more. On the 2d of June Nansen and his companion stopped to repair kayaks, etc. On the 18th a diminished ration was decided on; on the 22d a seal was killed. On the 24th it was decided to launch the kayaks, leaving behind everything which could be safely spared. A seal was killed in the water, and, in trying to secure it, one of the boats filled and a fatal disaster was barely averted, with the loss of several valuable articles. A camp was made to repair damages, great difficulty being found in making the kayaks water-tight.

On the 22d of July a start was made, the most essential requisites alone being retained. On the 24th, eyes were gladdened by the sight of land, even snow-covered and barren as it was, yet twenty-two days of terrible struggle elapsed before the land was reached. Almost impassable ice, lanes and pools had to be crossed, on short rations, and Nansen writes: "Inconceivable toil. We never could go on with it if it were not for the fact that we *must*." On the 4th of August Johansen had a narrow escape from a bear which was killed and afforded much-needed food. On the 7th open water was reached. The two surviving dogs were regretfully killed, and the kayaks set out for the glacier-covered land. After many struggles with the ice along shore, on the 15th of August the pair set foot on the solid earth for the first time in two years. It was one of the northern islands of the Franz-Josef archipelago. A few Arctic blossoms greeted them. Pushing on, they were nearly blown off shore, and on the 28th it was evident that they must provide winter quarters. Fortunately, bear and walrus were abundant, and many were secured. On the 7th of September they began to build a stone hut, and here, in dull misery and squalor, the winter was passed in a half-comatose state. They ate and slept; kept a few observations going, though the mischievous foxes stole a thermometer and other invaluable articles. "The chief pleasure left to us was to picture to each other how we should make up next winter at home for everything we had missed during our sojourn here." There are no complaints or repining in Nansen's journal, but the bare facts recorded tell the story. On the 19th of May they left their winter lair, and began to journey south. Owing to discrepancies between the land and the Austrian sketch-charts, the explorers did not know precisely where they were. After many viscissitudes and hairbreadth escapes from a variety of dangers, on the 17th of June Nansen heard the bark of a dog. Hastily gathering their things together, they pushed on, and a little later were shaking hands with Jackson of the Harmsworth expedition. Their task was ended and victory won. On the 7th of August they left Cape Flora on the yacht *Windward* and landed at Vardö a week later.

The journey of Nansen and Johansen from the *Fram* to their winter quarters was, in round numbers, about 500 nautical miles, and the distance made averaged three miles a day, allowing nothing for necessary delays en route. The distance from their winter quarters to the nearest frequented harbor in Spitzbergen is about 540 miles, much of it over the worst possible mixture of ice and water, where food could hardly be procured. An impartial survey of the facts, taking into consideration the state of their equipment, leaves hardly any room for doubt that had Nansen not met with the English expedition, the result, in the end, must have been disastrous to him and his companion. Truly, Fortune favors the brave!

Meanwhile the *Fram* continued her drift, and, on November 15, 1895, reached a latitude of 85° 55.5′. On the 13th of August, 1896, she released herself from the ice and was once more in open water. Her position was north of West Spitzbergen, just west of Mossel Bay. Here she anchored near the Andrée expedition off Dutch Cape, and two days later sailed for Tromsö, arriving on the 20th, and meeting the good news of Nansen's almost simultaneous return.

There can be no question as to the value of the results attained by this expedition, whether we regard the additions to our knowledge of the Polar regions, or the marvellous example of courage and endurance afforded by Nansen and his companion. They are well worth all they have cost.

The book bears evidence of the haste with which it has been put together. There is no index, not even an itinerary or table of contents. The maps, and many of the "process" cuts from photographs, are excellent; on the other hand, the drawings reproduced are rough-and-ready sketches of little merit, as a rule, and the colored plates are coarse and inartistic. It is to be regretted that hardly anything of the scientific results appears in the work except by incidental reference. Abstracts of the meteorology should at least have been in a state to print, as well as tables of soundings and dated lists of the animals observed. It has been a work of much labor to bring together even the data noted in this review, while we have seen a few quite obvious misprints in dates and figures. The book is a hasty transcript from the author's journals and little more, but it impresses us as a faithful, modest, frank, and straightforward history of one of the most remarkable arctic explorations ever made. From it much may be learned, profitable wherever man would be the master of his fate.

Briefs for Debate on Current Political, Economic, and Social Topics. Edited by W. Du Bois Brookings and Ralph Curtis Ringwalt.

With an introduction by Albert Bushnell Hart. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

MR. BROOKINGS is connected with the Harvard Law School, Mr. Ringwalt is assistant in Rhetoric in Columbia, Mr. Hart assistant professor at Harvard. Their book has a threefold object in view—to furnish a text-book for formal courses in public speaking and discussion, to provide a manual for literary and debating societies, and to give the wayfaring debater suggestion and assistance. It contains a vast amount of material in a small space, embracing skeleton schemes of the principal arguments pro and con on most of the important topics of the day, reinforced by working bibliographies. It might be used with advantage not merely by students, but by any debater. The basis of the volume has been a collection of some two hundred briefs prepared during the past two years by students in Harvard University under the direction of instructors. A number of new topics and a list of questions suitable for debate have been added.

To many it may seem, on a first glance, merely a new handbook in an old field; a very slight examination, however, will serve to show that it is really much more than this. Prof. Hart's introduction on the Art of Debate is an interesting account of the method of teaching debate introduced in recent years at most of our colleges and universities, which in its intercollegiate form has already aroused an interest threatening the primacy in popular favor of purely athletic contests. A century ago, disputations were part of college commencements. Down to a very recent period, public life in this country was still a school of debate, and the art of persuasion was so much "in the air" that in some quarters the undergraduate study of it was discouraged as unnecessary. At the present day, when legislative bodies are what they are, and a Speaker of the House expresses his gratitude to God that he does not preside over a deliberative body, there would be hardly any school for debate anywhere unless the colleges had revived it, and accordingly we can but look upon the new system as a most praiseworthy effort to keep alive the traditions of a noble and necessary art in an age beginning to develop forces hostile to it. Perhaps the students of this compendium may live to see the day when skill in debate will become again, as it once was, the open sesame to a dolitical career; their study of it will, perhaps, enable them to help on this revival. We are hardly yet pessimistic enough to believe that the great universities of a country can prepare a whole younger generation for political discussion only to see their work frustrated through the continued extrusion of their graduates from political life by the agencies now dominant.

Among the many points of interest suggested by Mr. Hart's introduction we may notice the important fact that the new system of teaching debate by actual practice, under supervision (the practice constituting a training for the final public contest), is evidently one which arouses the interest of the students themselves, and this for two reasons—one, that the subjects are not of an academic nature, but are exactly the subjects which they hear discussed by their elders, and in the settlement of which they like to think of themselves as taking part; the other, that their work not only counts towards a degree, but takes the form of a contest with their natural rivals, and may end, if pains enough are taken, in victory—a foretaste of the delights of political life itself. The subjects marked out in this volume are such that a thorough study of them will actually give the student not mere training in persuasion, but a great amount of actual knowledge as well. Any young man, once thoroughly equipped as the conscientious pursuit of this method would equip him, need fear to meet no one in honorable debate before an impartial audience. People often express wonder at the mysterious skill which trained forensic advocates show in presenting a case—sometimes after a surprisingly brief study of the facts. It is precisely by such training as that recommended in this volume that they acquire their facility.

One of the great difficulties which most young speakers have to contend with is self-consciousness. Mr. Hart gives the only key to a cure by pointing out that the way to forget yourself is to so saturate your mind with the importance of the point you desire to sustain, and the facts which you rely on, that your connection with them and relation to them sinks into the background. Finally, the golden rule of persuasion is to say only what you believe. In the long run you can persuade no one of that of which you are not persuaded yourself.

A Handbook of Greek Sculpture. By Ernest Arthur Gardner, M. A., etc., Yates Professor of Archæology in University College, London. Part II. Macmillan Co. 1897.

THE second and concluding part of Prof. Gardner's 'Handbook of Greek Sculpture' is entitled to the same praise that was accorded in these columns less than a year ago to Part I. It is the work of a well-schooled expert, cautious in temper and independent in judgment. It is concise, yet thoroughly readable, and its half-tone illustrations are uniformly good. In this short handbook we have for the first time in English a thoroughly competent history of Greek sculpture.

Naturally, with some of Prof. Gardner's conclusions we are disposed to take issue. His account of the so-called Venus Genetrix of the Louvre may be singled out for consideration because of the typical importance of the question involved. This statue is admittedly not an original work, but merely one of many practically identical copies of a lost original. The question is, To what period did the original belong? Prof. Gardner says (p. 507): "Everything is in favor of the attribution of this statue to Arcesilaus." Arcesilaus was a Greek sculptor who worked in Rome in the time of Julius Cæsar, and who is known to have made the cult-image for Cæsar's temple to Venus Genetrix, *i. e.*, Venus the ancestress of the Julian gens. But the sculptor, according to Prof. Gardner's view, borrowed the type of his image from some much earlier Greek statue, modernizing it to suit the taste of his own day. The contrary view, to which we hold, is that the Louvre statue and its numerous duplicates are intentionally faithful copies of an Attic original of the latter part of the fifth century B. C. The only positive evidence in favor of Arcesilaus is afforded by certain imperial coins, on which a Venus occurs corresponding to the statue in question and accompanied by the legend "Veneri Genetrici." But then, other quite different types occur with the same legend; so that this evidence evaporates. On the other hand, the existence of terracotta figurines from Myrina having the same motive as the Louvre statue, and manufactured probably as early as the time of Arcesilaus, if not earlier, points to an original of the good Greek period; and the pose, the drapery, and the head of the Louvre statue seem to us to find their proper place in the generation immediately succeeding Phidias; due allowance being made for the inevitable imperfection of the copy.

This, however, is a matter of opinion, not of demonstration. We have noted a few points which call for correction. In the enumeration of important copies of the Diadumenus of Polyclitus on p. 329 the Madrid copy should surely have been mentioned. The head of the Petworth Amazon is spoken of on p. 337 as if it belonged to its figure, whereas Furtwängler, supported by Loeschke and Kalkmann, has alleged evidence to the contrary. If Prof. Gardner has any new light on the matter, he ought to communicate it. It would be interesting, also, to know by what process so careful an investigator has reached the conclusion, implied on p. 364, that the leaning Satyr of the Capitoline Museum is copied from that Satyr of Praxiteles which stood in the Street of the Tripods at Athens; the identification being one of those hypotheses in which, as a rule, Prof. Gardner sternly refuses to put his faith. In his account of the Praxitelean basis from Mantinea he seems unacquainted with the valuable monograph on the subject by Amelung; else he would hardly say (p. 366) that the three extant slabs "were evidently placed side by side on the front of the basis." Amelung has shown to a demonstration that this is impossible, and that in fact the two slabs with the Muses belonged on the two sides of the basis. Finally, why does Prof. Gardner assert so positively on p. 501 that the inscription Λυσίππου ἔργον on the Florentine duplicate of the Farnese Hercules is a modern forgery? Loewy suspended judgment on the question, and now that Michaelis has withdrawn his objections, the case for the defence seems overwhelming.

The points mentioned in the last paragraph are of trifling consequence. It is a pleasure to be able to recommend almost without qualification a book on a subject which has been much at the mercy of the incompetent and the reckless.

Histoire des Relations Littéraires entre la France et l'Allemagne. Par Virgile Rossel. Paris: Fischbacher. 1897. 8vo, pp. 532.

THERE are good reasons for keeping account of international indebtedness in literature, art, and culture in general, even though the time for balancing such accounts can never come. Prof. Rossel of the University of Bern, therefore, deserves our gratitude for digesting and summarizing the work of his predecessors in the same general field, and adding to it, in the purely literary line, fresh details and opinions of his own. The first part of his work, dealing with German literature in France, covers the whole ground from the earliest French epopee of Germanic origin to our own day. To be sure, the vestiges left by the German mind upon French literature previous to the middle of the eighteenth century are but few. Aside from the fact that the great instrument of literary development, the printing-press, was first established in Paris by the initiative of a German professor in the Sorbonne, there is, according to our author, a likelihood that closer investigation will reveal traces of Brandt's 'Ship of Fools' and the 'Till Eulenspiegel' in Rabelais: the etymology of *espiègle* (Ulespiègle) and *calembour* (Kalenberg) certainly points to the familiarity of the French with some of the "*Volks-*

bücher." The influence of Agrippa von Nettelsheim's 'De incertitudine et vanitate scientiarum et artium' upon Rousseau's 'Discours sur les Sciences et les Arts' is hypothetical, though plausible; with more certainty may be traced the influence of Puffendorf in the 'Contrat Social' and the 'Confessions,' and that of Albrecht von Haller ('Die Alpen,' 1729) in the 'Nouvelle Héloïse.' M. Rossel does full justice to the important part taken by Leibniz in the evolution of French thought in the eighteenth century, and dwells with satisfaction upon the circumstance that the German philosopher received first in France the full recognition due to his genius.

But it was not till about the middle of the last century that, especially through the agency of Grimm, a more widely spread interest in German literature began to manifest itself in France. Sometimes this Philgermanic movement took rather strange and, to us, unexpected turns. That Gottsched should have been greeted as a new star by French critics seems natural enough, but some eloquent and tender pages, consecrated by Ch.-A. de Bismarck (the grandfather of the ex-chancellor) to the memory of his wife, won their most ardent admiration as well. Klopstock, for reasons not difficult to understand, enjoyed less favor than Haller and Gessner, the latter being more highly esteemed in France than in Germany (*cf.* also Max Koch). If Napoleon read 'Werther' at the foot of the Pyramids, he read, or had read to him, the 'Death of Abel' before Saint-Jean-d'Acre. There are reminiscences of Gessner in André Chénier. Lessing, in whose school of criticism, later on, Guizot claimed to have formed his mind, and of whose continuators Sainte-Beuve was to be one, was not at once appreciated as a dramatist, and "Miss Sara Sampson" was preferred to his masterpieces. (We are here reminded of the slow change of opinion concerning Lessing in England, as appears from the successive contributions to the *Edinburgh Review.*) The author of the 'Dramaturgy,' which was much studied in France, helped, however, to overthrow the "three unities." Wieland was of course better suited to the French taste, while Herder had to wait for a worthy introduction at the hands of Quinet and Mme. de Carlowitz, after 1825.

Of all the foreign influences which French letters have undergone since that of the ancients, Shakspere and Goethe have been the most powerful; M. Rossel has therefore traced rather minutely the fate on French soil of nearly all the principal works of the latter. It is no doubt due to the nature of lyric poetry in general, and to that of German and of Goethe's lyrics in particular, that they have affected French poetry by gradual infiltration rather than by sudden impulses. Partly, their influence was exerted indirectly: Lamartine, Hugo, Musset, De Vigny, Sainte-Beuve, studied the English—the Lakists, Byron—and these were steeped in German lyrism. Still, more direct influences are not wanting. That Schiller's "Robbers" was more warmly received by Revolutionary France than his other dramas seems natural when it is remembered that, here again, a similar judgment prevailed in England till the advent of Carlyle. Joseph Chénier, however, imitated "Don Carlos" in his "Philippe II.," and A. Soumet spoiled it in his "Élisabeth de France." Dumas *père* borrowed freely from Goethe, Schiller, Kotzebue, and Iffland. Schiller's influence upon the development of the Romantic drama in France is incontestable: Lanson goes so far as to state that Mme. de Staël's chapters on Goethe and Schiller "determined the form and the aim of the Romantic drama." It is amusing to note that Louis Napoleon, after his escapade at Boulogne, translated Schiller's 'Die Ideale.'

Of periodical publications that were instrumental in popularizing German literature in France, the most important mentioned by M. Rossel are, previous to Mme. de Staël's 'De l'Allemagne,' *Les Archives Littéraires* (1804–7), and subsequently the *Globe* (1824), and, of course, the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (1831). Among the most conscientious and sympathetic interpreters, writing for the latter review, were Blaze de Bury and Saint-René Taillandier. The numerous littérateurs and scholars who have in more recent years, in feuilletons and reviews, discussed German letters for the benefit of French readers, are known to every student.

M. Rossel has collected many more noteworthy instances of filiation between modern French and German literature. We can allude only to the indebtedness of Gautier, Baudelaire, Nerval, Mendès, Richepin, and others, to Heine; to the great popularity of Hoffmann's fantastic tales and their effect upon Hugo (Quasimodo in 'Notre-Dame'), Balzac ('La Peau de Chagrin'), Musset, G. Sand, Erckmann-Chatrian; to Auerbach, "who has become a classic in France." On the other hand, we are somewhat puzzled by the statement that writers like Freytag, G. Keller, Scheffel, together with several other moderns, "seem to have nothing to say or to teach" to the French.

The second part of the work, "La Littérature Française en Allemagne," is treated similarly, but not so fully as the first. A complete index of names enhances the usefulness of the book. On page 115, P. Stapfer's 'Goethe et ses deux chefs-d'œuvre' is erroneously mentioned among works treating of "Faust."

Architecture in Italy from the Sixth to the Eleventh Century: Historical and Critical Researches. By Raffaele Cattaneo. Translated by the Contessa Isabel Curtis-Cholmeley in Bermani. Illustrated. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: Truslove & Comba. 1896.

Mr. Cattaneo's original work, 'L'Architettura in Italia dal secolo vi. al Mille circa,' was published in 1889, and was at once recognized as a valuable addition to our scant knowledge of the epoch of which it treats. The present translation reads smoothly, and is, in general, sufficiently intelligible. It follows the text very closely, and in this minute accuracy, praiseworthy in itself, lie the shoals on which the translator's ship has struck to its injury. It appears that the translator has thought it sufficient to repeat the Italian word, or some slight modification of it, in many cases where it has seemed technical or historical, or unusual in any way; or else to render it by a wholly inaccurate English word. There was once a translation, published in America, of a charming story by Théophile Gautier, in which the phrase "un tigre à cinq griffes," and which means simply a five-franc piece, was rendered with good faith by the literal English words, to the confusion of the narrative. This would have seemed the champion blunder, and the best possible example of the great truth that one needs to know a little more than the letter of a foreign language in order to translate from it into one's own tongue. A similar blunder has been made in the second note on page 59 of the book we are considering. Mr. Cattaneo had said of Ricci, the historian (page 46, note 2), that "l'autore prendesse un solenne granchio," and although "granchio" does mean "crab," yet the whole phrase means that he has made a terrible blunder. The translator, however, gives us, with perfect gravity, as the adequate translation of this phrase, "the author has caught a monstrous crab." This is the most amusing of the blunders, and the others are merely evidence of complete indifference to, and lack of interest in, the subject. Such are "stems" of columns used instead of "shafts," as a translation of "fusti," as on page 52, and elsewhere; "tympan" for "tympanum," a very common architectural term, whereas tympan means a musical instrument, or part of a printing-press, but has never been used in an architectural sense; "façade principal," page 58, instead of principal front or principal façade; the statement, page 53, that a church was erected "out of the city," instead of outside of the city; "St. George at Velabro," as if Velabro were a town, the Church of S. Giorgio in Velabro (a well-known church in Rome) being meant, of course; "inferior columns," where those in a lower row are meant, page 51. A very serious mistranslation is that on page 51, in the rendering, "Cornices once intended to run vertically are now placed in horizontal position," whereas the author merely states that the builders of San Lorenzo were forced to combine mouldings of different profiles, and to set horizontally cornices which were made to follow the slope (or the curve) of the tympanums. The familiar words exarch and exarchate are printed uniformly as "esarch" and "esarchate"; and our old friend Robert Guiscard wears the strange guise of Guiscardo. These instances are given to show the way in which the translation has been done by grammar and dictionary without any attempt to solve the mystery of the author's true meaning; but one is so accustomed to this sort of work that it is only once in a while that it requires special mention.

Of the book itself, there is this to be said, that the boldness of the author in contradicting the assertions of other authors as to the epoch of this or that important building of Lombardy and Tuscany is probably well supported by his own trained insight into the significance of sculpture, mouldings, handiwork, and the like, but that the reader is not assured of this; while the decided contradiction remains as apparently unauthorized as the statements of Selvatico, Cordero, and Mothes, which Mr. Cattaneo vigorously rejects and ridicules. The student is probably far better off in the hands of our present author than in those of his predecessors. His instinct as to what thing in an important church dates from the original structure of the sixth or seventh century and what from the rebuilding in the eleventh century is presumably very trustworthy indeed. One would be unwilling to assert anything to the contrary, even in a special instance, without careful observation of the building in question, and without minute comparison of the points made by the different writers who have treated of it. But there is absolutely no evidence afforded except the occasional insertion in the text of a sufficiently careful drawing of a detail. Again we say that these details confirm what we profoundly believe, namely, that Mr. Cattaneo has sufficient reason for saying what he says, at the same time that the reasons for his decisions are not arrayed with any care, and that the reader is left to compare authority with autho-

rity, nearly sure which authority should prevail, but admitting all the time that there is a dispute of opinions without proof advanced. Even a full explanation of the author's reasons for his own conviction is generally lacking. This is the more to be regretted as there is seldom any documentary evidence which could be cited.

The analysis of Italian architecture under the successive influences brought to bear upon it by the work of the Byzantine empire is intelligible and interesting. The statements are to the effect that Italian art during the greater part of the 6th century and the whole of the 7th century was almost entirely barbarous, or that, indeed, there was no art in Italy during that long period. The author thinks, also, that the Lombard conquerors brought no art with them, and that the talk about their bringing life into the arts of Italy is wholly absurd. A new Byzantine influence he finds in the 8th century, but not very strong, and limited, probably, to a few towns. In the 9th and 10th centuries a good deal of native Italian art was brought into being in which the Byzantine influence was but slight. Finally, in the 10th century that splendid architecture which we know in Venice as embodied in her Byzantine palaces, and which our author calls "Neo-Byzantine," appears; and this is treated with great thoroughness.

The illustrations of the book are confined to the pictures of sculptured detail of which we have spoken already, and a few ground plans. There is not in the whole book a view of a part of an interior or part of an exterior except in two instances—Figs. 123 and 127—or of a group of columns, or of a considerable doorway or window. Capitals there are, most carefully and accurately drawn, baptismal fonts and well-curbs, and several *vere da pozzo*, a true Venetian thing, with a Venetian name, which the author Italianizes as *bocca da pozzo* and the translator calls "well kirb," "well ring," and "well head" in different places, though in Venice these are not attached to wells, but to cisterns only. If there are not large details or groups of details, still less are there general views of buildings given. The author seems to make but little of the constructional devices used, and does not date his buildings by their systems of building. In this, of course, he is right; or rather, he could not do otherwise in view of the fact that no great boldness of construction or novelty of design was shown during these sad years, and that building remained nearly in the infantile state in which the sixth century had left it. Nevertheless, the absence of any exhaustive treatment of buildings in their general grouping and arrangement, together with the lack of statements of his authority for his assertions, leaves Mr. Cattaneo's book less a final and satisfactory statement of the case than a valuable and suggestive treatise for the student to start from in his work.

My Reminiscences. By Luigi Arditi. Dodd, Mead & Co. Pp. 314.

To the public at large, Signor Arditi is known especially as the author of the famous vocal Kiss Waltz ("Il Bacio") and as Adelina Patti's perennial conductor. Owing to his services in the latter capacity, he is the best-known (though by no means the best) Italian conductor of the last half-century. The appendix to his memoirs gives a list of more than a hundred original compositions and arrangements from his pen. More remarkable are the lists of operas he has conducted and of the famous musicians he has known. The length of his career is illustrated by the fact that it was his privilege to conduct the first performances ever given in London of the "Flying Dutchman," "Faust," "Mignon," and "Hamlet," near one end of the list, and "Cavalleria Rusticana" and "Hänsel and Gretel" at the other end. He can print, in facsimile, personal letters from Rossini, Verdi, Gounod, Auber, and other eminent composers, singers, etc. It cannot be said that either these letters, or Signor Arditi's reminiscences, add anything of great importance to the treasures of musical history and biography, but they will make pleasant reading for those whose memories carry them back two or more decades.

Signor Arditi does not hesitate to insert a sentence like this: "The critics and papers accorded me very high praise on the occasion of my first professional visit to Russia, and the following extracts from the *Journal de St.-Pétersbourg* will serve to show the esteem in which they held me," etc.; yet the vanity which he shares with all musicians—mortal as well as immortal—is nowhere obtrusive. On the other hand, he does not balk at reprinting from the comic papers caricatures in which he figures, or telling a story at his own expense. Though he lived so many years in England and America, he did not feel sufficiently acquainted with the language to write his memoirs in English, leaving the task of translating them to the Baroness von Zedlitz. On one occasion his insufficient knowledge of the language gave rise to an amusing incident. The soprano who was to sing at a concert disappointed him at the last moment. Looking about, he saw in a box a young Russian lady, well known as a good singer, so he ran up stairs and begged her to help him out. She was willing enough to sing, but asked, "How can I? I am not dressed." He persuaded her to come, nevertheless, and when she had nodded assent he hurried on to the platform and announced to the astonished public: "Ladies and gentlemen, I am happy to say that although Mlle. de Lido has nothing on, she has kindly consented to sing in place of Miss X."

It is the anecdotes about famous singers that furnish the chief interest of Signor Arditi's book. He conducted operas for nearly all the great singers of the century, from Alboni to Lilli Lehmann, the list including Sontag, Grisi, Viardot, Mario, Minnie Hauk, Nilsson, Patti, Gerster, Sembrich, Campanini, etc. Of Nilsson he says: "Like all artists, Christine Nilsson suffered from 'nerves,' and I recollect that when she came to my house to go over her parts with me, she used, while singing, to tear the trimmings and laces off her skirts by continually fingering them." To a friend who once remarked on the shapely form and whiteness of her hands she replied: "Those hands, which you are good enough to admire, have done a lot of work in their time; for remember that they are peasant's hands and were made to handle the plough." Prima donnas are supposed to be all rivalry and envy, but when Nilsson sang *Mignon* for the first time at Baden-Baden she received a card from Viardot with these words: "Avec toute son admiration pour la délicieuse 'Mignon,'" and a note from Lucca saying, "You were sublime, and it gives me the greatest pleasure to tell you so." Arditi was an intimate friend of the Patti family, and knew Adelina from the time when, as a little girl, she astonished the world with her vocal cords, which seemed to have been so constructed that she could not sing otherwise than beautifully. Her temperament, from childhood, was that of an artist: "She could enter the room as bright as a ray of sunshine, all smiles and sweetness; but if any one had had the misfortune to ruffle the pretty brows or thwart my Lady Wilful, her dark eyes would flash, her tiny fist would contract with anger, and clouds would speedily gather across the surface of her laughing face and burst forth in torrents of tears almost as quickly as a flash of lightning." One time, when she was "angry with the whole house," she upset the inkstand on one of Arditi's manuscripts, and smiled roguishly as she saw the ink trickling slowly on to his landlady's carpet.

Perhaps the most interesting bit of information in Arditi's Memoirs is the statement that he sold his famous Kiss Waltz, together with three other compositions, for $250, and thought himself lucky to get that. The Paris publishlisher alone cleared $80,000 out of the French copyright on that song, and the manuscript was sold in London some years ago for $3,200.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Afialo, F. G. The Literary Year-Book. 1897. London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Alling-Aber, Mary R. An Experiment in Education. Harpers. $1.25.
Bacon's Essays. The Essays of Elia. Gulliver's Travels. Malory's Morte d'Arthur. Vols I. and II. Florio's Montaigne, Vol. I. [The Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. Each 50c.
Ball, Prof. R. S. Elements of Astronomy. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Capes, B. E. J. The Mill of Silence. Rand, McNally & Co.
Carey, Rosa N. Doctor Luttrell's First Patient. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.25.
Davis, R. H. Cuba in War Time. R. H. Russell. $1.25.
Dickens, Charles. Oliver Twist. Pickwick Papers. 2 vols. [Gadshill Edition.] Scribners. Each $1.50.
Educational Music Course. Third Reader; Fourth Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. Each 40c.
Farquhar, Anna. A Singer's Heart. Boston: Roberts Bros. $1.25.
Fleischmann, Prof. W. The Book of the Dairy. London: Blackie & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.
Gentry, T. S. Life and Immortality; or, Soul in Plants and Animals. Philadelphia: Burk & McFetridge Co. $2.50.
Gerard, Dorothea. A Spotless Reputation. Appletons. $1.
Harding, J. W. A Bachelor of Paris. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Harraden, Beatrice. Hilda Strafford: A California Story. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
In Golden Shackles. Dodd, Mead & Co., $1.25.
John Hopkins Morison: A Memoir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Jönsson-Rose, N. Lawns and Gardens: How to Plant and Beautify the Home Lot, the Pleasure-Ground, and Garden. Putnams. $3.50.
Keltie, J. S. The Statesman's Year-Book. 1897. Macmillan. $3.
Kingsley, Florence M. Paul, a Herald of the Cross. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Leahy, W. A. The Incendiary: A Story of Mystery. Rand, McNally & Co.
Leask, W. K. James Boswell. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 75c.
Life's Comedy. First Series. Scribners. $1.50.
Mahan, Capt. A. T. The Life of Nelson. 2 vols. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $8.
Marchbank, Agnes. Ruth Farmer. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.
Newman, Prof. A. H. A History of Anti-Pedo-Baptism. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. $2.
Nicholes, E. L., and Franklin, W. S. The Elements of Physics: A College Text-Book. Vol. III. Light and Sound. Macmillan. $1.50.
Palgrave, Francis T. Landscape in Poetry, from Homer to Tennyson. Macmillan. $2.
Palmer, W. Hazell's Annual. 1897. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Rees, Claude A. Chun Ti-Kung, His Life and Adventures. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Reinach, Salomon. Répertoire de la Statuaire Grecque et Romaine. Tome I. Paris: Leroux.
Selby-Bigge, L. A. British Moralists: Being Selections from Writers Principally of the Eighteenth Century. 2 vols. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Selfe, Rose E. Selections from the First Nine Books of the Croniche Fiorentine of Giovanni Villani. Translated for the Use of Students of Dante and Others. London: Constable; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Skinner C. M. Nature in a City Yard. The Century Co. $1.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol. V. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Titchener, E. B. An Outline of Psychology. Macmillan. $1.50.
Vanzile, E. S. Kings in Adversity. F. T. Neely.
Vincent, Frank. The Plant World; its Romances and Realities. Appletons. 60c.
Woodberry, Prof. G. E. Tennyson's Princess. Longmans, Green & Co. 60c.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 29, 1897.

The Week.

WE have been asked to state exactly what are the differences between the Dingley bill and the present (Wilson) tariff in regard to the duties on books. It will perhaps be helpful to include the McKinley tariff also in the comparison, and to begin with that, since it is the first of the three in point of time. The differences are found in the free list of the several measures, and are as follows:

M'KINLEY.	WILSON.	DINGLEY.
(1.) Books, etc., more than 20 years old, free.	(1.) Same, plus works of original scientific research.	(1.) 25 per cent.
(2.) Books, etc., in other languages than English, and books for the blind, free.	(2.) Same.	(2.) 25 per cent.
(3.) Books, etc., for colleges and societies, not exceeding two copies to each, free.	(3.) Same.	(3.) Free, except such as are made in the U. S.
(4.) Books as household and professional effects of persons returning from abroad, free.	(4.) Same.	(4.) 25 per cent., unless included in the $100 worth exempted for personal baggage.
(5.) Books for the use of the United States and Library of Congress, free.	(5.) Same.	(5.) Free.

Nothing illustrates the reactionary and mediæval character of the Dingley bill more strikingly than this tax on knowledge, which, according to the author of it, was adopted, not for revenue and not even for protection, but to save trouble for custom-house inspectors. Those hard-worked people can be required to count the number of threads in a square inch of cotton or linen cloth, and the number of tufts of bristles in a tooth-brush, to measure the "lines" of pearl buttons, to make intricate and prolonged chemical tests every day, in order to arrive at the dutiable value of a thousand different articles of commerce. No wonder they are tired, poor things! when they have made all these experiments, and have no strength left to tell whether a book is more than twenty years old, or whether it is printed in a foreign language, or whether it is imported for an educational institution, a public library, or a philosophical society.

Mr. Dingley has discovered that the blessings of a tariff cannot be felt before the bill becomes law, nor "even immediately afterwards." How long, then, have we to wait? At least a year after the passage of the bill—that is Mr. Dingley's present position. He sorrowfully points out that "practically a year's stock of goods will have been brought into the country from abroad before the tariff bill becomes a law." Prosperity cannot come until "time is given for the absorption of the enormous amounts of foreign goods now being forced upon the market." That time he fixes at a year or thereabouts after enactment. But when will enactment come? By July 1, Mr. Dingley "hopes." Granting that, what will Mr. Dingley have accomplished? Why, he himself told us in his report: "It is easy to see how a delay in the enactment of the bill to July 1, for example, would easily take from the Treasury $15,000,000 of revenue, and turn it into the pockets of speculators importing wool, sugar, etc." That looks like a slice of prosperity—for the speculators. But Mr. Dingley sings another tune at the end of April from the one he favored us with in the middle of March. Then the bill was to be law by May 1; now by July 1, he "hopes." But the better opinion is that August 1 will be an early date. It may be much later. With "prosperity" thus confessedly adjourned till August-October, 1898, what becomes of the congressional election in that year? What becomes of President McKinley's assertion that we can approach the problem of a high tariff "calmly and patriotically, without fearing its effect upon an early election"?

The intention of the opposition to the Republican party in Congress regarding the tariff bill is becoming perfectly clear. The Populist and Independent Silver Senators, who hold the balance of power in the upper branch, will help to make it as bad as possible, and then let it pass, for reasons thus stated by the Washington correspondent of the *American Wool and Cotton Reporter:*

"It may be said that recent events make it almost certain that a bill will pass. The Populist and Independent Silver Senators have practically made up their minds that a protective tariff policy shall be put in execution. Their theory is, that the policy will prove a failure, and that the country will turn in eager haste to their policy of free silver coinage in the next elections. They propose to permit a protective bill to go upon the statute books by withholding their votes from both sides upon the final vote on the bill, if it is apparent that the Republicans have a majority sufficient for passing the bill. Populist votes will be contributed in the necessary number if Republican votes are insufficient."

The Democrats will vote against the bill, but both Senator Jones of Arkansas and Representative Bailey of Texas, their leaders in the two branches, virtually admit the satisfaction with which they will view its passage from the political point of view. Not a few Republicans in Congress share the conviction of the whole opposition that the bill is certain to produce a tremendous reaction in the next elections, but they seem helpless to resist the current which is sweeping their party to destruction.

The Democratic members of the finance committee of the Senate will not agree to the proposition of their Republican colleagues to allow the tariff bill to be reported direct to the Senate without being discussed by the full committee. In this they are only doing the duty for which they were put on the committee. If a majority of a committee may prepare a bill in secret, and the minority then withdraw and agree that it shall be reported without their looking into it, or considering whether it is bad or good, or what sort of a measure they would themselves recommend, there is obviously no reason for their being on the committee at all. The true way would be for the party in control to make the committees consist only of its own members. The object of party representation on committees is not mere fairness, but that thorough preparation shall be made for debate. This is possible only if measures are properly canvassed by both sides in advance. What the Republicans propose is a very good preparation for "jamming through," not for debate. We do not, for our part, understand how any self-respecting member of a legislative body can agree to let the majority of a committee of which he is a member report a bill secretly prepared, and which he has had no opportunity to discuss in committee.

President McKinley's four appointments of New Yorkers last week illustrate perfectly his conception of executive duty in the filling of federal offices. For the most important post-office in the country he selects Cornelius Van Cott of this city; for Third Assistant Postmaster-General, John A. Merritt of Lockport; for Internal-Revenue Collector in the First District, Frank R. Moore of Brooklyn; and for Postmaster at Elmira, Melvin M. Conkling. Of these four, Van Cott, Merritt, and Conkling have always been faithful supporters of the Platt machine, and they were picked out for these offices by the "Government" of the State, the President of the United States merely recording the Senator's will; while Moore was pushed for the collectorship by the anti-Platt element and the "original McKinley men." Having bagged the two most important places, as well as the Elmira office, the Senator can afford to let his opponents have the unimportant collectorship, while the original McKinleyites secure as much recognition as they are entitled to by their proportional numbers. If one were to seek the man best qualified to make an efficient postmaster of the metropolis, Mr. Van Cott would not be chosen. He

is a thorough going spoilsman in theory, but happily he was prevented from putting his principles in practice during his first term, as he will also be again now, by the obstacles of the civil-service law.

The announcement that Bellamy Storer of Cincinnati is to be Minister to Belgium, instead of First Assistant Secretary of State, records the formal surrender of the appointing power by the President to the Senate. Mr. Storer aspired to the place in the State Department, for which he is excellently qualified; Secretary Sherman would have been glad to see him occupy it; Mr. McKinley himself earnestly desired to name him for that office. But the President had begun by notifying the Republican Senators that he would make no nomination to which a Senator from the State affected might object. Senator Foraker has been on bad terms with Mr. Storer, and served notice that he would not have him in the State Department. The President meekly yielded, but asked the dictator if he would object to giving Mr. Storer some other office. Mr. Foraker said that Mr. Storer might be sent out of the country with his permission, and he accordingly goes to Belgium. At the same time senatorial consent was given in advance to the nomination of a Canton neighbor of McKinley's, Mr. Day, to the place in the State Department. The practical significance of this selection is that the President will run the State Department through his next friend; Secretary Sherman being nothing more than a figurehead. The first assistant-secretaryship has been filled with distinction by Mr. Rockhill, who reached the position by deserved promotions. Mr. Day is not known to the country at large. He has twice been given a seat upon the bench, in the Common Pleas Court of Ohio and the United States District Court, and it is to be hoped that he has the judicial mind which our foreign relations so imperatively require just now.

The first intimation of any sort as to the policy of the Administration regarding Hawaii comes in the appointment of a Jingo and annexationist as United States Minister. Young Sewall showed himself unfit for responsibility by his conduct while Consul-General to the Samoan Islands; he is a shifty character, having changed from Democrat to Republican after Mr. Cleveland refused him an office in his second Administration; he is an ardent advocate of the policy of annexing Hawaii; and he is capable of making quite as much trouble as the other Maine man who tried to rush the islands into the Union under Harrison. However, new complications have arisen since that day, regarding the sugar question, which involve the pending tariff bill, the beet-sugar people in this country being now opposed to annexation as they are to reciprocity with Hawaii; and new influences may thus enter into the decision of the question now.

That the mission of Messrs. Wolcott, Paine, and Stevenson is destined to failure is sufficiently indicated by the London *Times*, which says that the fad of bimetallism rises and falls in England in inverse ratio with the state of trade. When business is good, people do not want bimetallism. When it is bad, they begin to complain about the currency. "Trade, happily, is good at present," it says, "and Mr. Wolcott will find sympathy with his views correspondingly languid." The prospect on the Continent is no better. It adds:

> "Neither France nor Germany, in spite of official coquettings with the bimetallist Agrarians, has any reason for discontent with her existing monetary system, nor is Russia, who quite recently established the gold standard, at all likely to entertain proposals for unsettling all that she has just deliberately settled. That the greatest commercial nation of the Far East has also established a gold standard is a fact by no means without importance in European calculations."

The *Times* concludes by saying that, at all events, President McKinley "will be able to point to its labors as redeeming his election promises, and to their failure as showing that if America wants free silver, she must procure it for herself at her own risk." That is just where the Bryanites will "come in." When the Wolcott-Paine-Stevenson Commission returns empty-handed, the Popocrats will exclaim with one accord: "We told you so—now give us 16 to 1 by independent action."

The personal financial motive for their support of the free-coinage movement has always been plain enough in the cases of the silver-mine owners who were so prominent in the campaign of last year. The recent failure of the Globe Savings Bank in Chicago is revealing an equally strong personal financial motive for desiring the monetary convulsion which the free-coinage policy would have precipitated, on the part of ex-Gov. Altgeld of Illinois, the chief advocate of Bryanism in the central West. It appears that Altgeld had borrowed heavily from the bank through his influence over Spalding, the man who controlled the institution and who finally wrecked it; and when it closed its doors, more than $32,000 due it, directly and indirectly, from the Governor had been charged up to profit and loss by the bank examiner. Altgeld is a man of so much ability that he is a dangerous demagogue, and it is therefore fortunate that his utter untrustworthiness should have been so conclusively demonstrated. The scandal of his connection with the ruin of this savings-bank is something from which he can hardly recover.

When it was announced last November that McKinley had received nearly 300,000 more votes than Bryan in Pennsylvania, the idea that the State might be doubtful in the election a year later would have seemed too absurd for consideration. Yet one Republican newspaper after another is now serving notice that if the Legislature goes on to the end in the way that it has pursued thus far—and everybody expects that it will—the party may be beaten in the contest over the State treasurership next fall. The Republicans have twice in State conventions explicitly promised radical reform measures, and public sentiment is especially set upon one such measure for the payment of interest on State deposits in the banks. At present, millions of dollars are placed in favored banks which pay nothing for the privilege, while $120,000 a year ought to be received. A feint has been made of introducing and pushing bills to reform this abuse, but things have already been so arranged that these bills will fail. The most encouraging feature of the situation is a report that the Republican Business Men's League may nominate an independent candidate for State Treasurer on the platform of interest on State deposits, with the expectation of thus defeating the Quay nominee and electing a Democrat.

The distinguishing characteristic of the Legislature which finished its work at Albany on Saturday was its open hostility to the Constitution of the State. Its chief acts were aimed directly at the spirit, if not the letter, of the Constitution, for purposes of destruction. Nearly every previous Legislature, no matter how bad its general character, has done a few things which were in the public interest, some of them conspicuously so. It is impossible to find any measure of large importance in the list of new laws left by the present body of which this can be said. The decent public opinion of the State has been disregarded more completely than ever before; not only have its demands passed unheeded, but its protests have been overridden with defiant contempt. The most conspicuous acts passed were the charter for Greater New York, the civil-service looting bill, and the Raines liquor-law amendments. In the consideration and passage of these both local public sentiment and the Constitution were defied. When the new Constitution was placed before the people for adoption in 1894, no two provisions of it received more cordial approval than those relating to home rule for cities and civil-service reform. The convention which drafted it had a large Republican majority, and the instrument was recommended to the people by that majority in a formal address, explaining its provisions. The Republican platform of that year commended it, and so did Republican organizations generally. The provision which required the submission to

mayors of all legislation affecting their cities was regarded as one of the most important recognitions of the home-rule idea for cities that had ever been embedded in the fundamental law. That on civil-service reform was dwelt upon in the address of the Republican members of the convention as a most valuable step in the direction of the extension of the competitive system to the entire service of the State. Yet a Republican Legislature has done its utmost to destroy both provisions.

Gov. Black has consented to give the opponents of his civil service looting bill a hearing before he signs it, and we have no doubt that they will make the most of the opportunity. That he intends to sign it in the end, there is little doubt, for he is the author of it, and its passage through the Legislature was due entirely to the pressure which he exerted personally in its support. He differs from the other members of the Platt party in being willing to pay a little attention to the respectable elements of the population. Platt, Payn, Raines, and their kind do not consider it necessary longer even to "pander a little to the moral sense of the community." They ignore it entirely, believing that they can keep in power in spite of its opposition. The Governor's way is to listen to it politely and disregard its opinions and requests. This method of procedure must fill the "tried and true" Platt men with disgust, but, so long as the Governor does their work in the end, they are probably content.

The New York Senate passed last week the Dudley inheritance-tax bill, which had already passed the Assembly. This bill provides, in substance, that whenever there is an inheritance tax of 5 per cent. and the value of the estate exceeds $500,000, an additional tax shall be imposed on the entire personal estate so taxable, at the accumulating rate of 1 per cent. for each additional $250,000, except that if the entire estate exceeds $3,000,000, it shall be subject to taxation only at the aggregate rate of 15 per cent.; and that if the tax is 1 per cent., and the estate exceeds $1,000,000, an additional tax shall be imposed on the entire personal estate so taxable at the accumulating rate of one-half of 1 per cent. for each additional $250,000 or major fraction thereof up to $2,500,000, and 1 per cent. on the entire personal estate for each additional $250,000 or major fraction thereof above $2,500,000, except that if the entire estate exceeds $4,000,000, it shall be subject to taxation under this section only at the aggregate rate of 10 per cent. A well-known man, supposed all his life to be very rich, died in New York the other day, and it appeared that his estate amounted to only $1,000. There may, of course, be no connection between the fact and the pendency of this bill.

What is wanted most of all in the Police Board at this time is a man with such intimate knowledge of police administration, such intimate knowledge of Commissioner Parker's peculiarities and performances, and such integrity of character that he cannot be either cajoled or deluded into allowing Parker's schemes for turning the Police Department over to the control of the Platt-Lauterbach machine to succeed. That Mr. Moss, Mayor Strong's appointee to succeed Mr. Roosevelt, has all these qualifications, is admitted by everybody. Lauterbach admits it, and so does Platt's personal organ, and so do all the other open and secret opponents of real police reform, both in and out of the press. They all bewail the fatuity of the Mayor in making an appointment which destroys all hope of "harmony" in the Police Board. What would harmony in the board mean now? Simply union in favor of rascally administration. No honest man can be harmonious with Parker and Grant. They have been for months conspiring to thwart the efforts of Messrs. Roosevelt and Andrews to remove the police force permanently from the reach of partisan politics of all kinds. Nothing but the "crankiness" and "impracticability" of Roosevelt and Andrews has prevented their success. When Roosevelt went out, they stood two to one in favor of success, and they immediately endeavored to grasp it by trying to get possession of the presidency of the board by a trick. The honesty of their own chief clerk alone defeated them. Mr. Moss's appointment puts a permanent bar to success in that direction hereafter.

Ever since the system of prohibition in Iowa was so modified as to permit the sale of liquor under the so-called mulct law, where a petition is signed by 50 per cent. of the voters in cities and 65 per cent. in counties, the State has presented the anomalous spectacle of allowing a thing to be sold the manufacture of which was forbidden. The absurdity of outlawing breweries and distilleries in Iowa while permitting the admission of their products from other States was sufficiently obvious, but it has taken years of agitation to put an end to it. At last the Legislature has passed a law allowing manufacture under certain conditions, the measure barely squeezing through the upper branch by the votes of the seven Democrats and nineteen of the Republicans, while twenty-four of the dominant party stood out against it. The petition feature of the mulct law is maintained, and 50 or 65 per cent. of the voters, as the case may be, must sign a request for the establishment of the business before it can be established. There are all sorts of peculiarities about liquor legislation in Iowa. While the mulct law allows the sale in a city of over 5,000 inhabitants without regard to the sentiment of the county at large, a city of less than 5,000 people has been unable to legalize it unless 65 per cent. of all the voters in the county petition for it. An amendment has just been adopted which is aimed at this inconsistency, but which still falls far short of introducing majority rule; it allows the sale in any town of from 2,500 to 5,000 people, without regard to the rest of the county, but requires a petition signed by 80 per cent. of the voters in the town.

The ratification of the treaty between Mexico and England fixing the boundaries of the British possession of Belize has been strangely overlooked by our most sensitive and jealous patriots. The treaty actually gives England a few more roods of sacred American soil than she had been occupying. Merely to state this horrible fact should be enough. What would Monroe say to this? What does Morgan say? What Lodge? It is the latter, in fact, bettering Monroe, whose own pet doctrine is flagrantly violated. When the Venezuela wrangle was pending, President Cleveland was weak enough to admit that if Venezuela would amicably agree to give up to England a part of the territory in dispute, we should have nothing more to say. Lodge sternly interposed. This was a fatal yielding of the true principle, which was, that not a foot of American soil (whether swamp or sand-bank) should be given to a European Power, whether its owner wanted to give it or not. We simply could not permit it in our sovereign Pan-Americanism. That is the Lodge Doctrine which Mexico has now openly flouted.

The military operations on the Thessalian border during the week have ended in something like a débâcle for the Greeks, who have been driven out of Tyrnavos and Larissa, and have fallen back on Pharsalos, leaving Volo uncovered except by the fleet. In Epirus nothing seems to have been achieved except the unchaining of Albanian mutineers to terrorize the whole community, while the destructive descent of the Greek war-ships on the coast of the Gulf of Salonica has not in the least embarrassed Edhem Pasha's command or checked his steady and victorious advance. The Greek Government has been forced to change its commanders under fire. Athens is in a state of excitement which bodes ill to the dynasty, whose choice lay between succumbing to the mob before or after a duel with Turkey. The Providence which has saved Italy in similar straits seems wanting to Greece, and her only assurance is that the frontier fruitlessly defended and now overrun will not be permanently pushed southward, the Powers in concert having already declared their intention to maintain the territorial *status quo*, whatever the fortune of war. For the rest, Delyannis's light-heartedness appears destined to reap the same harvest as Ollivier's.

THE REFORM CLUB DINNER.

THE speeches made by the Gold Democrats on Saturday evening differed from ordinary political speeches in one vital respect—that what was said was all true. This was the reason, apart from the inherent merits of the speeches themselves, which were very great, why they were received with such spontaneous applause. Every one who listened to them knew that the speakers were not bidding for office, not providing clap-trap and buncombe for popular consumption, nor doing anything but stating in plain language their real convictions about public affairs. The force of what was said was increased by the fact that these convictions were both deep and of long standing, and that the men who announced their determination to stand by them had sustained within six months, without flinching, the most tremendous defeat recorded in the history of American parties. The cheers which greeted what they said were cheers which meant that the language of truth, resolution, and courage was refreshing and inspiriting to ears wearied with party jargon and lies. Even Luther's old words, with which Mr. Cleveland concluded his speech, "Here we stand. We cannot do otherwise," did not seem forced or out of place.

When we examine what was said at the dinner we find plenty of proof that the real Democrats fully understand the situation in which they are placed, and that they are prepared to take and are now taking those steps by which alone they can recover the control of the following led away by Bryan, and also attract to their support—for this is equally essential—the independent vote which for twelve years supported Mr. Cleveland, and which by the extraordinary events of last summer was driven into a wholly unnatural alliance with protection. These steps are, in sum and substance, the creation of an active opposition to the party now in control, not merely out of Congress, where "organization," however thorough, can have effect only upon elections many months away, but in the Senate itself, where the battle is now going on, and where alone can either a sound-currency system make its way into law, or the protective system be broken up or at least exposed to public execration. Hitherto, since the present Congress convened, the difficulty of those who, like ourselves, have desired to support the ideas of the Indianapolis convention, has been that there have been no public men in Congress standing by them. An opposition, to be effective, must not merely declare its principles; it must fight for them, compel their debate, enlist popular support. No better opportunity could possibly be afforded than by the pending tariff. On the showing of its own advocates the tariff is not needed; it is imperilling all business, and arousing the most violent opposition among the manufacturers and exporters. Yet in the House nobody appeared to lead the Democrats but a semi-Populist whose most important political act, to judge by the amount of space devoted to it in the press, was his refusal to wear a dress-coat at the White House, and who openly advised his followers to let the tariff go through, because it would bring them into power again. We doubt if, in the long history of the struggle for freedom of trade, such a thing was ever heard before. It must be remembered that those who attack protection, can never acquiesce in a protective tariff without deserting those whom they have promised to defend from injustice. That a man undertaking to lead revenue reformers should welcome a protective tariff because it was so bad, would be laughable were it not shocking. As Mr. Shepard said on Saturday, the most serious thing we have to contend with is "the profound contempt with which official and political life has come to regard public sentiment."

There are signs, and this Reform Club dinner is one, that in the Senate this paralysis will disappear, and that some men will show the country the difference between a mob and a party. Senator Caffery's speech, one of the best made at the dinner, was that of a man who thoroughly understood the situation, and had no sympathy with a do-nothing policy. What he said about the possibility of dividing the Republicans was both true and important: "There are some Republicans who do not believe in erecting the 'Chinese wall' so high as both to keep out foreign imports and to keep in domestic manufactures. These forces ought to, and may, unite with Gold Democrats for the weal of a common country, whose prosperity lies so close to their hearts." This foreshadows, no doubt, the plan of bringing forward a genuine revenue bill, and offering it as a substitute for the Dingley measure. "You say you want $50,000,000 or $60,000,000 revenue, and offer us a measure which will upset half the established business of the country, that you may pay your political debts. We offer you a revenue measure with taxes laid on half-a-dozen articles. Everybody knows that it is feasible. What have you got to say?" Can any one doubt that opposition of this sort would win support both in and outside Congress?

Secretary Carlisle, in his speech, gave the new project for international bimetallism a solid and settling blow. What he said was that the plan for a new conference had no chance of succeeding, and that it would be a bad thing if it did succeed. It was an attempt to make two things equal to each other by law when they were not equal in fact; and this, he said, could not be done by any group of nations, however strong financially, or however numerous. This belief has not, so far as we have observed, been avowed in any political speech before. It has been the private possession of doctrinaires in this country. There has been a universal consensus among politicians that in order to make 50 cents equal to a dollar it was only necessary to get England, France, and Germany to unite with us in calling them equal. Mr. Carlisle has now repudiated that notion in vigorous terms.

THE TREASURY ORDER.

THE debate in the Senate on the Treasury order instructing collectors to delay "liquidations" of goods imported after April 1 was a curiosity in its way. We do not mean that it brought forward any new arguments, for what was said on both sides had been said already outside the Senate; but because it was, we believe, the first recorded debate of its kind in the history of the world—the first debate on the question of the legality of an order issued by the Executive of a free government, managed under representative forms, designed to fasten a lien upon all goods entering the country, and taxed under an existing tariff, for the purpose of making them subject to an additional tax to any amount that the Legislature may at any future time impose. It cannot too often be repeated that this is what the retroactive scheme means. People are confused about it, because they think that the scheme does nothing but make the Dingley duties, so called, retroactive. This is a total mistake. There are no Dingley duties. The Dingley bill is of no more force and effect in the United States until it becomes a law than any one of the two thousand other bills introduced into Congress and not yet passed. The scheme is based on the proposition that Congress may at any future time levy additional duties on goods which have come into the country and been once taxed already in accordance with existing law.

The brand now fastened upon imported goods by the red ink of the Treasury, and by retention of the samples for identification, cannot be obliterated. The present Dingley bill may never pass; the regular session of Congress may begin next December with a new Dingley bill with a new retroactive clause, and that bill may in its turn be defeated; or the present clause may be struck out by the Senate, and the bill passed without it. No matter what is done, the operations under the Treasury order will remain for ever as notice to the world of a claim of the right to increase the taxes on goods already taxed, when and to what extent Congress pleases. For there is no limit of any sort, either in time or in amount of tax. The second tax may be laid on two months or two years hence; the retroactive duty may be prohibitive, though the article is now absolutely free. In the case of such goods, of course, the execution of the scheme would be tantamount to confiscation.

That such a scheme should not only be

broached, but be actually put, so far as possible, into operation, is an entirely new thing. France and Germany have developed elaborate protective systems, but they never thought of it. It never occurred to the English protectionists under Pitt or Peel, and, so far as we know, nobody in Asia, Africa, or what the politicians call "the isles of the sea" ever dreamed of it. It is the contribution of Dingley and Grosvenor to the science of taxation, and therefore, as we say, a debate on it is a memorable and important event.

The first thing to be noticed about the debate is that Mr. Morrill, who conducted it on the Republican side, did not bring forward a scintilla of proof that the scheme was legal. But he did offer one contribution of real value to the discussion. He said that the only thing he regretted about the Dingley bill was that it was not "sufficiently retroactive," because it did not go back to 1894, and "cover not only this tariff bill, but the law which has been in operation for the last three years"; that is, that it did not threaten retroactive duties on articles imported three years ago. He did not fail, of course, to suggest that the retroactive clause would be struck out of the bill by the Senate, but as a mere matter of favor; notice that the Government adheres to the principle of retroactive duties has been given through the Treasury order. So far as the executive department of the Government can go, it has adopted the principle, and whether the Senate strikes out the House clause does not affect this fact at all. Indeed, Mr. Gage may well contend, when asked how he can issue an illegal order, that there is nothing illegal in it if the principle of retroactive duties is sound. Not only this, but he might go further, and contend that, if sound, there ought to be such an order permanently in force. A country which adopts the retroactive principle should in fairness notify all the world of it, and keep them notified. Viewed in this light the Treasury order is nothing more than an act of kindness to the importer, for it says in effect: "The authorities who have just passed a tariff through the House maintain that hereafter any goods passing through the custom-house may be taxed additionally, wherever they may be found; it is only fair to let you know in advance that importing is a dangerous business. All attempts to pay duties hereafter will be 'tentative,' and if you ask me how much you will finally have to pay, all I can say is that I don't know." To make the scheme complete, there might be a permanent order, and a permanent retroactive statute, under which a board, or perhaps the President, should levy retroactive taxes from time to time on previous imports at such figures as they might deem advisable.

We have little doubt that if the protectionists had a tremendous majority in the Senate, as they have in the House, the temper of legislation is such that they would jam through the retroactive clause. Importers are paying little attention to it, because its very monstrosity prevents the possibility of its getting through an evenly divided Senate. But it is the ripe fruit of protection, and when we hear an old man like Mr. Morrill, very near his last breath, sighing that he cannot make the country pluck and eat it, we see in a curious way how the long practice of protection distorts the mind and blunts the conscience.

THE CIVIL-SERVICE DECISION.

THE facts in the civil-service case just decided by the New York Court of Appeals were the following: In 1895 eleven appointments were made to various positions in the Brooklyn civil service without competitive examination. At the time of their appointment, the new Constitution, requiring that appointments and promotions in the civil service of the State, or civil divisions of it including cities and villages, shall be made "according to merit and fitness, to be ascertained, so far as practicable, by examinations, which, so far as practicable, shall be competitive; . . . laws shall be made to provide for the enforcement of this section" (Const., N. Y., art. 5, s. 9), had gone into effect. The civil-service system established by statute at the time of the adoption of this amendment in the State and in the cities was based on the principle (the same as that of the federal service) that all offices were to be classified as competitive or non-competitive, and that, within the limits of the classified service, all heads of departments must make appointments from those certified as having passed the competitive examinations established by the various civil-service boards. In cities, the mayors were to classify. "Confidential" positions were excluded from competition on the ground that it was in the nature of things impossible to subject candidates for them to a competitive test, and in Brooklyn Mr. Seth Low when mayor had made the class known as Schedule A a non-competitive class. The mayors who succeeded him, Messrs. Schieren and Wurster, the present incumbent, made some changes, the result of which was that the eleven appointments involved in the case came under this head. The present action was brought by taxpayers of Brooklyn on the ground that the eleven appointees were illegally appointed without competitive examination, whereas such an examination would have been "practicable," and was therefore required by the Constitution and the statute. An injunction was asked to restrain the payment of salaries.

The Court of Appeals holds that the whole civil-service system—the appointment of the examiners, the method of examination, and the determination of qualifications of the applicants—is left entirely to the Legislature. "As to the machinery necessary for the conducting of a competitive examination, its execution to that extent is dependent upon the statute." The court says, apparently to make all this plain, that if an executive officer should now undertake to hold examinations on his own account it would "nullify the civil-service law," leaving it to be inferred that by a new statute precisely this system might be introduced.

The court also holds that the only question before it is whether the Brooklyn classification is legal, and this question turns wholly on whether it was "practicable" to have applied the competitive system to the eleven appointees. Under these circumstances it might have been supposed that the court would then proceed to inquire into the duties of the eleven appointees, and to decide in each case whether a competitive examination would have been practicable. But, while laying it down as a general rule that where the duties of the position are not merely clerical, but "such as especially devolved upon the head of the office, which, by reason of his numerous duties, he was compelled to delegate to others, the performance of which required skill, judgment, trust, and confidence, and involved the responsibility of the officers of the municipality," the position must be treated as confidential, and consequently non-competitive, the court has carefully avoided determining "the respective claims of the eleven appointees." On the contrary, the court says in substance: The mayor has determined this question, and we shall not review his action. It must be assumed, until the contrary appears, that when he says a position is confidential and that it is not practicable to bring it within the competitive class, his classification is correct. If the mayor acts improperly, he may be compelled by direct proceedings, as by mandamus, and perhaps certiorari, to classify properly. In all this the court reversed the decision below, which was that it was "practicable" to apply a competitive examination, and that therefore the appointments were wholly illegal.

The upshot of the decision is, in the first place, that the courts cannot any longer be relied upon to enforce the constitutional amendment for us. The view taken by all the best judges of both political parties in the courts below and in the Court of Appeals itself has been brushed aside by a party majority of one, and we are told that hereafter the classification of offices as competitive or non-competitive made by mayors or governors is final, unless we can show at the end of a litigation that they are wrong; in which case the classification, and probably the litigation, will begin over again. This is a very different thing from a summary process to prevent an officer wrongly appointed without competition from acting.

In the second place, the court has gone

out of its way to declare that the Legislature has complete control of the one vital matter, the machinery of the examinations. A competitive civil service rests entirely on the system by which the appointment is vested in the mayor, Governor, or head of department, while the examinations are conducted by persons not controlled by him. All other machinery is a sham. To do away with this system and introduce other machinery—a pass system, or a hocus-pocus of competition under the control of the person who appoints—is the object of the present attack by the enemies of the system. The decision of the Court of Appeals will greatly raise their hopes, for it says, in words that might almost have been dictated by the Governor, the "starch" in "civil service" is in the statute, not in the Constitution; take it out of that, and you can do what you like.

In achieving this triumph, the enemies of civil-service reform have had to get an apparently partisan construction of the Constitution, unsupported by the weight of judicial authority. Judges Haight, Bartlett, Martin, and Vann, all Republicans, have overruled Judges Gray, Andrews, and O'Brien, and all the Judges of the Appellate Division, as well as the trial Judge, on a point so simple that a child can understand it, and which may be thus stated: When the Constitution says that no man shall be appointed to office except by competition, if competition is "practicable," the courts, and not the Legislature, or the Governor, or the mayors are to decide whether it is practicable, in view of the duties which the officer has to perform. No doubt the Judges who held this would also hold that the competition must be genuine, and not a sham. Now the enemies of the reform have got a construction which enables mayors and Legislature and Governor to make a sham of the whole thing. The people of this State have too much at stake in the matter to permit them to let it rest here.

A NEW EXPERIMENT IN SOCIALISM.

A RECENT number of the *Réforme Sociale* contains an instructive and entertaining account of an experiment in coöperation made by Belgian socialists. This enterprise is carried on at Ghent under the title *Vooruit* (forward), and is described by its leader, Edward Anseele, as "a citadel, established by the Socialists, whence they bombard the bourgeois class with bread and butter and potatoes." The plan of the enterprise was first conceived by two members of the "International," who had found it desirable to absent themselves for a time from their own country, and who had learned the importance of maintaining the socialistic propaganda by more practical agencies than debating clubs. They saw many coöperative societies in existence among workmen, and the idea occurred to them that if they could capture some of these, the dissemination of socialistic theories might be greatly facilitated. After two or three failures they finally succeeded, not, indeed, in capturing a coöperative bakery, but in splitting its membership, and, with a seceding element numbering 150, they began operations as a professedly socialistic business concern.

As a business enterprise the society has achieved great success. M. Anseele is evidently a man of much capacity, and he has adopted precisely the methods which have been developed in this country by the "department stores," together with some of those attributed to our industrial monopolies. Instead of advertising in hostile sheets, he has his own daily socialistic newspaper. He maintains a café, on whose walls appears the appropriate motto, "The stomach of the laboring man is the savings bank of society." A pharmacy has been established, and followed by two others. More recent additions are a shoe-shop, a coal-yard, and, finally, a grand store on the department plan, adorned with medallions of Marx, Fourier, and Owen. For a sign there is inscribed on the front of this building, "The union of the workingmen is the peace of the world," and above it floats the red flag. A still later addition is a large hall for festive purposes. Meanwhile the membership has grown within the last ten years from 2,342 to 5,911. Nor has the original business languished, the number of loaves of bread baked having increased from 1,500,000 to 4,500,000. The total of receipts is now nearly 2,000,000 francs yearly, and, after applying over 18 per cent. in dividends to members, a surplus of about 4 per cent. is carried forward.

As a socialistic enterprise, however, it cannot be said that this society is successful. It is simply a coöperative department store and manufactory, with some ornamental additions. It violates the fundamental principle of socialism by adopting the present wages system in paying its employees. They do not share in the profits unless they become members—which, indeed, they seem to be under some compulsion to do. It violates the principle of the "truck" acts, by requiring its workmen to buy their bread at its bakery, and it exacts more than eight hours' work a day in several of its departments. It pays good wages, but this is partly due to the fact that payment by the piece is to some extent adopted. Severe penalties for bad workmanship are also imposed. So far as the workmen are concerned, therefore, they seem to be as much victims of the capitalistic régime as if their employers did not belong to the Socialistic party.

The despotic tendencies of socialism, however, are very well illustrated in the case of the members of this society. M. Anseele is practically an autocrat. There is a board of five directors elected for five years, one retiring annually, which is nominally supreme, but really dominated by the manager. Any workman sound in the faith of socialism may become a member by paying a small fee. When he becomes a member he is obliged to buy every week a certain number of bread-tickets, paying for them in cash, at the market price, and receiving a daily supply of bread. There is a dividend or rebate, not paid in cash, but in "store orders." So on other purchases a discount is allowed, but it is always to be "taken out in trade." There is an obligatory subscription to the fund for providing medical assistance, which entitles the subscriber to such aid, as well as to a certain number of loaves of bread, in case of illness. There seems to be no way of withdrawing from the enterprise except by abandoning what has been invested in it, and all profits made in it must be reinvested. Such an enterprise can hardly fail to succeed under competent management, or to collapse if badly administered. Hitherto the management has been able, and the operating expenses have been low. M. Anseele is contented with power, and does not demand the pecuniary value of his services.

The great increase of membership, however, is largely due to the fact that the society is really a branch of the Socialistic party in Ghent. To belong to it is an evidence of fidelity to the party; to keep out of it indicates lukewarmness, if not treachery. M. Anseele has recently become active in political life, and it is not improbable that the business of *Vooruit* will suffer for it. We are struggling in this country to make municipal administration a business matter; the Socialists of Ghent are introducing partisanship into baking bread and selling groceries. They are treading a well-worn path, and if they proceed they will add another lesson to those already furnished by experience concerning the wisdom of not conducting business affairs under the influence of party spirit.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY'S MEETING.

BALTIMORE, April 24, 1897.

FOR this, its one hundred and eighth meeting, the Society is the guest of the Johns Hopkins University. The President of the University, Mr. Gilman, is also our presiding officer, the worthy successor, by virtue of long and varied service, of John Pickering (our founder), of Edward Robinson, Salisbury, Woolsey, Hadley, S. Wells Williams, and Whitney—surely a line of notable incumbents. For our tourneys—grammatical, antiquarian, historical, literary, text-critical, and what not—the home team consisted of Profs. Bloomfield, Haupt, and Bright, led on by Prof. Gildersleeve, whose name has stood upon our lists for forty years save one, and next to that of Mr. Gilman, in alphabetic and other harmony, as is most meet. The University of Pennsylvania sent us Prof. Jastrow. From Columbia came Gottheil and Jackson. Yale was represented by Oertel and Sanders in person; while Hopkins, not yet returned from India, sent us papers. Toy and Lanman came from Harvard; Price from Chicago; Moore from Andover. Of especial interest was the part taken by the Catholic University of America, which was most ably represented by the Rev. Prof. Hyvernat of Washington. And it is highly significant that the museums were not without their delegates—Adler of the United States National, and Arnold of the Metropolitan. The unity of purpose of museum, public library, and of university is fast coming to practical recognition.

The meeting began on Thursday and continued till to day; but on Wednesday evening, by way of preparative, the committee appointed to promote the Historical Study of Religions held its session, and took steps for organizing within the Oriental Society a section for the Study of Religions. This organization was effected in due course on Friday, with Prof. Jastrow as Secretary. In like manner a Classical Section existed from 1849–91 under Beck, Hadley, and Goodwin, until the flourishing Philological Association caused it to lapse into happy desuetude. A like result is to be hoped for in case of the Religions Section. In this connection it may be an-

nounced that the services of Canon Cheyne of Oxford have been secured for 1897–98, for the third series of American lectures on the History of Religions (the first was the course upon Buddhism given by Rhys Davids of London), and that Prof. Budde of Strassburg is to give the series of the winter of 1898–99. These discourses are held in the principal cities of the Atlantic seaboard.

The business session was set for Friday morning, and began with the presentation of correspondence, by Prof. Lanman. From this, one or two items may be mentioned. Dr. Sergius Oldenburg of St. Petersburg writes that Petrofsky, the Russian Consul-General in Kash gar, has brought back two birch-bark manuscripts in Kharoshthi characters, by far the oldest Indian manuscripts known. Oldenburg believes that they are to be referred to the first century before or after Christ. He is going to publish complete facsimiles of both manuscripts, and hopes to have them ready for the International Congress at Paris next autumn. He has also begun a Buddhistic series of publications, which promises to be of great value. Among the works undertaken is the 'Abhidharma Kosha Vyakhya,' whose importance has been recognized since the days of Eugene Burnouf. Dr. Stein writes from his camp, Mohand Marg, in the Himalayas of Kashmir. He had been commissioned by the Kashmir Durbar to translate into English the history of Kashmir, which had been edited by him in Sanskrit. He is the hard-worked principal of the Government Oriental College at Lahore, and says: "In order to work undisturbed, I came straight up to this plateau, some 11,000 feet above the sea, where I have not seen a white face for the last three months. In this delightful Alpine solitude I could work all day long without feeling tired; and thus had two days ago the satisfaction of getting to the end of my task." The history is to be published by Constable & Co. in London.

The Society has sustained serious losses by death during the year, but none that will be more directly and keenly felt than that of Prof. Isaac H. Hall of the Metropolitan Museum of Art. He was a man of remarkable attainments in Greek, especially New Testament Greek, in Syriac, and in the subject of Cypriote inscriptions and antiquities. His capacity for work, his conscientiousness and accuracy, were marvellous. The late Prof. Josiah D. Whitney, the eminent geologist of Harvard, had been a constant and sympathizing helper of the Society since 1857. Dr. Oliver Crane, who died last winter, was formerly a missionary at Aintab and Aleppo. In three separate and quite recent instances, the widow or the sister of a deceased member has expressed the wish to continue that member's subscriptions. The coincidence is curious and pleasantly significant.

The fact of most importance in the business chronicles of the Society is doubtless the new departure in the publication of the *Journal*, which was ordered by the directors a year ago. Since then it has been issued promptly as a periodical, in well-bound volumes of about two hundred pages each, under the editorship of Profs. Lanman and Moore. The report of the treasurer, Mr. Warren of Cambridge, showed that our expenditures are now very considerably beyond our income. To the end, however, that the new experiment might be fairly tried, the directors ordered that no change in the manner of issue be made for the coming year. Nearly forty promising new members were added to our list. Prof. Haupt was authorized to attempt to make better publishing arrangements for the *Journal* in Europe, and several of our administrative officers are to undertake to raise a moderate publication fund, and are sanguine in their hope of success. No changes of note were made in the board of officers, except that President Harper of the University of Chicago and Prof. Francis Brown of Union Theological Seminary were elected to fill a couple of vacancies on the board of directors. The name of Prof. Lanman, at his request, was dropped from the board of editors, thus leaving Prof. Moore of Andover to carry on alone the work of that board.

In accordance with a vote of the Society, a memorial was prepared to be presented to the finance committee of the Senate and to the Speaker of the House, urging that the classifications and duties which concern books in foreign languages and works of art be permitted to remain unchanged as they are in the present tariff law.

Over fifty papers were presented, and they were of surprising variety and interest. Perhaps the one fact which is most full of hope and encouragement for the future of the Society is this, that the young men, the pupils of those who are now bearing the burden and heat of the day, are coming forward with real and valuable contributions to knowledge. If the purpose of the University is not to teach facts, but rather to train men *to do*, then certainly here is evidence that that purpose is being measurably attained. Among the papers of the older men, criticism of the Bible held an important place. I wish that the flippant critics of the results of the "higher criticism" could see the way in which those results are obtained, the reverent attitude of mind, the absolute fairness of judgment and temper with which truth is sought, without preconceived opinion. Prof. Hyvernat's discourse on the Coptic versions of the Bible made it plain that we may associate light with Egypt, and not darkness only. Mr. Grimm presented the results of a most interesting study of a class of tags or additions to the Psalms, which occur especially in Psalms whose ending originally contained some expression of bad omen. A striking example of this is seen in the twenty-second verse of the thirty-fourth Psalm. Prof. Haupt naturally had a number of chips from his busy workshop, where the publication of the Polychrome Bible is now in progress. Such was his essay upon the amplificative plural in Hebrew, wherein he established a principle by which many familiar passages may be made to yield far better sense. His colleague, Prof. Bloomfield, presented an essay upon the 'Gopatha Brahmana,' which evidently grew out of his studies upon the literature of the 'Atharva Veda.' His stately volume containing translations from that Veda, and forming a part of Max Müller's 'Sacred Books of the East,' was laid before the Society by President Gilman. Dr. Reisner of Harvard is now at work publishing a second volume of the Assyrian inscriptions of the Museum at Berlin, under a commission of the authorities of that Museum. As an incidental result of these labors, he presented a paper upon the old Babylonian system of weights and measures, the preliminary publication of which, by the Berlin Academy, has already elicited most favorable comment from the highest authorities. Prof. Hopkins sends us a paper to prove that the bulk of the Hymns of the 'Rig-Veda' originated in the district that lies south of Amballa. His arguments are based upon travel and observation and upon the interpretation of the ancient books.

Prof. Jackson presented interesting notes upon play within play (as in "Hamlet") in the Sanskrit drama, and an elaborate essay on the Archangels in Zoroastrianism. Prof. Oertel brought out some results of his studies in the Brahmana literature, to which he has long been devoted. Prof. Bloomfield's pupil, Mr. Ness, gave orally a creditable contribution to the exegesis of the Vedas; and Mr. Lovejoy, a pupil of Prof. Lanman, sent on an able discussion of several fundamental points in Buddhist philosophy which have recently engaged the attention of leading Buddhist scholars, especially Mr. Warren of Cambridge and M. Senart of the French Academy.

The value of organization appeared in the action of the Society in the matter of a proposed catalogue of Egyptian papyri and monuments in this country, undertaken, at the instance of the Department of State, on behalf of the Egyptian Government; and again, also, in Prof. Gottheil's report of substantial progress in the work of cataloguing the Oriental manuscripts in America. Most of the papers were of course too technical for mention here; a notable exception was Prof. Henry Preserved Smith's argument to show that Mohammed's impulse was received from Christian rather than from Jewish sources. And a paper on the etymology of Baal-bek suggested the jocose query as to light on the origin of Bal-timore. Your readers will at all events appreciate a new etymology of Boston which has just been propounded by a Buddhist priest, newly arrived from Ceylon to convert us. *Bo* is the Ceylonese for *Bodhi*, and appears in the familiar combination *Bo-tree*, the tree under which The Enlightened One (*Buddha*) attained Enlightenment (*Bodhi*); and *ston* is nothing more than *stan*, familiar to us in many Oriental names, Hindustan, Afghan-i-stan, Land of the Hindus, the Afghans, and so on. *Bo-ston* is therefore literally 'The Land of Enlightenment.'

The social aspects of the meeting were simple, as was fitting, and so altogether delightful. It is hoped that the next meeting may be held at the University of Chicago in Easter week, 1898.

A VISIT TO THE CONVENT OF METEORA IN THESSALY.

NORWICH, CONN., April 17, 1897.

ON Wednesday, August 30, 1871, I made arrangements to leave Larissa, in Thessaly, for a visit to the convents of Meteora, those most inaccessible of all monastic retreats in the world. I hired an old carriage, one of the few in Larissa, to take me to Triccala. We set off at five P. M. As we proceeded westward, the mountains, Ossa and Olympus, on the eastern border of the great Thessalian plain, loomed up in constantly more impressive grandeur, and rose, purple and grand, in the last rays of the sun. All through the night we traversed the Pelasgian plain, and arrived before daylight at Triccala, anciently known as Tricca, and revered as one of the oldest shrines of Æsculapius.

The modern Thessalians are a somewhat inferior race, who were described to me by a rich Greek of Larissa as κτηνώδεις ἄνθρωποι, "beastly fellows." Their degradation is due in part to their patriotism. They joined heartily in the national struggle for independence, which for them, since they were excluded from the modern Greek kingdom, bore no fruit, and they have taken part in the numerous insurrections which have been

stirred up since the Greek Revolution, and have had Thessaly as their theatre. These successive outbreaks, insufficiently supported, have been easily stamped out, and the wretched patriots who supported them have been severely punished. The result has been that the more enterprising Greeks have emigrated, and that those who remain are an abject, spiritless race. The population of Thessaly, about 500,000, is almost solidly Greek, about 10 per cent. only being Mohammedan. At the time of my visit, the landholders were generally Turks, and the Christian landholders found it necessary to pay various annoying and burdensome tributes to secure the privilege of cultivating their lands in peace. Now, Thessaly, as far as the River Peneius, but not including Mount Olympus, is Greek territory.

I visited the Turkish governor, who, as I was about to enter the defiles of Mount Pindus, furnished me with a zaptieh, or mounted policeman. I also called on the Greek archbishop, who gave me a letter to the abbot of the convents. I myself rode on horseback. Our road ascended gradually and lay in the direction due north, passing many beautiful springs which gushed forth abundantly from the ground on either side. We soon arrived at Kalabaka, and beheld the first of the monasteries, perched on a high rock to the right. As we drew nearer to these curious rocks, I observed more carefully their formation. They are a conglomerate, and look as if they had bubbled out of the earth, stiffening as they rose. The separate pinnacles, which number some twenty in all, were each once the seat of a monastery, or, at least, of a monastic cell. These pinnacles or needles rise from a bed of rock of similar formation with themselves, both being bluish in color, extremely hard, and holding many small stones imbedded in their substance. The monasteries crowning these natural columns (like so many St. Simeon Stylites on their pillars) are called collectively τὰ Μετέωρα, "raised aloft," and no name could be more appropriate.

The chief monastery, called properly the Convent of the Transfiguration (τῆς Μεταμορφώσεως), receives also the name τὰ Μετέωρα, Convent of Meteora. We approached the base of the rock-column on which it stands, I in advance of my zaptieh, whose horse had the misfortune to catch his hoof in one of the holes of the hard conglomerate over which we were travelling. When the intelligent creature found that the hoof was held fast, he stood perfectly still until his master succeeded in releasing it. I saw a couple of ropes dangling in air, a hundred feet from the earth. I called, and, when heads appeared above, I produced and held up my letter of introduction, whereupon the smaller cord, used for hauling up packages, was lowered and the letter was thus sent up. The abbot was away, and the three monks could none of them read the letter, but they concluded, from the seal and from the fact that the stranger was attended by a zaptieh, that he was a person of importance, and presently they let down the larger rope with a monk, enclosed in a net, at its lower end. As soon as he had been extricated from the net, he spread it flat upon the rock and bade me sit down, cross-legged, upon it. Then he gathered the outside edges carefully together, putting each mesh around the border over the great hook, and shouted to those above to heave away at the windlass.

I felt a curious sensation of being squeezed together, and then rose gradually in the air, whirling around from the twist of the cable, as I ascended. The height was about two hundred feet. Arrived at the top, one of the monks, who worked the windlass, gave me a push, and, as I came back on the return-swing, well within his reach, he dragged me in, and —the other letting go the windlass—I was deposited on the floor of the monastery. Then I was released from the net and began to look about me. At first, I was left much to myself, for the three brothers at the monastery were ignorant in the extreme, and could do little more for me than to send at once a man with a horse to bring back the abbot, who had gone a distance of three or four hours away, on business for the monastery.

I went first to the church, a structure dating, perhaps, from the thirteenth century, of the most regular Byzantine type. Finally, I went out upon the beautiful grassy level which, terminated on every side by the perpendicular rock-walls, surrounds the monastery. The entire elevation was not less than two thousand feet above the great Thessalian plain which I had been traversing from Larissa. This surface was dotted over with delicate blue flowers, and the view in every direction, upon the mighty range of Pindus behind, and over the broad plain in front, was beautiful in the afternoon light. When evening fell and I returned to the convent, the monks gave me a frugal supper, and arranged my bed in a spacious room where many a guest had been entertained before—among others, John Catacouzenos, Emperor of Constantinople, who came to this convent, was hauled up in a basket, and ended his days here as a monk. When I awoke the next morning, the pleasant tones of a cultured voice fell on my ear, and I found that the abbot had arrived. His story was that he was a native of Thessaly, but had lived for fifteen years at Constantinople as a monk attached to the Patriarchate, or palace of the Patriarch. He had gained the confidence of Gregory, the œcumenical Patriarch, who had sent him to Meteora, trusting to his ability to disentangle the monasteries from the debt which burdened them.

Speaking more particularly of these debts, he described the methods of the Christian money-lenders. A banker of Larissa, with whom I myself had become pretty well acquainted, had lent the convents money, one hundred and thirty Turkish pounds, at thirty pounds yearly interest, payable in quarterly instalments. *i. e.*, at a trifle less than 25 per cent. To clear off such claims as these, the income of all the farms owned by the monasteries, save one, had been pledged for five years, and upon that one farm the abbot and his associates were living with the greatest possible economy. But, the five years expired, the monastery would enter again upon the control of its property, and, it was expected, in another five years would be out of debt.

As we continued our conversation, the abbot spoke of the loneliness of the place—how, not long after he arrived, he had fallen sick simply from solitude. He left me by the open window, and there I continued sitting, breathing in the soft, cool morning air, watching the mists rising from the great Thessalian plain, enjoying the astonishing calm. Soon he returned, and then he conducted me about, showing me the capacious vaults for storage, the enormous earthen jars for oil, the great wine-butts, the huge cisterns, all witnessing to the scale on which the convent had once been carried on. As a memorial of comparatively recent outrage, he showed me a bullet-hole in the floor, which witnessed to the murder of an abbot during the Greek Revolution. Among the interesting things which it does not seem worth while to describe were the vestments and the drinking-cups which had been used by the Emperor, John Catacouzenos, while a monk in the convent. There was a title-deed of property, devised by one of the Palæologi (Emperors), with the signature in bold, large letters, Παλαιολόγος, as distinct as if written today. There were editions of the Greek Fathers and of the Greek classics, with a slight sprinkling of other books.

I do not think it necessary to describe my visit to a second of these curious monasteries, that of Barlaam, and I will only note, in closing, the one overwhelming impression which I have carried away from these singular retreats, and never lost. This is the strange, unearthly stillness of these almost inaccessible rock-retreats. There is no note of bird there, no rustling of falling leaf, no trickling of water. The quiet is like that of death; of a kind, according to the temperament of the man, to calm him or to drive him into insanity.

R. P. K.

THE SPADE BEFORE THE SWORD.

ATHENS, April, 1897.

GREECE is no longer the land of dead issues. For some time past it has been so much alive as to attract the attention of the world; but the questions that have attracted mankind are questions of the living present, not those of a far-distant past. The human interest of real living issues appeals to the human heart of the busy workaday world. And yet there is a remnant which, while feeling keenly the momentous nature of the living issues, is still large enough of soul to be interested in the humanity of the past. It is to such that these lines are addressed.

In spite of the fact that recent political events in Greece have been unfavorable to archæological pursuits, yet there was a time this winter when excavations were being carried on at five different places in Athens. The British School excavated for the gymnasium called the Cynosarges on the left bank of the Ilissus, in the neighborhood of the road to Sunium. The excavations were undertaken at this point at the suggestion of Dörpfeld, the topographical ferret. Leaving out of consideration the inevitable graves, the excavations brought to light the scanty remains of a Greek and of a Roman building. In view of the purpose for which the excavations were undertaken, it was quite natural that the one should be named the Cynosarges and the other the Gymnasium of Hadrian, but it is questionable whether these theses can be successfully maintained.

The excavations conducted by the Greek Archæological Society on the northwestern and northern slopes of the Acropolis have been fruitful of results. The excavations were begun in the depression or lower ground between the Areopagus and the Acropolis, where the foundations of a large Byzantine church were discovered. When the excavations reached the so-called grotto of Pan, inscriptions were found on marble plaques that were intended for insertion in the face of the rock. These inscriptions make it clear that this is the grotto of Apollo, and not that of Pan, as has been believed universally up to this time. Certain passages in the "Ion" of Euripides (283 ff. 936) have received needed and satisfactory elucidation by this discovery. East of this grotto of Apollo were found two other

caves, or rather *one* labyrinth-like cave, which is regarded as the cave of Pan, because it is in every way suited for the clandestine meeting of Apollo and Creousa, a meeting so momentous for the yet unborn Ionic race. It may be noted that Apollo and Pan were associated in a similar manner at Lykosoura also. East of these caves, steps leading up to the wall of the Acropolis were discovered; they are the external continuation of the steps found in 1885 inside the walls of the Acropolis. These are the steps by which the Arrephori descended by night during the celebration of the Panathenaic festival, and they are likewise the steps by which the Persians entered the Acropolis. These excavations have but fairly begun, and great discoveries are still to be looked for. The ground occupied by the houses of the Anaphiote squatters on the northern slopes of the Acropolis will be bought by the Archæological Society, although of course it belongs already to the Government. The squatters, eighty families in all, have resisted successfully for twenty years all efforts of the Government to dispossess them, so that the Society is forced to purchase the houses. They will be demolished in time in order that excavations can be made down to the natural rock. The excavated dirt will be replaced along the entire northern slope wherever no ancient buildings are found.

The German School has made excavations at the western foot of the Areopagus in the hope of discovering the theatre of Agrippa, the temple of Ares, and the orchestra in which once stood the statues of Harmodius and Aristogeiton, all of which, according to Pausanias, lay between the Greek Agora (as contradistinguished from the Roman Agora) and the Enneakrounos. Now the Greek Agora lay to the east of the so-called Theseion; Dörpfeld thinks, as is well known, that the Enneakrounos has been definitely located, so that the discovery of the intermediate buildings can be only a question of time and digging. The excavations for this winter were confined to trial trenches, and were without result so far as the topographical questions were concerned.

Excavations in the ancient cemetery near the Dipylon prove that the hillock which lies to the south of the Hagia Trias is an artificial mound, the different layers being quite evident. The original graves, five in number, lie upon the hard pan at the bottom of the tumulus, and show distinct traces of fire-burial. As the tumulus grew, other (unincinerated) bodies were buried in it, so that a vertical section reveals graves at varying depths. The five graves are the oldest in the ancient cemetery at this place, and go back to the beginning of the fifth century; the other graves in the tumulus belong to the fourth century. Vases of various kinds and gold ornaments were found in the upper graves of the tumulus, only a portion of which has been excavated as yet; but the excavations will be continued. The underground aqueduct that carries off the water of the Eridanos will be cut by these excavations, and this may give a pretext for endeavoring to discover accurately the sources of this abundant water.

Excavations conducted in the outer Ceramicus northwest of the Dipylon have led to the discovery of the ancient road from the Dipylon to the Academy, the road of public tombs and of the torch-race contests from the altar of Eros in the Academy to the altar of Anteros in the inner Ceramicus. Only a small portion of the road has been uncovered; it is paved and is about eleven metres wide, as Livy says, *ut pediti equitique hostium liberum spatium præberet*. The line of the road being thus fixed, we may yet live to see the plan of the tombs of Pericles, Thrasybulus, and of the many Athenians who were accorded a sumptuous burial because of their *andragathy*, in that they had died for their country. A sanctuary of Artemis may also be looked for, as well as a statue of Dionysus Eleuthereus and xoana of Ariste and Calliste. These excavations have produced inscriptions that add two more names to the list of archons of the third century.

A sixth excavation was that for the foundation of a large house on Sophocles Street, not far from the National Bank. A portion of the city walls appeared at a depth of about twelve feet.

The archæological year was opened by a discovery made by Mr. Smith, Director of the British School at Athens. While passing through Patras on his way to Athens, Mr. Smith's attention was called to a marble statue which had been found but a short time previously. A mere glance served to reveal the astonishing fact that the statue was another replica of the Parthenos of Phidias—a replica, too, which in many respects is the best extant.

M. Dragoumes accidentally discovered on Salamis the tumulus or polyandrion of the Corinthians who fell in the battle of Salamis. The discovery was made by means of an inscription in the old Corinthian alphabet and the Doric dialect. The greater part of the inscription has been worn away, but fortunately the most of the first line is preserved almost intact, and this line presents us with the exact and unatticized text of a part of the celebrated epigram which Simonides of Ceos composed for the tomb of the Corinthian dead. Corinthian Epsilon, Koppa, San, and the old forms of all the letters occur, though Vau is absent. The discovery is of intense interest for the philologist, the archæologist, and the historian. The old letters recall vividly the pretensions of the Corinthians after the battle, and their squabbles with Themistocles in the council of war before the battle. It is hoped that the relative isolation of the polyandrion may have spared it from many consecutive plunderings, and that excavations may reveal other things equal in interest with the discovery of the epigram of Simonides and of the tumulus itself.

Some years ago three "ostraka" were discovered (C. I. A. iv. 2 569-71), one of which was cast against Megacles, the uncle of Pericles and grandfather of Alcibiades, and the other two against Xanthippus, the father of Pericles. The lately discovered work of Aristotle tells us that these were the first Athenians to be ostracized. It was surprising that samples of precisely the very oldest ostraka should have been found, and they were of especial interest also because they showed us how that any piece of broken pottery was used for the purpose. The name *Scherbengericht* has been fully justified both by these three ostraka, and also by a fourth which was cast against Themistocles at the time when Aristeides was banished. This ostrakon was found during the recent German excavations at the western foot of the Areopagus. It is apparently a fragment from the rim of a vase. This vote against Themistocles was hastily scratched in the black enamel with a sharp-pointed instrument, as seems clear from the fact that the brittle enamel was rudely splintered away, leaving jagged the lines of the letters. All of these ostraka bear simply the name of the person to be ostracized and that of his father; that against Megacles, however, bears in addition the deme from which he hailed.

Of late, considerable discussion has been aroused with regard to the bronze statue of Delphi which M. Homolle has identified as that of Hiero, and perhaps correctly. But in a paper read before the Parnassos recently, Svoronos disputes Homolle's identification, and undertakes to prove that the statue is that of Battos, the founder of Cyrene, a hero besung of Pindar. Svoronos's chief argument is based on a passage in Pausanius (10, 15, 3), in which that worthy tells us that the Cyrenæans dedicated at Delphi a statue of Battos in a chariot; that the charioteer was Cyrene, while in the chariot stood Battos being crowned by Libya; that the group was a work of Amphion of Cnossos, son of Akestor. Svoronos adduced many arguments to prove his thesis. He thinks that Cyrenæan coins of the period have as type the Battos group of Amphion, and he has restored the Delphian group in accordance with these coins. There is a certain dissymmetry in the face of the bronze statue of Delphi, especially about the mouth. Now Battos was paralyzed and a stammerer, and Svoronos argues that this dissymmetry was intended to indicate that fact. Svoronos tries to prove, furthermore, that the inscription on the base of the statue was composed by none other than Pindar himself. The thesis of Svoronos was very convincing at the first blush, because many things seemed to speak for it, though it is certain that many other things speak against it. At a recent meeting of the French School, M. Homolle attempted to refute the arguments of Svoronos, and, as many think, successfully. But the end is not yet, *lis sub judice est*, and the ball started rolling by Svoronos has gained sufficient momentum to excite discussion in archæological circles for some time to come.

A most important discovery was made recently at Hagios Basileios, a village at the foot of Mt. Cithæron in a nook of the Corinthian Gulf. Remains of ancient ship houses are still visible in the sea, and the spot is regarded by the Greek archæologists as the seaport of ancient Platææ. A fisherman, while busied with his nets at this spot, discovered in the sea a bronze statue of about half life size. Apparently the fisherman was unusually stupid, for, being ignorant of the value of the statue, he sold it for a song to some peasants, who took it to Thebes. They were told that its value was immeasurable. Fearing, therefore, that the Government might take it from them, they hid it and denied its existence, but nevertheless stories of the great discovery reached Athens. An Ephor posted off to Thebes, found the peasants, and, with the help of the police, succeeded in wresting the treasure from the hands of its owners. The Ephor also visited the place where the statue was found, and succeeded in discovering a pedestal bearing the inscription τὸ Ποτιδάονος ἱερόν. It is, however, not yet certain that the statue represents Poseidon. No doubt the question will be settled when the base is cleansed completely, for as yet only the first line has been read. The head resembles much that of the traditional Zeus of Olympia. The thinner parts of the body of the statue have been destroyed by time and by ages of immersion in the salt sea. But, in strange contrast therewith, the head is well preserved, even the hairs of the head and beard being quite distinct. The head is mostly gilded and is crowned by a round gilded headband. It is regarded as a splendid specimen of the archaic art of the sixth century

before Christ; according to Greek archæologists, equal, if not superior, to the bronze Hiero found at Delphi by the French. Unfortunately, the badly oxidized statue is in many pieces, but, as the arms, legs, and a great part of the torso were found, it can be joined together successfully, though many gaps will be left. The statue is now in the Museum at Athens, and is exposed to public view even before the needed repairs have been made.

It may interest many to know that the battlefield of Chæroneia, and the village in which Plutarch played as a child, is now the property of an American lady. The story of the lion of Chæroneia is unutterably sad. Erected originally to commemorate the valor, not the victory, of those who fought for and lost the cause of Grecian freedom on the fate-fraught field of Chæroneia, the grim-visaged lion defied man and time for more than two millennia. But, for the past seventy years of the enlightened nineteenth century, it has lain in broken dishonor, with its upturned face, defiant still despite the ages, making mute appeal to heaven. At last, however, an attempt is to be made to rescue from further ruin and decay a monument so venerable, so sad, and therefore so inspiring and so holy. The Archæological Society has determined to restore the lion and to reërect it on the field over which it has stood sentry for these decades of centuries, the while the wicked world wagged on, while empire after empire rose and fell, while new religions, aye, and new nations, undreamed of in the days when first the lion was erected, sprang and flourished for age on age, only to melt away and be no more as time grew old and ripe.

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Correspondence.

SCHOOL HOLIDAYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The communication in your issue of the 15th inst. does not locate the responsibility for the ratio of school holidays and working-days; and no doubt most thoughtless persons consider this ratio one of the blisses of teaching. Of course, the fact is, schools have practically nothing to do with defining holidays, as every effort of their despair abundantly proves. Parents and children every year go earlier to the country and return later to town, not even going and returning in concert, but with irregular individual caprice, thus discounting by confusion the days or weeks left for the remnant of their fellows. Three or four months of unproductiveness is more than millionaires allow themselves; yet schoolmasters are supposed in some way to glory in so much enforced idleness, which would indeed be intolerable but for the peculiar exhaustions of their work.

In acceptance of the inevitable, teachers would gladly acquiesce in any long vacation that would secure immunity from Tuesday and Thursday holidays that mean the loss of Monday and Friday; but authorities that appoint anniversary celebrations or special ceremonials think of everything else except the interests of schools, and our few weeks continue to be vitiated, our labors to be wasted, our results to be condemned, our exactions increased, and our felicities exaggerated. No one of these holidays is as significant as the break of momentum is detrimental, and no teacher wants the break, while, on the other hand, the special theory of the celebration is ignored by the boy in his general conception of a holiday, so that he suffers a great loss with no gain. With Saturdays and Sundays as regular reliefs, he needs no holiday during the year: in any case, if he needs some, he cannot stand all—a form of the horse-tail argument that advocates of new holidays overlook. No mechanic, artist, or professional man works under such disadvantages; even strikes are less precarious and whimsical; and none of these laborers is condemned as a matter of course for deficiencies deliberately provided for him by others. Yet colleges and the public do thus mock and condemn the most innocent of their servants.—Yours truly,

Caskie Harrison.

Brooklyn, April 17, 1897.

LESS—AND MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Accept one hearty Amen, please, to the suggestion that Homer be postponed until college or university days. This is not, indeed, an absolutely novel heresy. So loyal a pair of Grecians as Prof. Seymour and Dr. Keep have discussed it, pro and con, once at least, before a convention of teachers.

My own radicalism goes a longish step farther. Our vernacular speech, carrying the historic English literature from Caedmon to Kipling, must soon come to its self-evident rights as the chief object in all required linguistic study. One language on our Teutonic side and one from the Romance group may fairly be called essential, if only to form the basis of conscious comparison for English. German has, of course, no rival for the former choice. Even a Philhellene must concede, though regretfully, that Latin is the other indispensable.

Our boys must go to college younger; what they undertake in school at all must be more adequately mastered; we can't make indefatigable bookworms of them, as the German gymnasium may; daily athletics, long idle vacations, nonchalant parents, the reluctant schoolboy himself, are here to stay—all this must be conceded, too.

Girls' colleges, starting in these last decades, have not attempted to enforce the Greek entrance requirement. Already many ancient gates swing open, however grudgingly, to masculine youth without the magic sesame of τύπτω. We may as well yield the Thermopylæ we never really won. Greek, pursued reluctantly for three or even four years, by boys with no linguistic gift or taste, to be abandoned at the earliest possible moment, is forgotten with incredible promptness, leaving a vague stain upon the memory, nowise worth the time and toil and tears it has cost.

"Two languages besides English" should be the minimum demand, as the ordinary high school or academy graduate passes easily, albeit on probation, into college. Both institutions should encourage the attempt to accomplish the mastery of a third, at least, whenever a child, or group of children, shall have the capacity and the time. (The English classification into "pass" and "honor" men is worth considering.) Whether that third language be Greek, or French, or Italian may be determined by the needs of the pupil, or, still oftener, by the fitness of the teacher.

The cynical critic is still in full cry after the "illiterate" school-graduate, especially the unhappy Harvard Freshman. Nevertheless, several of us have felt, for some time, that perhaps all preparatory schools might well imitate the ancient Lydians, and let their boys surfeit themselves for a full year with athletics only, if meantime the instructors could be "rounded up" in the universities, and taught to begin, seriously, making the acquaintance of *one language apiece!*

How many of us have tried to know what we pretend to teach? What proportion of our instructors in "Latin," for instance, ever saw a fragment of Ennius, an epigram of Martial, a tragedy of Seneca? Who will write a synopsis in a thousand words of Quintilian's ideal of education? Nay, how many will hear without terror that their class will read, next month, not the 'Archias' but the 'Murena,' the Civil War in preference to the Gallic, the ninth book of the 'Æneid' instead of the fourth? We teach "reading at sight"; how many would dare read *for the first time* with their class an average chapter of Gellius or letter of Pliny? As to an actual manuscript or inscription, it might or might not occur to us at first glance that it is in the language which we teach. This sweeping characterization is unfair to many devoted and diligent specialists. Still, the composite portrait will be recognized.

The average youth (or maid) comes, armed with a fresh B.A., to teach Greek *and* Latin, perhaps a goodly leash of other accomplishments, when he has no special preparation at all, has never devoted himself for a month exclusively to any one study. He needs at least a year to make the acquaintance of one language and of its literature *as an organic whole* before he can introduce beginners to it intelligently. I propose, in all earnest, that we "give a rest," at least in vacation, to the much-maligned urchin, and hunt—ourselves!

Wm. C. Lawton.

Brooklyn, April 21, 1897.

THE ANTIQUITY OF WELLERISMS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I observe in the papers a discussion about the origin of that peculiar form of humorous comparison used by Dickens in his 'Pickwick Papers' and for a while wearisomely popular under the title of "Wellerisms." It may interest some of your readers to know that it can claim a very respectable antiquity. In the 'Satiricon' of Petronius (a work written in the first century), one of the guests at a supper is complaining of the hardness of the times and general miserableness of things, and another offers consolation: "Don't talk in that way: such is life. What we have not to day, we may have to-morrow. 'Now it is so, and now it is so,' as the countryman said who had lost a spotted pig." (*Modo sic, modo sic, inquit rusticus: varium porcum perdiderat.*)

W. H. B.

LINES BY THOMAS PAINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On the fly-leaf of a copy of 'Common Sense' purchased at a book sale in this country, the following lines are written, I believe by Thomas Paine:

"ON THE KING'S ILLNESS, 1789.

See the vengeance of Heaven! America cries,
George loses his senses, North loses his eyes:
When they strove to enslave us, all Europe will find
That the tyrant was mad, and his Minister blind!"

It will be remembered that Paine was in London at this time, 1789, and that the King's

insanity occurred about the same time as the blindness of Lord North, who died in 1792.

MONCURE D. CONWAY.

LONDON, April 10, 1897.

WHITTIER AND THE 'NARRATIVE OF JAMES WILLIAMS.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: So much interest has recently centred upon the little book here named that perhaps a few additional "facts in the case" may possess sufficient importance to prove acceptable. These facts are obtained from recently acquired files of the anti-slavery journals, the *Emancipator* and the *Liberator*, the numbers of which for 1838 give much prominence to James Williams and his 'Narrative,' and dispel any doubts surrounding Whittier's connection with the tale.

In the *Emancipator* for January 25, 1838, appears for the first time the announcement:

"James Williams—the fugitive slave. An authentic narrative of this slave—now a FREEMAN—self-emancipated—is in the press and will be speedily published, and we venture to say that no work more interesting has been published since the beginning of the Anti-Slavery discussion. It will be a narrative of facts, illustrating the cruelties and blasphemies connected with slavery. The names of persons connected with James will be printed at length, together with a portrait of the fugitive, so that the statements can be verified or contradicted. The story has been taken down from the lips of James, by J. G. Whittier, by whom the work will be prepared for the press. Pages 130, 18mo."

The issue of the paper for February 18 contains a list of "books recently published, and for sale at the Anti-Slavery office, 143 Nassau Street, New York." First on this list is:

"Narrative of James Williams, an American Slave; who was for several years a driver on a cotton plantation in Alabama—by John G. Whittier. Published by the American Anti Slavery Society, and for sale at their office, No. 143 Nassau St., 18mo, pp, 108; price 18¾ cts. single, $14 per hundred."

(It will be noted that the announcement *before* publication specified pp 130; that *after*, pp. 108—a reduction in size which might have been caused by the omission of intended introductory matter.) This announcement was reprinted in subsequent issues of the journal.

In the *Emancipator* for April 19 appears an extract from the *Alabama Beacon* of March 29 (denouncing the Narrative as "a foul fester of falsehood"), appended to which is an editorial rejoinder of the *Emancipator*, containing the statement:

"The book was not written by 'some peddling Yankee preacher,' as is suggested by your correspondent, but by JOHN G. WHITTIER, whose name is beyond the impeachment of mercenary motives. Neither is the 'copyright secured,' as the same correspondent may know by the absence of certificate on the back of the title-page."

The issue for May 3 contains a catalogue of anti-slavery publications, among other titles in which appears:

"Williams, James. A most interesting and affecting narrative of an *American Slave*, taken from his own lips by John G. Whittier. 18mo, pp. 108. Price 25 cents single: $17 per hundred";

and in another column of the catalogue is announced:

"Narrative James Williams, in sheets $1.00 per hundred in any quantity."

The latter announcement proves that a letter to the editor (Rev. Joshua Leavitt), which appeared in the issue for April 12, suggesting that the narrative be "published on a sheet and sold by the thousand—by the tens of thousands, by the hundreds of thousands," was acted upon, and that an edition in broadside, or some such form, may be looked for by the earnest collector. After May 3 the catalogue feature of the *Emancipator* is omitted, and, except some comment from correspondents, no reference to James Williams appears again until August 16, when an editorial headed "James Williams" states:

"The *Alabama Beacon* of July 26, published at the county seat of Greene County, brings us a letter written by Mr. Lewis Tappan to the editor, with a number of certificates from Alabama and Virginia, calculated to discredit the narrative of James Williams. Mr. Tappan is at present out of town, but the matter will be looked into without delay. And in the meantime, as the committee have no object or interest but in the truth, our publishing agent has stopped the sale of the book."

The issue for August 23 contains a brief editorial note on the subject, and that for August 30 enters extensively into the controversy, ten columns being devoted to the statement, entitled "*Alabama Beacon* versus James Williams," prepared by James G. Birney and Lewis Tappan. The opening paragraph states that "the narrative was prepared and published under the direction of the executive committee of the American Anti-Slavery Society, in the latter part of the winter," and refers to

"the regular narrative, in which the narrator himself was the principal actor, and to most of the particulars of which he could himself testify. . . . The narrative was accompanied by a prefatory essay, in which numerous well-authenticated facts connected with American slavery were brought together and presented in such a manner as to force the belief that the picture exhibited in the narrative, if not drawn from life, was certainly true to nature. . . . The narrative was sent gratuitously to all the members of Congress soon after it was published. In the slave States it has had some, though a limited, circulation."

The "statement" embraces extensive articles from the *Alabama Beacon*, and letters from several residents of the localities named in the narrative, which contradicted the charges contained in the book. A further rejoinder (the tone of which would seem to imply that the sale of the publication was resumed) by the Anti-Slavery Society appears in the issue for September 20, discrediting the statements advanced by the *Alabama Beacon*, and the letters quoted. This is followed by an editorial note:

"Credibility of James Williams. Friend Whittier, who is not over credulous and is certainly honest, gives his present judgment of the matter in these terms: 'We have examined the Southern testimony, and while we candidly admit that it has created a doubt in our mind of the accuracy, in some minute particulars, of the statement made by the fugitive to several gentlemen in this State [Whittier was at the time editor of the *Pennsylvania Freeman*] and in New York (and which was written down from his lips by ourself), we are still disposed to give credit in the main to his narrative."

The catalogue of anti-slavery publications is resumed in the *Emancipator* for September 28, but omits mention of the narrative, which is noticed for the last time in the issue for October 25, in the article headed "Statement authorized by the Executive Committee." In this article the committee expresses its conviction that the contradictions advanced by the *Alabama Beacon* are correct; that the statements made by the ex slave "are wholly false, and therefore they [the members of the committee] cannot with propriety ask for the confidence of the community in any of the statements contained in the narrative"; ending with the resolution: "That the said special committee prepare, as soon as may be, a statement in relation to said narrative, to be inserted in the *Emancipator*, and that the publishing agent be directed to discontinue the sale of the work."

The *Liberator* for March 9 contains, over the signature "Memento," its first notice of the book. The same issue announces that "I. Knapp, 25 Cornhill, is agent for all the publications of the American Anti-Slavery Society." An extract from the Narrative of James Williams appears in the number for March 16, followed, in the issue for March 30, by the announcement:

"Narrative of an American Slave! Narrative of James Williams, an American Slave; who was for several years a driver on a cotton plantation in Alabama. Published and sold by Isaac Knapp at 25 Cornhill—price, bound, 25 cents; paper covers, 18¾ cents"

Appended is an extract from the editor's preface to the work, and this: "Note. The reader is referred to John G. Whittier of Amesbury, Mass., [and others]," the note being copied from front cover of the book, with date appended, "Mar. 30." The advertisement is repeated in the issues for April 6, 13, 20; May 11, 25; June 22, 29; July 13, 27; August 10, 17; September 7, 21; October 5, 19.

The dates of New York and Boston announcements will be noted as determining the place of publication of the first edition, also that of Isaac Knapp's appointment as agent of the American Anti-Slavery Society's publications, and the different styles in which the issue bearing the Boston imprint was supplied.

The editor of the *Liberator* (William Lloyd Garrison) would seem to have adopted an attitude of extreme caution towards the Narrative, and to have held aloof from the controversy as to the truth or falsehood of the slave's story, merely reprinting, without comment, in the *Liberator* for September 28, an extract from the *Emancipator* (expressing confidence in the Narrative), and copying (also without comment), in the *Liberator* for November 2, the "authorized statement" of the *Emancipator*, October 25, already referred to; after which date no further allusion is made to James Williams.

These facts prove conclusively that Whittier's connection with the publication was, in 1838, almost as generally known as if his name as author or editor had appeared on the title-page.

P. K. FOLEY.

Notes.

MISS ISABEL F. HAPGOOD has completed a Prayer-book for the Russo-Greek Church, and has submitted the MS. to the Holy Synod of Russia for criticism. Bishop Nicholas (Aleutian Islands and Alaska), the Russian Prelate for America, heartily approves of the undertaking, and stands sponsor for the book with the Holy Synod. The subject is vast and complicated, as no complete service, even of the customary Mass, Matins, and Vespers, exists in Russia. Miss Hapgood has, however, constructed a series of services from the enormous material in the ecclesiastical books (a complete set of which Bishop Nicholas presented to her, with his blessing), which any one can follow—even persons unfamiliar with

liturgies. The plan of the book includes a condensed but complete compendium of ecclesiastical usages and symbolism, the latter being also indicated in such a manner that it can be grasped as the service proceeds. The Eastern Church has long needed such a practical book, for the use of visitors to Russia, to Greece, to the churches of that rite in the European capitals and in this country, where considerable congregations exist at many points. Rev. William R. Huntington, D.D., of Grace Church in this city is the American revisor and corrector of the liturgical language in the volume.

Ginn & Co., Boston, are soon to publish the first part of a work on 'German Orthography and Phonology,' by Prof. George Hempl of the University of Michigan. The second part, consisting of an alphabetical list of the difficult words of the language, with spelling and pronunciation phonetically transcribed, is in preparation.

A. S. Barnes & Co. are to publish 'The Annals of Switzerland,' by Miss Julia M. Cotton, and 'The History of the Waldenses,' by Mme. Sophia Bompiani.

A remodelled series of the year-book 'Who's Who?' is announced by Macmillan Co.

Universal history in monographs is the nature of a new undertaking by the great bookmaking house of Velhagen & Klasing in Bielefeld (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). The first number, dealing with the Medici, will be from the pen of Prof. Dr. Eduard Heyck, to be followed by Queen Elizabeth, by Prof. Dr. Erich Marcks, Kaiser Maximilian I, by Prof. Dr. Heyck, the Crusades, the Hohenstaufen, etc., down to Napoleon I., Freiherr vom Stein, Kaiser Wilhelm I., Bismarck, etc. The series will be admirably illustrated, and will be sold separately.

Few who are fond of the older Italian literature have not, at one time or another, cherished a mad ambition to translate Giovanni Villani's chronicle into the easy, good-natured English it deserves. But even if the task were done, and properly done, the version would search long for a publisher, and, if published, would claim scant attention. It is better to be content with the selections from the first nine books which have been translated, "for the use of students of Dante and others," by Rose E. Selfe, under the supervision of Philip H. Wicksted (London: Archibald Constable; New York: Macmillan Co.). The extracts chosen are chiefly those which illustrate passages in Dante's various works, and marginalia give the appropriate references. The greatest good, however, that "students of Dante and others" will acquire from the volume may perhaps be a keener feeling for the somewhat complacent Florentine spirit, as unconsciously depicted by this calm chronicler of party feuds and "boss" rule, whose Guelph judgment held that Dante "delighted to denounce and cry out after the manner of the poets, perhaps in certain places more than was fitting; but may be his exile was the cause of this." The translation is excellent.

The press of the University of Chicago issues a very elaborate monograph by Prof. John W. Million, entitled 'State Aid to Railways in Missouri.' By way of introduction the author reviews the experiments made by most of our States in "internal improvements" and other business enterprises, the results being, with hardly an exception, disastrous. "There is not a single case," he says, "in the whole list of the States attempting the construction or the assistance in the construction of public works between 1825 and 1840 in which there is evidence of commanding administrative ability. In the case of almost all there is an absence of what can be called immaculate honesty." Although Missouri did not fairly begin her experiments until the middle of the century, the experience of other States had no lessons for her statesmen. After spending many millions in various railroad enterprises, the State found the charges intolerable, and sold out its interests at a very heavy loss. The loss, it seems, was much increased by the venality of legislators; and in this case, as well as others, incompetency and corruption proved to be obstacles fatal to the success of governmental ventures in the field of business. Prof. Million has done his work with great care, and has furnished a valuable body of evidence on this subject.

Paul Bourget's last book, 'Recommencements' (Paris: Lemerre), contains some very strong work indeed. It is a collection of ten tales, every one of which is admirably told, with a surer and deeper art than the author has yet exhibited. Several of the characteristic traits of M. Bourget reappear; the old love of rank, society, wealth, and the luxuries of modern civilization has not abandoned him, but the profoundly human interest he has imparted to his characters and to the scenes he describes compensates for this slight snobbishness. Four of the tales especially commend themselves by the sense of power: "Le David," "Saïda," "L'Adoration des Mages," and "Pendant la bataille."

Now that Adolphe Jullien's "Le Romantisme et l'éditeur Renduel" has been published in book form by Charpentier & Fasquelle, one can enjoy to the full the recollections of the man who came into such close and intimate contact with all the great writers of that once famous and influential school. Something of what made the enthusiasm of the bygone Romantic days may be gathered from the reminiscences of Renduel which M. Jullien has so interestingly woven together. The illustrations, consisting of reproductions of portraits, caricatures, and facsimiles of autographs, add considerably to the interest and value of the book.

Mosapp's 'Charlotte von Schiller' is the first book to present in brief and attractive form the life and character of Schiller's wife. The two extensive works published years ago under the direction of her daughter, Frau von Gleichen, offer biographical material in abundance, but they can hardly be called biographies. Fulda's book of 1878 is so lacking in historical arrangement, and there is so little distinction between the essential and the unessential in his treatment, that a well-proportioned idea of Charlotte's life can scarcely be secured from it. Mosapp puts into his book only that which really has to do with her life and character, and therefore Schiller's work and life are mentioned only when he directly contributed to her development. Although the book is of rather a popular nature, it is based on scientific principles, and, where convenient, the story is told in Charlotte's own words, taken from her correspondence. The book is dedicated to King Wilhelm II. of Würtemberg as a token of appreciation of his interest in establishing the Swabian Schiller Society some two years ago, and for his encouragement in the founding of the Schiller museum and archive at Marbach. The remains of the poet's wife lie in the graveyard at Bonn instead of at her husband's side as she so much desired. Their sole descendant is a great-grandson, Alexander Schiller von Gleichen-Russwurm.

A singularly indigested compilation is the 'Literary Year-book' just adventured in London by George Allen (New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.). Frank admission is made of a change of purpose to which much of the confusion may be attributed, but which cannot account for a sketch, with portrait, of Mr. G. S. Street, being deliberately intercalated in a list of literary clubs, learned societies and institutions, page 110 ending with the Oriental Translation Fund, p. 111 being a bastard title, and the list proceeding again with the Oxford and Cambridge Club on p. 115. This is the very madness of bookmaking. The explanation appears to be that the editor aimed to secure readability for a reference book. The value of this annual lies almost solely in its directories—of British authors, public libraries, literary clubs as aforesaid, publishers, booksellers, etc. The literary articles are slight. A number of the *dii minores* of literature of the present hour are pictured and briefly biographized. The portrait of the poet W. B. Yeats, by his father, puts the photographs to the blush. A list of eight errata is inserted. We can add two more: "At" for As, on p. vi., and "sold up" (!) for sealed up, on p. 60 (of the Guildhall Library).

Mrs. Caroline H. Dall has reprinted in a little brochure (Boston: Roberts Bros) her two-year-old lecture on "Transcendentalism in New England," which was first published in the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*. Like all that Mrs. Dall writes, it is lively and interesting reading. She embraces in her survey Anne Hutchinson and Margaret Fuller, and is mostly concerned, in her intimate sketches of individual lights, to give credit of priority to Dr. F. H. Hedge in paving the way for the Concord group, for Brook Farm, etc. Of Alcott she writes impatiently.

McClure's Magazine for May opens with an article on Mr. G. C. Cox, the photographer, who holds a place apart not only in this city, but in the profession generally. Miss Tarbell's text is exemplified by numerous portraits of celebrities, but none of these speaks as much for the skill of Mr. Cox as the succeeding portrait of President Cleveland (we believe, the very latest before he laid down the cares of office), which stands at the head of Carl Schurz's notable review of his administrative career. The ordinary machine-made photograph of commerce after the same face bears no relation to Mr. Cox's rare psychologic selection. Mr. Schurz's story will be novel to most of us because a short memory is an American characteristic. It is not mere eulogy.

A reduced facsimile of Alexander Selkirk's will is the curiosity of the April number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. The body of it is a printed form. It bears date December 12, 1720, and the pay-book of H. M. S. *Weymouth* shows that this "master's mate" died just a year later, December 12, 1721. Mr. Henry F. Waters, continuing to move in that other-world of decedents and testators which must sometimes seem to him the only real existence, deals, in his "Genealogical Gleanings in England," with connections of Banks, Bates, Burroughs, Foote, Vassall—to mention a part. Dr. John Ward Dean, in a modest paragraph, commemorates his editorial direction of the *Register* for just one-half the fifty and a half years of its issuance. We read on p. 227 that Mr. Eben Putnam of Salem, Mass., proposes to print abstracts of the probate records of that county, giving every name occurring in the wills and settle-

ments of estates to the close of the eighteenth century. But he must be assured of fifty subscriptions in advance, at five dollars each.

Bibliographica (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners) closes its third volume and its career in a worthy manner. Sir E. Maunde Thompson compares the block book 'Biblia Pauperum' with an antecedent MS. whose miniatures in theme are in close agreement with the woodcuts. This article is finely illustrated. Mr. Andrew Lang, fresh from Pickle, the Spy, discourses on "Late Jacobite Tracts," while Mr. Robert Edmund Graves describes the nuggets of the Isham collection of rare Elizabethan and other English works, which has in part been acquired by the British Museum. Elaborate and authoritative, and richly exemplified, is Mr. Alfred W. Pollard's "Illustrations in French Books of Hours, 1486-1500." Not to be overlooked, decidedly, are the Addenda to former articles. A general index to the three volumes follows the Epilogue.

The effect of alcohol on mountain-climbers is discussed by Dr. Otto Snell in No. 3 of the *Mittheilungen des Deutschen und Oesterreichischen Alpenvereins*. Last autumn he had a card in the same publication requesting climbers to forward their personal experiences and views to him. He received sixty communications, thirty-seven of which, or 62 per cent., condemn the use of liquors, wine, or beer as an impediment rather than an aid. Twelve are for a moderate use of wine, but pronounce against brandy and beer. Three believe in taking brandy along, to be used, however, not as a stimulant, but in case of need as a medicine or to mix with glacier-water. Only five of the sixty expressed their belief that alcoholic drinks are beneficial or harmless to climbers. The general conclusion drawn by Dr. Snell from these answers is that while in exceptional cases alcohol may be harmless, or possibly useful, as a rule great moderation is desirable, while the majority of experts are for total abstinence until after the climb is over, and some even strongly urge abstinence, or great moderation, on the day before the expedition. One of the correspondents expressed his conviction that the bottled drinks taken along by climbers benefit no one but the tavern-keepers from whom they buy them.

The *Chronik der Christlichen Welt* prints statistical tables from which it gathers the surprising information that the number of theological students in the German universities has decreased from 4,527 in 1890 to 2,956 in 1896, or more than one-third. The decrease occurred at all the evangelical faculties excepting those of Griefswald and Erlangen, and it is more noticeable in North than in South Germany. It is considered the more remarkable in view of the fact that within recent years the income of the clergy has been materially increased. The *Frankfurter Zeitung* is inclined in large part to attribute the growing disinclination of young men to study theology to the attempts made, especially in North Germany, to crush the tendency to apply scientific methods to the study of religious questions.

We notice the advent of the *Japan Times*, a six-page daily and weekly newspaper founded by Japanese enterprise wholly, though a foreign editor will be employed. It is printed wholly in English, and will have colored supplements and pay particular attention to those things Japanese which are most in the eye of foreigners. Paper, print, and proof-reading in this first issue are unexceptionable. We note many features of interest, including an announcement of a translation into Japanese of Capt Mahan's 'The Influence of Sea-Power upon History.' (The *Times* office is No. 5 Uchisaiwai-cho, Tokyo.)

The Buddhist magazine, *Hansei Zasshi*, vol. xii., No. 2, in English, besides fine illustrations of scenery and a picture of the late dowager empress, contains an interesting article showing the original text of a Chinese Buddhist sutra containing the word Messiah and in the same phonetization as that (mi-shi-ho) upon the famous Nestorian tablet, the authenticity of which has been established by such scholars as Legge and Pauthier.

In 1895 $180,000 was given by the Legislature of Wisconsin to erect a fire-proof edifice exclusively for safeguarding the collections of the State Historical Society, now amounting to 100,000 volumes and as many pamphlets, with manuscripts yet more rare and priceless. This structure has been building ever since, on ample grounds, and adapted architecturally to be made threefold larger so as to include the University Library under the same roof. This projected extension, which it was believed must be deferred for a decade, is to become an accomplished fact immediately. The Legislature has just now laid a tax for this purpose which will yield $420,000. It has also raised the annual appropriation in aid of the society from five to fifteen thousand dollars.

While the death of Christian Ludvig Edvard Lembcke, which occurred March 20, is of primary interest to students of Danish literature, it is not without significance to lovers of our own poetry through his admirable translations of Shakspere and Byron. Lembcke was born in Copenhagen June 15, 1815. After passing both the theological and the philological examinations he became a teacher, and from 1850 till 1864 he was assistant rector of the famous Latin School at Haderslev in Schleswig. He was one of the most enthusiastic "Scandinavians" and National Liberals of that time, and his zeal for the Danish cause in Southern Jutland led to his dismissal from his post. His best-known poem, which is also one of the most popular and characteristic of the Danish national songs, "Vort Modersmaal er dejligt" (Our Mother tongue is Lovely), is a warm expression of his patriotism. The translation of Shakspere was undertaken chiefly in order to occupy his mind after the exile from Schleswig. It was published in 1865-72, and immediately won recognition as the standard Danish version. It is evidently largely based on the translation of Foersom and Wulff of twenty years before. Although often lacking the vigor and spirit of the original, especially in the later tragedies, it is with few exceptions correct and without exception poetical. Lembcke's versions of Byron are said to be remarkably happy. It is of interest to note that a third edition of the Shakspere, in nine volumes, with numerous illustrations by Hans Tegner, was announced at the beginning of the year, the first part having appeared shortly before the translator's death.

A correspondent writes: "You cannot follow the Greek struggles with more zest than I do, for I claim to have shared in the first war for liberation. The United States could do nothing as a Government, but our people did much to feed and clothe the rebels. Pattern suits were sent about New England, and some came to my native village, one of which fitted me, not yet in my teens; so I was dressed in fez, fustinella, leggings, etc., and sent to every house in the village—an ambulatory advertisement, much ridiculed by boys and girls, but which brought all their mothers together in sewing-circles and turned out a hundred garments which warmed as many Greeks shivering in nakedness, and brought the blessing of those ready to perish on Yankee sewing-women. When first at Athens in '68 I had many a favor in acknowledgment of my boyish service."

—Sir Martin Conway's account of his last summer's expedition to Spitzbergen is given in the April number of the *Geographical Journal*. To the lay reader the results do not seem commensurate with the hardships and dangers encountered from glaciers, bogs, innumerable streams, and "vile" weather. The chief interest in the exploration seemed to lie in the fact that the island gives "one of the very best examples in the world of the processes of mountain and valley manufacture." From the examination of the glaciers, there is some reason to believe that the climate is ameliorating. A tourists' inn, it may be added, has been opened at Advent Point on the west coast. Lieut. Vandeleur tells of various expeditions made by him in Uganda and the adjacent countries. The most interesting was one down the Nile, during which he landed at several of the old stations of Emin Pasha. There were few signs remaining of the Egyptian occupation, nor did there appear to be any Dervishes in the "uninviting" country. Under the British rule, however, Uganda is progressing rapidly. The population is increasing largely. "A regular post has been established, which the chiefs avail themselves of to write to each other," and a silver currency is taking the place of cowries and beads. A description of the work of the commission for laying down the southern boundary of Afghanistan, by Capt. McMahon, contains some vivid pictures of the borderland of India and its great deserts of moving sand, parts of which were anciently inhabited by a dense population, as is attested by the numerous remains of cities and canals. The line passed over an extraordinary earthquake crack, "as clearly defined as a deep railway cutting," which was surveyed for 120 miles. Besides numerous illustrations, each of these articles is accompanied by admirable maps. There is to be noted a lack of uniformity in the spelling of the geographical names in the text and on the maps, and it is accordingly difficult to determine which is the correct form, as, for instance, Hinloopen or Hinlopen, and Kobuk or Kohuk. A suggestive paper, by A. W. Andrews, discusses the teaching of geography in relation to history.

—In perusing volume v. of *Cosmopolis*, including the numbers for the first three months of the second year of its existence (January–March, 1897), we are impressed with the success which has attended this venturesome undertaking. To enlist for a single review such an array of first-class writers, representing the principal currents of modern literature and three different nations, was no small feat. This once accomplished, the rest may have been comparatively plain sailing. Still, the coördination and adjustment of so large a number of articles, from eighteen to twenty-two in each number, is fraught with difficulties to overcome and dangers to be avoided. The average length of fifteen pages for each contribution, conditioned by the nearly uniform size (300 pp.) of each issue, is seldom exceeded by any of the writers; and this measure strikes us as a judicious one if the aim be to keep clear both of the Scylla of scrappiness and the Charybdis of heaviness—relative

terms, to be sure, but not absolutely indefinite. While none of the articles are ponderous, nearly all of them are sufficiently serious; even such genial discourse as Max Müller's "Literary Recollections" contains so much of interest about literary celebrities of the last fifty years, and is interspersed with so many reflections and judgments, that at least every student or lover of English literature will feel repaid for reading the articles. But we must not begin to single out individual names when nearly all belong to the foremost novelists, critics, historians, politicians, etc., of England, France, and Germany. The utility of such an international and trilingual review will not for a moment be questioned by any one who has occasional half-hours to spare for orienting himself, or keeping up his interest in the literary, political, artistic, and scientific movements of the time, and who, in so doing, likes to enjoy the flavor of the soil on which he happens to be moving. The publisher (T. Fisher Unwin) has now arranged for a monthly supplement in Russian, and announces for the near future similar supplements in Dutch, Scandinavian, and Italian, all of which can be procured separately.

—On April 14 the Zoölogical Station at Naples celebrated the twenty-fifth anniversary of its foundation, and the *Frankfurter Zeitung* of March 24 and 25 anticipated this event by giving a bird's eye view of the work done by that important aquarium and biological laboratory, which has served as a model to numerous similar institutions that have since sprung up in various parts of Europe and America as well as in Japan. It was at a time when the scientific experts were still hotly debating the numerous questions suggested by Darwin's theories, that it occurred to Dr. Anton Dohrn to found, somewhere on the Mediterranean, a laboratory where marine animals might be studied at home, as it were; his belief being that the sea furnished the most valuable specimens for biological research. He had considerable means of his own, and he added to them the profits of his public aquarium at Naples These, however, did not suffice for carrying out his comprehensive plans, and he therefore appealed to the governments and universities of various countries for assistance. Naples gave him a convenient location, while the Ministry of Agriculture at Rome contributed $8,000 and an annual subvention of $500. The German Government recognized the value of the Zoölogical Station in 1880 by voting to contribute $7,500 a year, which sum was in 1890 increased to $10,000. These funds are augmented by means of an ingenious arrangement with various states and universities by which, in return for $500 a year, any one can secure a "table" in the laboratory with all the privileges and conveniences it affords. Germany and her universities have 10 tables, Italy 9, Austria and Russia 2 each, Holland, Belgium, Hungary, Switzerland, Rumania, Bulgaria, 1 each, while others are held by the universities of Oxford, Cambridge, Columbia, the British Association, Smithsonian Institution, etc. The only state that ever gave up its table was Spain, which no longer felt able to pay for it.

—The means for securing material for all these students are as ingenious as the financial arrangements. Two small steamboats are in the service of the Zoölogical Station, and $1,500 is yearly paid to the Naples fishermen at large, who have instructions to bring to the laboratory such contents of their nets as are not utilized in the markets. Not only do the managers in this way secure abundant specimens for use in the laboratory, but arrangements have been made for forwarding specimens to biologists in all parts of Europe, this being another source of income. The institution employs 11 officials and 30 assistants, and the number of students is about 40 in winter, 20 in summer. As certain animals are available only at certain seasons, experimenters are informed beforehand as to the time when they should come to Naples; and so great is the supply of specimens in the aquarium that a student need not be delayed an hour in getting to work. The expense of maintaining the aquarium is great, and there are other ways in which the exchequer is depleted, especially by the literary department. In 1876 the Station commenced the publication of an exhaustive work on the fauna and flora of the Gulf of Naples. There are now twenty-four volumes, the preparation of some of which took a decade and cost over $4,000 apiece. Two other publications are issued by the institute, one (now in its eleventh volume) being entitled *Mittheilungen aus der Zoologischen Station in Neapel*, while the other, *Zoologischer Jahresbericht*, is an ambitious and extremely useful attempt to catalogue the scientific publications of Germany, France, Italy, and England.

—In view of the persistent efforts in behalf of the amelioration of the state of women in Germany, it does not seem that the present unfavorable conditions can last many years longer. The periodical press, exclusively or in part devoted to the woman's cause, continues its work with unabated activity. Such papers as *Die Frauenbewegung* (Berlin), the organ of a dozen associations in different parts of Germany and Switzerland; *Neue Bahnen* (Leipzig), the official organ of the General Women's Union; *Die Gleichheit* (Stuttgart), devoted to the cause of the women of the laboring classes—with all the warmth flowing from sincere sympathy for the oppressed, and with the stern determination springing from faith in the ultimate triumph of socialism; *Die Frau* (Berlin), a monthly edited by Helene Lange and representing the interests of women in the most catholic spirit—these and others do not allow a single phase of the woman question to escape their attention. That the Social Democrats are stanch supporters of "equal rights" for women is well known. Pastor Naumann of Frankfort, the famous Christian Socialist, also comes to the aid of the subjected sex with occasional articles in the columns of *Die Hilfe* (Berlin), the weekly founded by him some three years ago and of which he is still a leader-writer. A multitude of pamphlets, appearing steadily at short intervals, are mostly concerned with the problem in its bearings upon the middle and higher classes, and the relation between these and the lower strata. Thus, E. von der Decken, in 'Die gebildete Frau und die neue Zeit' (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck), writes in the somewhat conservative spirit of a modern Christian gentlewoman on the duties which existing social conditions impose upon the women of the higher classes. 'Die Ausnahmestellung Deutschlands in Sachen des Frauenstudiums,' by Eliza Ichenhaeuser (Berlin: Walther), disposes easily and effectually of some of the most recent enemies of university education for women: Prof. Platter and Prof. Dr. Albert—the latter, a distinguished Viennese surgeon, having previously been met in a manful way by one of his own pupils, Dr. M. Kronfeld, in 'Die Frauen und die Medicin' (Vienna: Konegen). Prof. Dr. O. Lassar deserves recognition as a propagandist among the commercial and industrial classes, before representatives of which, in Berlin, he delivered an address on 'Das medicinische Studium der Frau' (Berlin: Karger), treating the subject from the general human standpoint.

FOOTE'S ANNALS OF KING'S CHAPEL.

Annals of King's Chapel. From the Puritan Age of New England to the Present Day. By Henry Wilder Foote. Vol. II. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1896.

It is now fifteen years since the first volume of Mr. Foote's Annals was reviewed in these columns. The second volume fully maintains the interest of its predecessor, notwithstanding the fact that, owing to Mr. Foote's death in 1889, its form and arrangement have depended much on other hands than his. Mr. Henry H. Edes has proved a careful and judicious editor, availing himself of what was best in the mountain of material amassed by Mr. Foote and of the assistance of several competent and sympathetic workers, notably Dr. A. P. Peabody and Dr. Joseph Henry Allen. Mr. Foote's classmate and friend, Mr. Winslow Warren, has an appreciative chapter on Mr. Foote's ministry—a pathetic addition to the book as Mr. Foote intended it. On the other hand, it falls short of his intention through omitting a chapter on the Unitarian Movement, and a "List of the Parishioners who were not Proprietors of Pews," for which he had made some preparation. But Mr. Edes found the inclusion of this task too formidable. In regard to the Unitarian Movement he does well to suggest that Dr. Allen's 'Historical Sketch of the Unitarian Movement since the Reformation' has done away with the necessity for the chapter which Mr. Foote intended and the editor has omitted.

It is generally as true of happy churches as of happy peoples that they have no annals—at least, none that make interesting reading. The history of King's Chapel was not a happy one during the period of sixty years, from its founding by Sir Edmund Andros in 1686 to the resignation of the Bishop's commissary, the Rev. Roger Price, in 1747—a period covered by Mr. Foote's first volume; and the humorous interest of that volume inhered very largely in the unhappiness of the Episcopal Church in a Puritan community, and in the strained relations which habitually subsisted between the rectors of the church and their people and their assistant ministers. In this volume we have 150 years of almost unbroken felicity in the relations of the chief ministers and people, while the relations of the parish to the "King's Lecturer" were a continual source of friction and annoyance to all who were concerned. But while these infelicities were discounted much more easily after 1746 than before, there were, as time went on, other elements involved in the situation that made superfluous the Nemesis which dogs the steps of the too happy. For the one revolution of the early period, which overthrew Sir Edmund Andros, we have two revolutions in the present volume to make things sufficiently unhappy and to keep up the interest—the first (1776) robbing King's Chapel of its prestige as the Chapel Royal of Great Britain in New England, and the second (1784) eliminating from the prayer-book of the Chapel its Trinitarian elements and converting its congregation into the first Unitarian Society in the United States.

But it would be most unjust to these annals to create the impression that their interest depends entirely on the two revolutions which affected so profoundly the fortunes of King's Chapel. The quiet, uneventful ministries of Drs. F. W. P. Greenwood and Ephraim Peabody are reported in a way that will be very agreeable to those who love to "follow the things that make for peace" as well as wars and fightings. Then, too, there is much all the way along for those who care for the development of ecclesiastical manners and religious opinions and social character. Many, we are confident, will find in the social aspects of these annals their most entertaining and instructive quality, especially as these aspects are associated with the personality of many celebrated people. It was much easier to be celebrated, or at least conspicuous, in a Boston of 12,000 people than in a Boston forty times as large. Then the individual was not so swallowed up as now in the great multitude. Hardly can it be possible that the men and women of our generation will be memorialized as patiently and tenderly as those who live again for us in Mr. Foote's attractive page. Some of the most interesting passages are those which bring us into a vivid intimacy with such men as Govs. Shirley and Pownall and Bernard, such citizens as Sir Harry Frankland and Dr. Silvester Gardner and his son John, the Minots and the Bulfinches, and Col. Joseph May. Col. May was the tutelary musical genius of the Chapel and the most intimate friend of Dr. Freeman, but is even more distinguished as the father of Samuel J. May of anti slavery fame. At the conclusion of the son's college course his father addressed him somewhat formally, and concluded: "If you have not improved your advantages, or should be hereafter slothful, I thank God that I have not property to leave you that will hold you up in a place among men where you will not deserve to stand." The good words were never mocked by the son's character at any stage of his career. Agnes Surriage, the wife of Sir Harry Frankland, is described in glowing terms, and by consulting the "Plan of Pews," opposite p. 588, the curious may discover the very pew in which she sat and listened to Mr. Caner's painful preaching. There is also a fine picture of Sir Harry's house, the most sumptuous dwelling of the colonial city. The book is rich in portraits and other illustrations, some architectural details being introduced very happily as head and tail pieces. Of the portraits, that of Sumner is as superb in youthful vigor as that of Dr. Walker is unsatisfactory in its senility. There was no falling off in the distinction of a congregation which could boast such a statesman as Sumner and such a poet as Holmes. Charles Sprague also, "the banker poet," was a parishioner, but the circumstance which suggested his loveliest poem, "Gay, guiltless pair," was, unfortunately for the Chapel, not associated with its history.

The present volume opens with the induction of the Rev. Henry Caner to the ministry of the Chapel in 1746. His rectorate ended only with the general exodus of the Royalists in 1776. The most fortunate event of his ministry was the building of a new church, a worthy example of the Renaissance architecture of the eighteenth century, happily preserved till now, though menaced terribly by fire and the more cruel rage of modern improvement. The movement for a new church began in 1748, very shortly after Mr. Caner's installation, the circumstances of which had something of Puritan detachment from English models. He was chosen by the congregation, not imposed by the English bishop; and though the King's Lecturer began with imagining himself the superior functionary, he was very quickly disabused and given to know that the congregation held him in inferior respect. Gov. Shirley led off the subscription for the new church with £100 sterling, and Sir Harry Frankland with half as much. Peter Faneuil outdid the Governor, subscribing £200, though at the time he was building Faneuil Hall and Market as a free gift to the town. The death of Faneuil called a halt, and there was even much difficulty and litigation in extracting the amount of his subscription from his brother Benjamin. Many of the original subscribers added liberally to their original subscriptions before the completion of the work, and there were supplementary subscribers, Sir William Pepperell's being the most famous name upon the list. Though still far from completion, the building was occupied in 1754. In 1758 it had cost £7,405 sterling, a goodly sum when every dollar went much further than it does at present. The new church required a new organ, and Mr. Foote argues plausibly enough for the validity of the tradition that it was selected by an organist of the rarest competency, Handel himself. It has had various vicissitudes, but even now there is something more remaining of it than the case. The crown and mitres which ornamented it before the Revolution, and went into banishment simultaneously with the rector, have been put back where they belong.

There are many interesting side-lights on he story from the political history of the times. One of these, if it should not be called a shadow, came from the death of Gov. Shirley's son with Braddock in his miserable defeat. Another came from the death of that young reprobate, Frederick Prince of Wales, in 1751. It cost the chapel £88 to mourn for him properly, and Mr. Caner a good deal of ingenuity in describing "the well attemper'd majesty and familiarity which are said to have adorn'd this prince's character." On the death of George II., his virtues were somewhat obscured by the splendor of the rising sun, King George the Third, and still there was enough said about "the Glories of his Reign, the Wisdom of his Counsels," and so on.

It was not long before the "region cloud" began to mask the new effulgence. Chapter xvi. of these annals, the fourth in the present volume, is entitled "The Gathering Storm." Gov. Pownall, who succeeded Shirley in 1757, was called a "fribble" by Samuel Adams, and it is conceded by our annalist that he "did not adorn the church as his predecessor had done"; but he divined the situation with remarkable perspicacity, and had he remained, Samuel Adams might have found his occupation gone. In 1783 we find him writing of American independence in a fashion which smacks more of Thomas Paine than of a royal Governor: "I look upon it as a dispensation of Providence, under which the world for [the] future shall, in its polity, be established on and governed by a *new system*, according to the laws of nature and the rights of man." Bernard, his successor, was a much better churchman but a much worse Governor, though even his churchmanship was not above suspicion, for he was "no bigot." Instead of riding from Roxbury into Boston, he often attended the nearest Congregational church, that in Brookline, where the length of the sermons had "a leaning to the side of mercy." He struck the keynote of his whole administration when, in his first address to the Assembly, he spoke of the blessings derived by the colonies from "their *subjection* to Great Britain"—a phrase which was deliberately varied to "their *relation*" in the formal reply to his address. In 1763 we find Mr. Caner referring to the "turbulent and unruly temper" of the times. Gov. Hutchinson was not connected with King's Chapel, but with "the Brick Church at the North End." Nevertheless, his relations to the Chapel were of the friendliest character, and his political temper was that of the majority of the congregation. The last service in the Chapel, before the war broke out, was on September 18, 1774, "before General Gage & his officers & a very numerous & polite assembly, from the text 'Be kindly affectioned one toward another in brotherly love.'" But the sickness of the time was beyond the healing power of texts or sermons, though to aggravate it they could still do much.

Hutchinson wrote in his History that "the people had been persuaded that their religion as well as their liberties was in danger." We have here the subject of chapter xvii., "Episcopacy and the Mayhew Controversy." It is one of the most instructive chapters in the book. It is refreshing and consoling as well as instructive, so much more liberal was the scope of partisan denunciation then than now, so much more full and rich the vocabulary of clerical vituperation. The controversy was begun in 1763 and ended in 1765. It was opened and closed by East Apthorp, the Episcopal missionary at Cambridge. Formally its subject was the corporate right of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts to use its funds for anything but the conversion of the Indian. Practically it took a wider range, and covered the whole question of the relation of the colonies to the English Church. John Adams went straight to the heart of the matter when he said, "If Parliament could tax us, they could establish the Church of England here, with all its creeds, articles, tests, ceremonies, and tythes, and prohibit all other churches as conventicles and schism-shops." Mayhew, minister of the West Church in Boston, was the ablest of the controversialists in opposition to Episcopacy. He found himself "not wounded, but bespattered" by the enemy, and sometimes bespattered with such filth as one finds on p. 266, too dirty to transcribe. The honors in this regard, however, were pretty evenly divided, the lesser lights outshining their superiors in the brilliancy of their controversial conceits.

The number of inhabitants remaining in Boston in February, 1776, is given as only 2,719. Mr. Caner left for Halifax March 10, with seventeen other Episcopal clergymen of Boston and vicinity, when the King's troops marched out and Washington came in. Mr. Caner's warning was so brief that he had to leave his books and furniture behind. The rector of Trinity Church was an ardent Loyalist, and his assistant was making ready to follow him to Halifax when Dr. Eliot of the New North Church prevailed on him to stay and look out for the spiritual interests of the Episcopalians remaining in the city. The assistant was the Rev. Samuel (afterwards Bishop) Parker, and the forlorn remnant of the King's Chapel congregation waited on his ministry. Of seventy-three pews in King's Chapel thirty had been occupied by Loyalists and forty-three by those of the Revolutionary party. The congregation of the Old South held their services in it for about five years, their own church having been spoiled for their occupancy by the British soldiery. The amenities of this posture

of affairs were in pleasing contrast with the Mayhew controversy.

In 1781, measures were set on foot for the resumption of their own services in the Chapel by the remnant of its former congregation. The first gentleman approached was Mr. Thomas Fitch Oliver of Salem, then a lay reader, and he was warned that the theology of the Society was "Calvinism a little tempered." The negotiation failed, but from this intimation it would seem that Mr. Freeman, whose own Calvinism must have been "a little tempered" from the start, did not come to a people wholly adverse to his opinions. Acting as lay reader for a few months, in April, 1783, Mr. Freeman was chosen pastor of the church. Very soon after, his doubts concerning the Trinity led him to omit all references to that doctrine in the liturgy. His method was quite different from that of the Congregationalist "silent brotherhood." He preached a course of sermons setting forth the change in his opinions in the most explicit manner. He requested a change in the liturgy conformable to the omissions he had made. His request was granted by a vote of twenty yeas to seven nays. An amusing feature of the new prayer-book was a series of doxologies, written by Joel Barlow, subsequently of infidel reputation.

In becoming Unitarian, the church did not at first imagine that it had ceased to be Episcopalian. Mr. Freeman first sought ordination from Bishop Seabury of Connecticut, who was still receiving the half-pay of a British chaplain. The Bishop consulted his clergy, and they advised Mr. Freeman "to go home, to read, to alter his opinions, and then to return." He next tried Dr. Provoost, Bishop-elect of New York, who approved the altered liturgy, but could not act at once. Weary of delay, the Society resolved to ordain their minister themselves, and did so November 18, 1787. This business was the subject of some controversy, but the affairs of the Episcopalians generally at that time were in a fluid state. A few strong men would have carried them over bodily to the theological position of King's Chapel. Nothing could mark more clearly the naïve uncertainty of the King's Chapel Society as to its ecclesiastical standing than a vote passed in 1808, when Mr. Cary was ordained as Mr. Freeman's assistant, to the effect that, if at any time they could procure for him Episcopal ordination, they would do so.

Landscape in Poetry, from Homer to Tennyson. By Francis Turner Palgrave. Macmillan Co. 1897.

In this volume of 300 pages the late Professor of Poetry in the University of Oxford has followed the example of his predecessors in that chair, M. Arnold (1857-'67) and J. C. Shairp (1877-'85), in publishing his Oxford lectures (delivered during 1895). In the March number of *Cosmopolis*, Max Müller, in his gentle reminiscences, expressed the hope that these lectures would soon appear.

"They are full of most valuable information, and would prove very useful to many as a book of reference. I have known no one better informed on English poetry than my friend Palgrave. . . . I owe him a great deal, particularly in my early Oxford days. For it was he who revised my first attempts at writing in English. . . . He is now one of the very few friends left who remember my first appearance in Oxford in 1846, and who were chiefly instrumental in retaining my services for a university which has proved a true Alma Mater to me during all my life."

One realizes how deeply the University Extension movement has struck root at Oxford when the Professor of Poetry announces that, in his University lectures, extension students have been "specially kept in view." It is to them, in fact, that the book will chiefly appeal, and Mr. Palgrave pays no very high compliment to the scholarship of the candidates in the "English Honour School" when he recommends these essays to their attention.

Matthew Arnold, in one of his letters, expressed the wish that "a somewhat considerable body of Greek and Latin literature should be so rendered as to make it accessible to readers anxious for some familiarity with the literature of those great languages, which they have studied but little." Mr. Palgrave's aim was to review the treatment of landscape in Greek and Latin, Hebrew, early Italian, Celtic, Anglo-Saxon, and English poetry; and, in the narrow space that he allowed himself, he could devote only about a fifth of the work to the Greek and Latin poets, so that Arnold's wish is only partially realized. Mr. Palgrave is no essayist. It would be vain to expect, in these chapters, the wit, the style, the charm and effectiveness of Arnold's 'Celtic Literature' or 'Art of Translating Homer.' But the tact and appreciation that have made the 'Golden Treasury of Lyrics' "a monument of a nation's strength," have been exercised in the choice of these quotations to which Mr. Palgrave's commentary serves as a thread.

There are "nine and sixty ways" of handling nature, and Arnold has indicated four of them—the conventional, the faithful (which, to invert Beethoven's motto, is *mehr Malerei als Ausdruck der Empfindung*), the Greek, and the magical. He never hinted that chronology could be imported into this classification. Mr. Palgrave, on the other hand, tries to show that man's attitude to nature, in literature, has had a development more or less chronological, though his four periods, as he admits, constantly overlap. According to this treatment, the first step in the poetry of landscape is taken by Homer, with whom nature is the background of human life, though, as constantly in the classical poets, there is the added element of personification, according to which the god, in Pater's phrase, might, at any moment, "slip out of the bark of the olive tree." This is the "Greek way," taken from one side; but Mr. Palgrave will meet the classical scholar half-way who objects that this does not go far towards summing up the Greek and Roman attitude to nature. The view of C. W. Cope, which had some vogue forty years ago, that the Greek feeling for landscape was entirely utilitarian, is justly ignored to-day. The weakness of Mr. Palgrave's method is due to the fact that no great poet has contented himself with one way of handling nature, nor, at any period of literary history, has one method held the field. "There is nothing in Wordsworth more real," says Mr. Lang, "more full of the incommunicable sense of nature, . . . than the Theocritean poem of the Fisherman's Dream." This is only one of the many instances that will occur to the scholar of the modern attitude, latent or plainly expressed, in classical poetry. Hebrew poetry, with its sense of God's law in every natural appearance, is here classed apart; yet one remembers how, even for the "classical" eighteenth-century English poets, especially for Thomson and Akenside, the seasons were "but the varied God." Thirdly, we have the whole field of mediæval literature, with Romance, Celtic (from which Mr. Arnold derived the "magical way"), and Teutonic (from which Wordsworth drew that "Germanic goodness, docility, and fidelity to nature," which made him perceive in "one impulse from a vernal wood" a whole extension movement and a complete ethical code). "Fourthly, knowledge of nature becomes intimacy." Mr. Palgrave's handling of Shelley under this head is hardly sympathetic, but the chapter on his friend Tennyson leaves little to be desired.

In the case of the Greek, Latin, and Italian quotations the original text is given in footnotes—a great advantage for the scholar, who will never be satisfied with another's translation, however faithful. The chapter on early Italian poetry will interest students of Dante; that on Celtic and Gaelic poetry should be read along with Arnold's lecture. We think that, in the chapter on the eighteenth century, more should have been said as to the survival, even in the day of Dryden and Pope, of a sympathetic handling of nature by the minor English poets. Mr. Palgrave's work is not final for any period, but it is sure to attract many readers. We are surprised that he does not mention Biese, whose exhaustive treatises, "Die Entwickelung des Naturgefühls bei den Griechen [1882], bei den Römern [1884], im Mittelalter und in der Neuzeit [1888]," are by far the most important works on this subject. Butcher's excellent essay, 'The Dawn of Romanticism in Greek Poetry,' should have been cited. The English throughout is careless and, here and there, startlingly incorrect. On page 152, note, for *Davies* read *Daniel*.

Genius and Degeneration. By Dr. William Hirsch. Translated from the second German edition. D. Appleton & Co. 1896. Pp. vi, 333.

This volume was announced as an answer to that of Nordau. It is, in fact, a much more serious and valuable work than Nordau's, and a good deal more than a refutation. The writer, after treating the two topics of the title independently, goes on (with more spirit, possibly, than the subject deserves) to show the fallacies of his contemporary.

As to the independent treatment, the reader will find it calm, competent, and convincing. It is the patient product of a specialist in mental pathology; and although it takes unnecessary space in places to prove the evident, and goes to unnecessary pains to disprove the absurd, yet that is a good fault in a work which is to reach the general reader. For example, there is the question as to how really great men can have the sense-illusions which it seems they do have and still be considered sane. It would seem to be evident that any great variation in central brain-processes, whatever be its direction, whether toward unusual endowment or toward defect, would tend to include some variation in the sense-functions. There is no more reason for thinking the illusions of Goethe a pathological symptom than for considering as such the increased vaso-motor activity due to the excitement of hard thinking, simply on the ground that insane patients have violent changes in blood-pressure. And the same may be said in reference to the sort of symptomatic or diagnostic evidence on which the argument of Lombroso, Nordau & Co. generally rests. A certain symptom is liable to be present in a certain case; hence, wherever this symptom or something like it is present, there is the identical disease. To proceed on such a diagnostic in daily life would be

to kill ourselves off to save the doctor's bills; or, what is worse, to do so to prove a theory of medicine. As a matter of fact, we do not wear on our exterior a catalogue of symptoms which can be read off with such ease. Dr. Hirsch, however, takes this problem and others like it very seriously, and certainly deserves credit for patience.

As to his positive views, he develops them on both the topics—Genius and Degeneration—separately. Genius he thinks cannot be psychologically defined, because it has no constant psychological differentia; there are geniuses and geniuses, and the discussion as to what constitutes a man a genius is beside the mark, for the disputant may be considering some other sort of genius. There is a good deal of truth in this, from the point of view of popular usage. And it is needful to say it, since the discussions of genius are made semi-popular usually even by the psychologists, who yield to the temptation to show, in one topic at least, that their science is not dry. The objective, uncolored, is usually dry; yet it is just the aim of exact science to be objective and uncolored. In this matter of genius, the psychologist should have a meaning for the word—if he use it at all—and the drier the meaning the better. Furthermore, Nordau and the rest may be better met on their own ground. The greatest of all the world's geniuses, even in popular confession, are the men who work revolutions in thought, not those who strike a spark from this particular anvil or that in our human workshop. And the law of variations, which holds as well of mental endowment as of biological equipment, accounts well enough for the wealth of contrast which such men show in the details of their mental constitution. Besides, while our author mentions the weakness of the use made of statistics by these quasi-scientists, he does not adequately explain their utter incapacity in this direction.

In the matter of degeneracy, Hirsch takes a very wide view, finding degeneracy "to embrace all cases of defective development of the psychical organ." "Degenerates are mental monstrosities." This would be accepted probably by very few competent judges. The definition of degeneracy in terms of down-hill heredity, of run-out blood and used-up stock, is the most current and the best, since it falls in line with the usage and theories of the biologists. But in the matter of diagnosis in any particular case—this so-called genius or that—it matters not what the definition of degeneracy be. For Hirsch's point holds, that in any case we cannot distinguish, merely from diagnosis of symptoms, whether a particular defect arises from heredity, disturbances of development, alcoholism, or what not. His critical banter of Nordau along this line is very entertaining.

Dr. Hirsch enlivens his work with many literary allusions, and gives us a chapter which we hardly had a right to expect: a chapter nominally on the question of Richard Wagner's supposed insanity, but really including a detailed study of Wagner's dramatic compositions. This is very instructive as showing the appreciation of a medical man for musical genius—and its limitations—but the inclusion of it in such a work looks like "stuffing." It will enhance the value of the book, however, for the popular reader, and give him information for which he should be seeking. On the whole, the work is healthy reading on morbid topics. The sections on education and genius and on the dangers to society from all the common talk about degeneration, sexual pathology, spiritism, telepathy, etc.—seeing that it tends to loosen the general criteria of reality in intellectual and moral things, and lessen their binding force—are most strongly to be commended.

Dahomé, Niger, Touareg: Récit de voyage. Par le Commandant Toutée. Paris: A. Colin & Cie. 1897. Map. Pp. xxi, 370. 12mo.

THE activity of the French in developing and extending their West African possessions has a fresh illustration in the above work. The account of the preparations for the mission and the march through Dahomey is dull; but as soon as the unexplored Bariba country is entered, a keen interest is awakened in the picturesque narrative of the author's reception by the kinglets of the various villages through which he passed, and of the manner in which he made treaties with them. In February, 1895, seven weeks after leaving the coast, he reached the Niger in latitude 9° 30′, where he founded a post and built boats for the ascent of the river. For some eight hundred miles he made his way up the stream until he came into the region under French influence. The obstacles to navigation from the numerous rapids he holds to have been greatly exaggerated by the few Europeans who have seen them. The country bordering the river in this part of its course, which had been described as largely desert, he found very fertile and highly cultivated in regions where the inhabitants were not exposed to the raids of the Touaregs. The only time when the expedition was obliged to fight was when it encountered an attack from these marauders, who keep a country larger than Egypt and with apparently greater resources practically a desolate wilderness.

M. Toutée takes frequent occasion to criticise the action of the Royal Niger Company towards French explorers, but he gracefully acknowledges the hospitality with which its officials treated him on his passage down the river. In a sober estimate of the value to France of the newly acquired territory, he says that he detected no signs of mineral wealth in it, and, though its soil is undoubtedly very rich, yet the climate renders white colonization impossible. He believes that the true policy is to allow the natives themselves to develop their land by defending them from the raids of the slave-hunting Mohammedans of the south and east, and from the Touaregs of the north. In his story the Commandant manifests a kindly and sympathetic feeling for the natives, as well as great tact in dealing with them. He justly prides himself on the peaceful character of his mission, with the single exception noted above, and there can be no doubt that the gold medal of the Société de Géographie bestowed upon him was well deserved. There is a map of the route followed by the expedition.

Topical Notes on American Authors. By Lucy Tappan. Boston, Silver, Burdett & Co.

WE cannot commend this work for either its plan or its execution. We are told in the preface that it is "the outgrowth of several years' teaching in the Gloucester [Mass.] High School." One would suppose that the compiler of a text-book on this subject would have read the preface to 'The Scarlet Letter'; and that a resident of Gloucester would have sufficient local knowledge to see how far from the truth is the statement that Hawthorne's surveyorship was "at the time of Salem's importance as a seaport." Some of Miss Tappan's facts are so novel that it would be interesting to know her authority—for example, that Samuel J. Tilden was a classmate of Emerson; nor is it easy to see how the latter can "now" make Concord "the Delphi of New England." Of Thoreau we are told that "he never left Concord except for a lecturing tour or a pedestrian excursion," though remarks on the next page show the incorrectness of this statement. Of Longfellow we learn that he abandoned the law for journalism, but no hint is given as to where or when he practised either. Cooper is said, correctly, to have written political novels, but, of the six mentioned as such, only two have anything to do with politics, while three show by their titles that they deal with mediæval Europe.

In the chapter on Poe we find two contributions to original knowledge, viz., that his parents were married in Boston, and that it was during his editorship of the *Messenger* that Mitchell's 'Reveries' were published therein. As this author was only fourteen when Poe ceased to be editor, his precocity was almost equal to that of Tilden, who, born in 1814, is represented as belonging to the Harvard class of 1821. In one other respect, however, this chapter is remarkable: where different authorities claim different employments for Poe at a particular date, Miss Tappan avoids the necessity of a discussion by narrating both without a hint that one excludes the other. Thus, before 1878, Poe's biographers, on his authority, said that in 1827 he started for Greece and was seen in St. Petersburg; in 1884 Mr. Woodberry discovered that during this time he was in the army. In this compendium we have both versions, given without reference or authority, as successive events.

The Children. By Alice Meynell. New York: John Lane.

IN this series of brief essays Mrs. Meynell very vividly contrasts the modern belief that childhood is a beauty and not a defect, with the mediæval idea that children were limbs of Satan, to be regenerated by sternness, and filled with wisdom and religion while still in infancy. John Evelyn's child, at five, had

> "got by heart almost the entire vocabulary of Latin and French primitives and words, could make congruous syntax, turn English into Latin, and vice versa, construe and prove what he read, and did the government and use of relatives, verbs, subtantives, ellipses, and many figures and tropes, and made a considerable progress in Comenius's 'Janua,' and had a strong passion for Greek."

This child died—but the system of education based on the theory that a child was mentally and morally on a par with the instructor lasted well down to the middle of this century. Perhaps Mrs. Meynell goes to the other extreme in her appreciation. She presents us sublimated children, without suggestion of bad temper, greediness, or cruelty. She notes only their fine eyebrows and faultless color; their cold cheeks in midwinter; and their unconscious elegances of sentiment, language, and behavior—in short, she writes of them from a point of view wholly æsthetic.

The book is full of pleasant anecdotes, such as "the saying of a little boy who admired his much younger sister, and thought her forward for her age; 'I wish people knew just how old she is, mother, then they would know

she is onward. They can see she is pretty, but they can't know she is such a onward baby.'" Mrs. Meynell writes a little too consciously, but she often conveys a trite observation in very graceful phraseology: "It is not true—though it is generally said—that a young child's senses are quick. This is one of the unverified ideas that commend themselves, one knows not why. . . . Not even amateur conjuring does so baffle the slow turning of a child's mind as does a little intricacy of grammar." "It is the sweet and entire forgiveness of children, who ask pity for their sorrows from those who have caused them, who do not perceive that they are wronged, who never dream that they are forgiving, and who make no bargain for apologies—it is this that men and women are urged to learn of a child."

The book is well printed; but, for the first essay of a new press, as it is advertised to be, it shows a lack of careful proof-reading that is not a little surprising.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

American Baptist Year-Book. 1897. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society.
Ballard, H. H. Re-Open Sesame; Rhymed Acrostics. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.
Carlyle, Thomas. Heroes and Hero-Worship. The French Revolution, 3 vols. Cromwell's Letters and Speeches, Vol. I. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners.
France, Lewis B. Pine Valley. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Gibbins, H. de B. Industry in England: Historical Outlines. Scribners. $2.50.
Harper, Prof. G. McL. Augier's La Pierre de Touche. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Knowles, F. L. Cap and Gown. Second Series. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. $1.25.
Lombard, Louis. Observations of a Bachelor. F. T. Neely. 75c.
Marston, R. B. War Famine and Our Food Supply. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
Nichols, Prof. E. L. The Outlines of Physics: An Elementary Text-Book. Macmillan. $1.40.
Parkhurst, Rev. C. H. Talks to Young Men. Talks to Young Women. The Century Co. Each $1.
Robbins, E. R. Algebra Reviews. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Smeaton, Olyphant. Tobias Smollett. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 75c.
The Revolutionary Tendencies of the Age: Their Cause and Their Ultimate Aim. Putnams. $1.25.
Urmy, Clarence. A Vintage of Verse. San Francisco: William Doxey. $1.25.
Van Rensselaer, Mrs. Schuyler. One Man Who Was Content. The Century Co. $1.
Watts, W. C. Chronicles of a Kentucky Settlement. Putnams. $2.
Wendt, F. W. Ocean Sketches. New York: Colonial Book Co. 75c.
Wharton, Anne H. Martha Washington. Scribners.
Whiton, J. M. Reconsiderations and Reinforcements. Whittaker. 50c.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 6, 1897.

The Week.

The performance in the House of Representatives on Monday was a curious illustration of the fact that what seems to be a test vote may be quite untrustworthy as an indication of the real views of Congressmen. For weeks the question has been much discussed whether the Speaker ought not to comply with the rule which provides that, "unless otherwise specially ordered by the House, the Speaker shall appoint at the commencement of each Congress the standing committees." Mr. Reed made up his mind at the opening of the present session on the 15th of March that he would not comply with this rule, and the House consequently remains unorganized for business seven weeks later. There has been growing dissatisfaction with this policy of inaction, and Mr. Reed finally concluded to fortify himself by securing an endorsement of his attitude. A resolution directing the Speaker to appoint the committees immediately was therefore presented by Mr. Dingley, the Republican leader, with a speech which called upon every Republican to oppose it, and thus dispose of the matter, once for all. Only one member of the majority failed to respond to the demand, while more than half of the Democrats, under the lead of Mr. Bailey, stood with the dominant party.

The formal protest of the Austrian Government against the Dingley bill, in so far as it lays discriminating duties on Austrian sugar, was published last week. Mr. Dingley affects indifference to the protest, but what he would have affected seven years ago is hilarity. The more foreign countries made angry by his bill, the more gratifying the tribute to it as a great American measure. McKinleyites pointed with pride in 1890 to the misery their bill had caused in Vienna. Misery abroad meant prosperity at home. The madder the foreigner, the more jovial the native. But somehow even the protectionists have got it into their heads that it is not good policy to enrage a customer to whom they are anxious to sell goods. So instead of exulting over foreign irritation, they now deprecate it, as Mr. Dingley does. His only reproach is that the Austrians might have protested with "better grace" if they had not themselves discriminated against our products—had not, in fact, excluded them. That is to say, if Austria would not retaliate, and would only take our discriminating legislation meekly, we should think much more of her, and take her protests very kindly. Protests without retaliatory action we should receive from any number of nations with the utmost courtesy. But there are signs all around the horizon that this way of dissembling our love for our foreign customers is making them exceedingly weary. Canada has already produced a discriminating tariff against American imports. The German and Austrian threats to do likewise are scarcely veiled. And the strangest thing is that Mr. Dingley is troubled by what should, on his own principles, especially delight him.

The German Minister for Foreign Affairs in the Reichstag on Monday stated the German case against the Dingley bill with great dignity and force. The bill was not a law yet, and might never be; so it was premature to get excited about it. There should be no excitement even if the bill were to pass as it stands. The Government would protest, and it would take measures to defend German interests, but it would do both calmly. Baron von Bieberstein admitted that all the precedents in regard to the interpretation of the "most-favored-nation" treaties were not in his favor, though the President of the United States and the House of Representatives had conceded that a surtax on German sugar was in violation of treaty rights. At any rate the Dingley bill was in violation of international courtesy and good understanding between nations; certainly it invited reprisals; certainly it was in violation of the laws of international trade.

That was the Minister's main contention, just as it was the main contention of the Canadian Minister of Finance when he brought in his tariff bill in reply to Dingley's. Mr. Fielding said that the United States had shown, by the Dingley bill, that it was not disposed to trade with Canada; there could be no complaint, therefore, if Canada should make arrangements to trade elsewhere. The Canadian Government had concluded, said Minister Fielding, that "there must be one tariff for countries willing to trade with Canada, and a different tariff for countries not prepared to deal fairly with the Dominion." This may not be the soundest policy, but it is a perfectly natural policy. It is simply commending Mr. Dingley's chalice to his own lips. He cannot complain. In fact, he ought to rejoice at every promise of lessening foreign trade. He frankly tells importers who appear before his committee that, if he had his way, all ships would return from Europe empty. His tariff promises to bring about that idyllic condition, so far as possible. As for revenue, he expects to get that whether any goods come in or not. Under a wise high tariff, it is well known, foreigners come forward and pay quarterly at the custom-house, without regard to any sales of goods. Under a low tariff they "dump" goods upon us; under a high tariff they dump revenue.

Senator Jones of Nevada proved the *deus ex machina* for getting the tariff bill before the Senate without further delay in the finance committee. The amended measure was reported on Tuesday, and it is virtually a new creation. It implicitly confesses that the Dingley bill is not a measure for revenue, but for protection, that Mr. Dingley's figures of the amount of income to be expected from it are not to be depended on, and that to make receipts equal to expenditures an entirely new plan must be adopted. This view of the Senate committee is shown by the introduction of clauses increasing the beer and tobacco taxes and putting a duty on tea. Whatever else it may do, it will yield fifty or sixty millions more revenue than the Government is now receiving. It was this feature of the bill that caused stocks to advance on Tuesday. The other features are open to a good deal of criticism, on one side and the other. The duties are generally lower than those of the House bill, but are still much too high, while in particular items the duties are unjustifiably increased. Thus, while the duties on clothing wool are lowered, those on carpet wool are raised to an extent almost if not quite ruinous to the carpet industry. The duty of 1½ cents per pound on hides, while logically sound from the protectionist standpoint, will arouse fierce resistance and may even yet kill the whole measure. Other salient features are the omission of the reciprocity clause and the tacit abrogation of the present treaty with the Hawaiian Islands (a matter of much moment); the omission of the retroactive clause; the omission of the clause restricting to $100 the value of the personal effects of travellers; the change in the duties on books and works of art—the schedule of the Wilson bill being substantially retained; and the change in the sugar schedule, which, besides increasing the duties somewhat, changes the method of computing them. The date fixed for the act to go into effect is July 1. In the Dingley bill it was May 1. We desire to congratulate our readers on this return to sensible legislation, and to point out, humbly, that it has been brought about, not by intrigue, or pulling legs, or private correspondence, but by iterated public protest, by argument in the Senate, and by calling the attention of sensible men to

the real nature of the scheme, as loudly as possible.

There is evidently some nervousness among the Dingleyites lest some kind of a silver amendment shall be fastened upon the tariff bill in the Senate which may put the whole measure in jeopardy. The proposed duty on hides is not nearly so fearful as would be a clause providing for the purchase by the Government of any quantity of silver, however small. We are reassured, however, on this point by the Washington dispatches in the Philadelphia *Ledger*, which tell us that the Silver Senators are really good tariff men and do not wish to force any amendment which would prevent the bill from passing. This pleasing frame of mind deserves a reward, and we wonder that it did not occur to Mr. Dingley to put a moderate duty on silver, say 10 cents per ounce. Having given us duties of 25 cents per bushel on wheat, 15 cents on corn, 3 cents per head on cabbages, $4 per ton on hay, and 1 cent per pound on garlic, to protect the farmers, why should we not have a corresponding duty on silver to protect the miners? Are the latter less easily humbugged? Although we export silver in large quantities, as well as wheat, corn, and other products of the farm, is it not a fact that large quantities of silver are introduced into this country every year from Canada and Mexico? Yet we are absolutely without a duty on silver. Why will not some Senator move an amendment to cure this glaring defect and inconsistency?

One of the most protracted senatorial contests in the history of the country ended in the election of William J. Deboe by the Kentucky Legislature on Wednesday week. The campaign of 1895 gave the Republicans the governorship of that State, for the first time since the formation of the party, and held out the hope that they might secure the senatorship also, as they elected 68 of the 138 members of the Legislature, while Blackburn as the Democratic nominee could not get all of that party's 68 votes, and one of the two Populists inclined to the Republican side. But the whole of the regular session was consumed in a fruitless struggle, which left the final result still in doubt. The chapter of accidents which followed helped the Republicans, the vacancies caused by the deaths of Democrats resulting so generally in the success of Republican candidates that this party had a majority of the members when a special session was convened a few weeks ago. Factional controversies, however, had grown so bitter that union upon any man long seemed impossible, and the final choice, as often happens in such deadlocks, is a man who has not been especially conspicuous during the controversy. The Senator-elect makes a favorable impression upon the country by his statement that he favors the arbitration treaty and legislation to maintain the gold standard. Not the least cause for rejoicing in his success is the dismissal of the blatherskite whose seat he will take. The term of Mr. Lindsay, the other Senator from Kentucky, runs until 1901, and Blackburn can never again expect to be as strong as before this defeat.

There are various speculations as to the strength of the Republican party in the Senate after this accession from Kentucky. There are still two vacancies in the body, one from Florida, where an election has not yet been obtained, and the other from Oregon, where the Legislature failed to elect and no action has yet been taken regarding the admission of the Governor's appointee. This will make Mr. Deboe the eighty-eighth member, and forty-three of these are ranked as Republicans; but this includes several, like Wolcott of Colorado and Pritchard of North Carolina, who are really silverites, although they will support a Republican tariff bill—if they can get what they demand out of it. Kyle of South Dakota, who came in as a Populist six years ago, owes his recent reelection to the Republicans, and, if he should acknowledge the obligation, would give that party control of the Senate, through the Vice-President's casting vote, on any question which would unite Gold and Silver Republicans. The managers, however, place no dependence upon such a majority, and the committees are to be rearranged on the basis demanded by the Democrats and Populists.

April brought another surplus, this time of $6,000,000, to the national Treasury. The deficit for the fiscal year down to date is $33,000,000, and the Wilson bill may yet wipe that out if the Dingleyites only continue to rage and imagine vain things. The deficit would be only $18,000,000 now if the last Congress had not recklessly increased appropriations without adding a dollar to the revenue; and there is to-day a net cash balance in the Treasury, above the gold reserve, of $128,000,000! The folly of moving heaven and earth, putting business on the rack, and turning the country over to the Democrats, all for the professed purpose of getting money into a Treasury which already has too much, is apparent on a mere statement of these facts. If Congress would take steps to settle the currency question by assuring the gold standard, it could let the revenue take care of itself for two years with perfect safety. If the Wilson bill, then given the fair trial which it has not yet had, did not produce sufficient revenue, additional taxes could be laid. But the present Dingley remedy is only inflaming the disease.

The wrath of the silver wing of the Democratic party over Mr. Cleveland's speech at the Reform Club dinner has one especially comic aspect. It is easy to detect in it a note of despair at the discovery that the party is not yet rid of him as its most fearless and plain-spoken adviser. There was clearly a belief among the silverite Democrats that when Mr. Cleveland departed from the Presidency they were rid of him for good and all, but they now see that this was a delusion, and that he is disposed to go ahead speaking the truth as he sees it without regard to the feelings of anybody. They know what the consequences of this have been to them in the past. They know that he grew steadily in popular favor with every deliverance which especially angered them, and they fear an indefinite continuation of the same condition of things. If he is going to call public attention to their shortcomings, is going to denounce from time to time the unpatriotic character of their policies and doings, what hope is there for them of ever deluding the people sufficiently to get into power? He is more troublesome to them than an uneasy conscience is to a malefactor, for he does not chide them in a still small voice, but in tones so loud that the whole country hears him.

The craze for regulating all social relations by law has reached its extreme in a movement to have the public authorities control the use of the streets by young people in the evening. It first took the shape of an attempt to secure the passage of municipal ordinances forbidding persons under a certain age, usually sixteen, to be away from home after a fixed hour at night, generally nine o'clock. A number of towns and some cities of considerable size, both in the West and in the South, have yielded to this demand, and the Michigan Legislature was persuaded to pass a "curfew law," as it is called, for the whole State. Gov. Pingree has shown more sense in this matter than the law-makers, for he has vetoed the bill, on the ground that it involves interference by the State in matters of purely domestic concern. Roaming the streets at night is bad business for young people, but it would be worse for the community to have the State attempt the rôle of a beneficent parent. Such a venture is bound to be a failure, and would simply aggravate an evil which can be cured only by persuading and instructing fathers and mothers to do their duty by their children.

The view which we took of Mr. Moss at the time he was appointed Police Commissioner is fully vindicated by the work which he has already accomplished in the board. His intimate knowledge of the department and of the force has

been of great value, but most serviceable of all has been his long experience with Parker and his cheap little tricks. Parker is not a difficult man to comprehend, because he is neither shrewd nor subtle, but he is a very wearing person for an official associate because he never gets tired of trickery. He keeps at it day and night, and must be watched and thwarted constantly. There are unmistakable symptoms that he is very tired of his alliance with Grant, and well he may be, for Grant is not an easy burden for anybody to carry. It is a great pity that the Mayor did not see his way clear to move for the removal of both Parker and Grant when they declined even to receive the charges which Mr. Roosevelt brought against Chief Conlin for insubordination. There was no defence for them in this case, and the Mayor might have succeeded in ridding the city of both of them. So long as they remain in the board, it is of great importance to have them confronted with two members who can be depended upon to nullify their worst schemes, and this service is certain to be rendered by Messrs. Andrews and Moss. A "deadlock" of this sort is far more valuable to the city than any "harmony" which Parker and Grant would be willing to concede.

The submission of the budget estimates to the English Parliament on Thursday calls attention again to the radical difference between our own and the British methods of preparing for the year's public expenditures. The Chancellor of the Exchequer began by analyzing the results of the fiscal year ending March 31. The estimate of revenue, laid before Parliament a year ago, had proved to be nearly £4,000,000 under the actual returns. Since there was no apparent reason to expect a decrease in the revenue this coming year, the estimate of expenditure is now increased £1,610,000, leaving the taxes pretty much as they stand to-day. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach went at some length into the question of the sources of the revenue and the reason for its increase, and, taking the defensive on the added appropriations asked for—as the British Government is bound to do—explained in detail the reasons for the larger requirements. The budget was at once debated in the Commons, but only to advance objections against the projected increase in expenditure. The next procedure of Parliament will be to turn over these estimates of required supplies to an "audit committee" made up of the most experienced business men in Parliament. By these practical students of financial ways and means the estimates, item by item, are examined. Not infrequently, a part of the appropriation asked by the ministry is refused. Under no circumstances is the estimate increased. Time-honored parliamentary tradition has decreed that the ministry must ask for all it possibly may need, and must contrive the means of meeting such expenditure; it is the business of the House of Commons to guard jealously the public purse, and see that no unnecessary grants are made.

Let this procedure be contrasted with the practice of our Government. Our Executive submits an outside estimate of appropriations needed; it has no knowledge of prospective revenue bills, and no right to meddle with them. It is burdened with "permanent appropriations," voted perhaps a dozen years ago, reaching $120,000,000. The House makes an indifferent show of revising estimates of expenditure; eight separate committees are at work upon them, not one of which has anything to do with adjusting the prospective revenue. The Senate then juggles with the bills during a month or so, usually enlarging them by ten to twenty millions. The greater part of these additions fall on the sundry civil bill, which, as its name suggests, comprises every sort of miscellaneous claim which Senators can trump up against the Government. Meantime the ways and means committee is at work on a measure actually designed to shut out importations; estimates of the yield from the new revenue provisions vary from one another by as much as $60,000,000. The revenue bill is patched up after a fight with greedy seekers after personal advantage; the appropriation bills rush into law, very commonly at midnight on the 3d of March. Is it any wonder that our annual balance-sheet has swung between a surplus of $119,600,000 in 1888 and a deficit of $69,800,000 in 1894—both under high protective-tariff laws? Great Britain's annual revenue has only on eight occasions in the last thirty years fallen below the expenditure, the largest annual deficit in the period being barely $15,000,000; and in only two years out of thirty has the surplus revenue exceeded $16,000,000.

Sir William Harcourt succeeded on Thursday, with his charge that the Government was trying to get up a war in South Africa, in throwing Mr. Chamberlain into a rage. This alone the leader of the Opposition must have considered a great triumph, as the Secretary for the Colonies is one of the most icily self-possessed men in the world. His fury will convince the Liberals that Sir William touched the raw. Mr. Chamberlain probably does not mean war, but he evidently does mean to get into a warlike attitude in order to give his diplomatic arguments with the Transvaal a sharper edge. An extra military credit of $1,000,000 for South Africa and a fleet of war-ships in Delagoa Bay look extremely like preparation for arguing with pike and gun. Mr. Chamberlain appears to have some sort of secret understanding with Portugal about Delagoa Bay. The Portuguese Prime Minister has vowed that he has not sold or leased Delagoa Bay to England; that no ministry could live a day in Portugal which should propose such a thing. Yet there are sinful rumors about a Portuguese loan in London; the Portuguese Government says complacently, when its attention is called to the presence of the English in Delagoa Bay, that it is sure they are there "with good intentions"; and on Thursday it allowed the English to take artillery ashore "for practice." All this is mysterious, and, unfortunately, the only man who knows all about it—Mr. Balfour—will not tell.

The only essential change in the Greek situation is the fall of the Delyannis Government and the advent of the Opposition to power in the person of Mr. Ralli. The army at Pharsalos still endeavors to make a stand, but no one now believes that the Turkish advance can be checked except by foreign intervention, which Greece still hesitates to invoke, and on the terms of which the Powers are likely to differ as in many passages of the "concert." The best officers of the Greek contingent in Crete are meanwhile being summoned to Athens, and to that extent the withdrawal insisted on is being complied with; but the islanders themselves are reported to be firm in rejecting autonomy.

A dispatch from Crete states that Ismail Pasha, the Governor of the island, has protested against the decision of the Admirals allowing food to be supplied to the insurgent inhabitants. He demands, it is said, a complete abolition of the blockade or its complete reëstablishment. There is a good deal to be said for this view, which is evidently based on the Paris declaration, now part of international law for forty years, that a blockade, to be respected, must be "effective." In all genuine blockades, as in that which we established of our own ports during the war of the Rebellion, this principle has been recognized. It is true that it relates to a blockade between enemies, while the Cretan blockade is a blockade to prevent friends from fighting; still, we do not see why, if there is anything in the theory of pacific blockades at all, they ought not to be as effective as any other. A blockading squadron which allows the blockaded to be supplied with food, in so far starves, and hence blockades, ineffectively. Indeed, a blockade which is made stringent or relaxed at the pleasure of the blockading squadron may be "effective" on Monday, and a "paper" blockade on Tuesday.

THE DELAY OF CURRENCY REFORM.

As time passes, the conviction becomes stronger that the Republican leaders in Congress do not intend to take any steps towards a reformation of the currency at the present session, and this fact leads to the fear that they do not intend to take such steps at any time hereafter. The reason why they do not is easy to see. In any scheme of reform the first thing to be done is to get rid of the greenbacks. To this the majority are, as Mr. Brosius said the other day when defining his own position, "unalterably opposed." Sentiment has much to do with this. The odor of loyalty that attaches to the greenback as an instrument of war, "battle-scarred and blood-stained," is still potent. Against that feeling the reasoning faculty counts for little. But that is not the most specious argument. The belief is general that the greenbacks cost nothing, that they are a debt drawing no interest, and that it would involve an annual loss to the Government to fund them into bonds.

Some say that the Government is stronger financially than the banks, and these "point with pride" to the fact that in the panic of 1893 the Government redeemed its greenbacks in gold at all times, while the banks for a short time suspended payment of their deposits. These persons overlook the fact that the Government was saved from suspension by the banks, not once merely, but three times, and that without their assistance its suspension would have been final and irremediable. They overlook the fact, too, that the threatened bankruptcy of the Treasury precipitated the panic itself. Nobody ever pretended or imagined that the banks could pay all their deposits immediately, if they should all be demanded at one time. Banking cannot be carried on in that way. Nor can the Government redeem all its legal-tender notes under like conditions. There was a time in 1894 when two or three private bankers in New York could have drawn the last dollar of gold out of the Treasury on twenty-four hours' notice. Those persons who look upon the Government as stronger financially than the banks, overlook the fact that, in every crisis where financial strength is put to the test, the Government looks to the banks for help and gets its strength from them.

In one way and another the idea has gained root that the greenback is "the best money the country ever had," whereas it is the worst. There are differences of opinion among economists on the question whether the national banking system might be usefully amended on its note-issuing side, but there is no difference among them as to the malign influence of the greenback. From some wise reflections of Prof. Dunbar, in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, we quote a few words in reference to the supposed saving of interest by means of the legal-tender notes:

> "I shall only call attention here, in conclusion, to the often repeated argument that a Government issue, being a loan without interest, results in a saving to the Treasury which is lost when the right of circulation is delegated to banks. The experience of the United States in the last five years alone presents a complete answer to this penny-wise reasoning. In that space of time the people of the United States have lost by shaken confidence, discouraged enterprise, and the actual ruin of thousands of citizens, resulting from the mismanagement of their currency, an amount beyond all comparison with the annual saving of perhaps $12,000,000 made by them at the Treasury. The thrill of alarm which runs through the country whenever the gold reserve dips too far below the line, or when there is delay or doubt in applying the costly remedy, means a loss to the people to be measured only by scores of millions. The monetary panic of 1893 alone, by its direct results and without reference to the stagnation which followed it, was enough to counterbalance all savings of interest made by the Treasury in the last twenty years."

These losses to private persons are soon forgotten by all except the victims themselves. They enter the maelstrom of bankruptcy and disappear from sight, but the supposed saving of interest to the Government (the petty $12,000,000 a year) remains in full view to answer the purposes of demagogues and to deceive the unthinking.

It is scarcely necessary to repeat the arguments against further delay in currency reform. They have been reiterated many times. Congressman Fowler put them in plain language the other day before the Manufacturers' Association of Brooklyn, saying that the time had come for determined action:

> "(1.) Because, although the Presidential campaign of last fall was fought upon the financial question and won, the results have not yet reached legislative enactment.
> "(2.) Because the vote for Mr. Bryan was so alarmingly large.
> "(3.) Because the silver factions of all parties are apparently willing to fuse upon the money question regardless of all other differences, and are already actively campaigning for the fall of 1898.
> "(4.) Capital is so sensitive that, so long as the question of standard is not definitely settled, there will be no free and general movement of money—a condition of things which is absolutely essential to any degree of prosperity."

Some of the best thinkers in this country believe that nothing will ever arouse the country or bring amendment of existing evils but a financial cataclysm of the worst kind—such as would have taken place if Bryan had been elected last fall. They think that great economical reforms are brought about only by acute suffering. They may be right. The blindness of the Republican leaders in Congress points that way. It indicates that they do not intend to do anything but pass a Chinese-wall tariff, which will itself intensify the prevailing stagnation, and adjourn. When they come together again in December, they will say that the time is too short and that they ought not to take any risks in view of the congressional elections of 1898. As they will almost certainly be beaten in those elections, their opportunity will then be gone. Of course, the Bryanites see their opportunity in helping all measures, like Chinese-wall tariffs, which make for hard times, and in preventing any currency reform which would assure the gold standard and thus dispel the financial gloom.

HAWAIIAN ANNEXATION.

One of the latest signs of the continued activity of the Hawaiian annexation scheme is the circulation of a pamphlet containing a lecture on the subject delivered by the Hon. John W. Foster before the National Geographic Society. About half of the lecture is devoted to an historical sketch of the islands, and may be boiled down to the somewhat paradoxical statement, rehashed so often during the past four years, that the missionaries sent there imparted a knowledge of Christianity, secured its acceptance by the natives, gave them a written language, founded schools for the education utterly unfit for self-government, vailed upon them to adopt the dress and comforts of civilization, became advisers and guides to the kings and chiefs, instructed them in proper methods of government, brought the masses out of a state of servitude, and gradually created out of a barbarous race a civilized nation utterly unfiit for self-government, and destined to speedy extinction by its own vices. Under these conditions, Mr. Foster regards it as wholly out of the question that the Americans there should be governed again by native rulers, though he takes pains to state more than once that "for more than half a century" Americans were "the real administrators of public affairs," thus reducing the native rulers to mere figure-heads, and forcing upon his readers the question whether he has rightly located the source of governmental deterioration or not.

Mr. Foster quotes a considerable number of men who have been of the opinion that the islands should be ours, which is all very natural, as human nature has always been very susceptible to the temptation of "ripe pears" hanging around apparently waiting to be plucked. If no other reason could be alleged in such cases, the philanthropic desire to save other people the risk of injury to their health would be made to do duty as a sufficient cause for plucking. Mr. Foster's authorities are largely military and naval, and that too is natural, for army and navy officers could hardly be expected to be averse to a course of action which might easily give them an opportunity to win honors in the exercise of their profession. We are all very much obliged to them for effective service when such service is really necessary, but the most of us have hardly reached the point of agreeing with those who would find a reason for fighting now and then merely for the sake of exercise.

When it comes to giving real arguments for annexation, Mr. Foster pins his faith mainly to the theory which has such a peculiar fascination for certain minds, that the islands constitute the "key to the Pacific," and therefore we *must have them* anyhow. As he tells us himself that they stand at the centre of an otherwise unoccupied circle of water having a radius of about two thousand miles, one may be pardoned for suggesting that the key does not seem to fit the hole, and that after going to the trouble of securing it we might find it incapable of turning the lock. The key idea, as applied to a bit of land at the centre of such a vast expanse of unbroken ocean, is a palpable absurdity, and to drag it forth continually as an argument for annexation is to insult the intelligence of the people. If the islands stood in the middle of a passageway of only moderate width, so that their occupation could be made effective for the purpose of blocking the way against the vessels of other nations, then they might fairly be called the key to the Pacific. Even in that case our duty to acquire them would be far from clear, since an international guarantee of the freedom of such a passage can easily be shown to be of greater value to any nation concerned than exclusive ownership, with the ensuing necessity of expensive fortifications and the increased danger of bloody complications with other Powers. Of course, this does not appeal to Jingo editors and politicians, who are wiling to shed any amount of blood (of their subscribers and constituents) for the honor of their country, which honor, in their view, seems to be closely bound up with the sale of papers and the art of getting elected to office.

Passing on from the key idea, Mr. Foster wants the islands for the purpose of "securing this outpost of our Pacific frontier, and thus protecting all the time our future mighty commerce and rapidly growing interests on that coast from the encroachments of the great Powers striving for ascendancy in that quarter of the globe." When one remembers that it takes a fast steamer about five days to reach any point on our coast from Honolulu, the idea of the islands as a defence is on a par in absurdity with the key theory. Why cannot the annexationists realize that such arguments have no basis whatever in reason? As a matter of course a little group of islands, incapable of supporting from its own resources a population large enough to furnish more than a mere handful of fighting men, could never add anything to the defensive strength of the nation owning it, unless its position commanded some necessary avenue of approach. In the present case, we should merely be adding another point to be defended, and very difficult of defence at that, if we should ever engage in a war on the Pacific. If such a war should be severe enough to place us in any real peril, we should be obliged either to let the islands go, or to defend them at the expense of the withdrawal from the California coast of so large a portion of our effective forces as to leave that State in serious danger. But even if we were to grant the essentially absurd idea that there is some strategic value in the possession of an island group two thousand miles distant from our territories, Mr. Foster's pamphlet contains in itself the refutation of the theory as applied to this particular case, since he tells us that within essentially the same distance from Honolulu are no less than five such groups all now within the power of the same European nations from whom we are supposed to be in danger in that quarter of the globe.

Mr. Foster's suggestion that the missionary contributions to the islands give us an equitable claim to their possession should receive nothing but condemnation from all who are interested in missionary work. If the pagans once become imbued with the idea that missions are merely preparatory to the extinction of their own governments and the annexation of the territory to the lands from which the missionaries are sent out, missions will have received a blow from which they will not soon recover. There may be many with whom Mr. Foster's name will count for something, but an examination of his pamphlet will show that he has not relieved the annexation movement from its essential burden of combined Jingoism and selfishness.

THE INHERITANCE-TAX BILL.

The Governor announces that he will give a hearing on the graduated inheritance-tax bill passed by the late Legislature; and, according to one or two newspapers, "the millionaires" are going to proceed in large numbers to Albany to urge the Governor to veto it. This we doubt, for it is not at all like millionaires to do anything of the kind. Professional men, members of the Chamber of Commerce and the Real-Estate Exchange and the State Charities Aid, and citizens prominent in a variety of ways go to Albany to take part in hearings; but the habit of millionaires is to stay in their "homes" and send their attorneys to "see the old man." Long experience has taught them that if the old man can do nothing for them, then they are indeed helpless. In this they no doubt generally take a correct view of their own interest; the greatest danger in being wealthy is that it makes you a conspicuous object of attack, and they therefore reason that to divert the effect of uncomfortable legislation from themselves their true plan is to go very quietly about it. If they were to make a great to-do and outcry, this would very likely be taken as evidence that they needed more taxing. The other day, when the Illinois Legislature was considering the great Illinois bill designed to root out department stores, it was announced that a determined body of "six hundred small merchants" was on its way to Springfield to insist on the passage of the measure; but who ever heard of six hundred or even sixty millionaires going up in a body to Albany either to push or to block legislation?

It is, however, a mistake to suppose that the Dudley inheritance-tax bill is a matter of concern to millionaires only. Its great recommendation at Albany was that it "hit rich men"; but it really affects everybody in the State, because it is a direct tax on accumulation; it must operate as an inducement to the rich to secure a domicile elsewhere, and will, if signed, no doubt lead to the removal of much accumulated wealth to other more hospitable States. Land cannot be taken away, and it might seem as if it made little difference to the aggregate wealth of New York whether a rich old New Yorker died here or in Washington; but inasmuch as every one who leaves New York takes away from the city the power of taxing him here on his personal property, it must follow that the graduated transfer tax will tend to diminish the total taxable wealth of the city for all purposes, and in that we all have an interest. The bill is not to be defended as resembling the "death duties" act in England, for there the statute applies to the whole country. In the United States a State tax has no operation beyond State boundaries, and consequently any severe system of taxation tends to defeat its own object by driving wealth across the State line. Every one knows even now some family which has moved away from New York or Boston to Washington, partly in order to live in a city where universal suffrage is not the basis of the economical system. For these reasons, the bill, though it seems to "hit" only great wealth as it passes through the Surrogate's office, really hits us all. In a letter published on Thursday, Mr. Fitch, who collects most of the existing inheritance tax in this city, states that the effect of the proposed tax, by driving wealth away, must tend to make the existing tax unproductive. The wealthy cannot go away merely to die; they go some years in advance of death, and with them goes all power to tax their personal property, in life or after it.

This is all the more true because the bill is not an isolated measure, but part of a new system of taxation, not described by any economical writers, and not openly put forward by its authors as such, but which has made great headway both at Albany and in Congress. It is really a revival of the art of taxation as practised in the Middle Ages. The system rests on the principle that

whenever those who do not pay the taxes levy them, they soon come to regard taxes, not as a contribution to a common fund for a common purpose, but as money to spend—or, as our ruling class now says, "money to burn." The effect of this idea can be plainly seen in such a measure as the Dudley bill, the authors of which recommend it, not because it is needed to raise revenue, but because it is a good thing to get money, for obviously the more money you have to spend, the better you are off. All taxes on the rich are popular, and hence it will be easy to get them passed. The difficulty that plain people have in following our statesmen's course of reasoning about such matters is, that they still imagine the old view of taxation, as taught by Adam Smith and his followers, to be in force—that taxation is in itself an evil, and that it should therefore be made to fall as lightly as possible on those who pay. At Albany they are upholders of no such view. Taxes, there, being money collected by a class that has little or no connection with the industrial state, and is, in fact, mainly occupied in running primaries and conventions, and nominating Governors and Presidents, and carrying on the government, are regarded as a good thing; and so they are for those who are supported by them, or to whom they furnish a fund for the support of their Legislatures and Governors.

We see the same thing with regard to the tariff. The actual deficit is only $40,000,000 or $50,000,000. But Dingley wants at least $75,000,000, or perhaps $112,000,000. When we ask why, we are told because Dingley and Grosvenor and their friends have "appropriated," that is, arranged to spend, the difference. People who have levied taxes irresponsibly on others have always shown this love of taxation for its own sake, and this is one reason why it is so hard to get them to see that a particular tax may be dangerous as diminishing the fund on which they rely. Lexow defended the Dudley tax stoutly on the queer ground that it was "just."

The following table shows roughly the effect of the proposed taxation of estates:

Personal estate.	Rate per cent. to collateral heirs	Rate per cent. to direct heirs.
$10,000	5	0
$500,000	5	1
$750,000	6	1
$1,000,000	7	1
$1,250,000.	8	1½
$1,500,000.	9	2
$1,750,000.	10	2½
$2,000,000.	11	3
$2,250,000.	12	3½
$2,500,000.	13	4
$2,750,000.	14	5
$3,000,000.	15	6
$3,250,000.	15	7
$3,500,000.	15	8
$3,750,000.	15	9
$4,000,000 and upwards.	15	10

This would compel a son who inherited four millions to pay the neat little ransom of $400,000, a nephew $600,000. The present law, which yields a large revenue, imposes a tax of 5 per cent. on all personal property above $500 passing to collateral heirs, and 1 per cent. on all such estates above $10,000. The objections urged by the press generally are, first, that no additional revenue is needed; second, that the tax will fall, not on property as such, nor on productive property fitted in its nature for taxation as such, but on heirs as such, and is therefore populistic and unjust. We are glad that it has at last dawned on our contemporaries who have not been willing to "bother" with this bill in its passage, that it has actually passed. They are calling in great alarm upon the Governor to veto it. We hope he will do so, but we cannot refrain from observing that in legislative matters *obsta principiis* is a good motto.

DISINTERESTED CRITICISM.

Most people probably understand by a disinterested critic a critic who has no axes to grind—in other words, no selfish interest in the results of his criticism. It is well understood by all who have thought about the matter that unbiassed criticism in the strictest sense is impossible. Every critic must have his point of view, his taste and convictions; and he would be more or less than human if he did not feel an interest in promoting the true, beautiful, and good according to his own understanding of them. Such a natural, inevitable interest he is permitted to have, and if he has no other, we call him disinterested. It has been reserved, however, for our distinguished visitor from France to propound a somewhat different definition of the virtue in question. We are to be prejudiced, it seems, against our own prejudices. Said M. Brunetière in his discourse upon recent French poetry:

"The first condition of critical disinterestedness is never to follow one's tastes, and to begin by distrusting the things which give us pleasure. The most delicious dishes are not the most wholesome; we never fail to distinguish between our cooks and our doctors. In the moral world the beginning of virtue is to distrust what is most natural to us, and the same is true in the intellectual world. To distrust what we like is the beginning of wisdom in art and literature."

A critical maxim laid down by so good a critic as M. Brunetière certainly deserves careful attention, and is probably right in some sense or other. Nevertheless, the doctrine here propounded, if taken at all literally, seems to lead to some rather curious results. Suppose we apply it to literary criticism itself, which is a form of art. Suppose that I have a genuine fondness for critics of the urbane, open-minded sort, like M. Brunetière, (?) or Sainte-Beuve, or Matthew Arnold. I really like their breadth of view, their deftness of touch. They are my taste, my predilection. Is it, then, the "beginning of wisdom" that I distrust this taste, and commence hunting about for reasons why I should prefer a critical Berserker, like, say, Max Nordau? What is the use of having a taste if we are to distrust it and let it make us unhappy? Where is one to stop in his career of self-distrust? Is the dread of narrow Pharisaism to deprive us for ever of all comfort in our own way of looking at things? It is a gloomy thought. One would almost prefer to go with Oscar Wilde in his lordly distrust of other people. "Ah, don't say that you agree with me," sighed Oscar. "When people agree with me I always feel that I must be wrong."

We cannot help thinking, too, that M. Brunetière's analogy of the delicious but unwholesome dishes is a little misleading. The primary object of eating is to nourish the body, not to please the palate. In good modern practice, to be sure, our feeding has become something of a fine art; but after all, the most refined eater must admit, if he has any philosophy, that the final test of the goodness of food is its usefulness for nourishment. Take that quality away, and it becomes bad, however appetizing it may be. When, therefore, I am offered a particularly toothsome dish, knowing as I do that toothsome dishes are often unwholesome, I very properly refer the matter to my doctor for an opinion on the main issue; and if he decides that the thing is unwholesome, that ought to settle the matter. With the work of art, on the other hand, pleasingness, in the broad sense of the word, is the final test of excellence. Its usefulness is to please. There is no higher court of appeal, no doctor with exact scientific tests who has a right to pronounce it good though disagreeable, or bad, though acceptable to the taste. It is true that the moralist often arrogates to himself this right, but he is only a fallible brother expressing an opinion. One is a moralist one's self. When I am told that what I like is bad, or that what I don't like is good, with reference, possibly, to the kingdom of heaven or to some remote sociological issue on earth, I may feel that I know just as much about the matter as my mentor. He does not speak with the authority of the doctor.

Of course this reasoning does not apply to the young, whose tastes are in the formative stage, or to the mentally indolent who have never reflected on their own tastes. In the interest of education such persons may very well take to heart the maxim to distrust their own taste. But it is hardly to be supposed that M. Brunetière meant to offer a pedagogical prescription.

Again, it is quite true that in morals "the beginning of virtue is to distrust what is most natural to us"—but why? Is it not because the purpose of morality is to discipline our instincts, habits, and passions by lifting them into the sphere of conscious ideation and making them amenable to some higher rule of conduct? Duty requires us to subordinate personal pleasure to a sense of right, but literature ministers to our pleasure as a thing good in itself. Thus, I have not the same reason for distrusting my taste in literature (supposing that I have reached years of discretion and have done a little independent thinking) that I have for suspecting my natural inclinations when it is a question of conduct.

Look at it as we may, it is difficult to establish a compelling argument, on moral or gastronomic analogies, in favor of distrusting one's own taste in literature merely because it is one's own. Probably no one ever really does it. And yet the thing aimed at in M. Brunetière's prescription is commendable. He no doubt wished to urge the importance of a catholic scientific temper, which is undeniably a good thing for the student of literature. One who would get the full liberalizing benefit of literary study and be

in a position to deal wisely with literary questions, must indeed beware of following his own taste exclusively. He must be content to spend much time over writings that give him no immediate pleasure, and to look for his reward not in the æsthetic sphere but in the scholar's sense of mastery. Mindful that what bores or offends him may be enjoyed by other people, he will be led to study the psychological processes of those other people, to put himself in their place and examine their arguments from their point of view. In so doing he will often be led gradually to modify his own attitude and to discover that his taste is really not so admirable as he once supposed it to be. But in making this continual readjustment, the important thing would seem to be not so much to distrust one's own taste as rather to be willing to make it the subject of deliberate reflection and comparison. This is really the perfection of the scientific temper when one is able to philosophize calmly over one's own prejudices.

A NEW FAUST.

CAMBRIDGE, Mass., April 19, 1897.

RARELY has the mysterious affinity between the extremes of realism and symbolism been illustrated as strikingly as now in the gradual unfolding of Gerhart Hauptmann's poetic genius. Hauptmann is one of those fascinating men whose character seems to baffle all attempts at rational analysis. He is at the same time the most modern of the moderns and the most devout worshipper of the traditions of the past, an iconoclast and a dreamer, a pantheist and an inspired interpreter of mediæval Christianity, a socialist and an upholder of personal freedom, an impressionist painter of the most uncompromising kind and a lyric poet of the deepest feeling and the most delicate sensibility. At times he speaks as though he saw before him a new age of exalted humanity, as though he would lead his people forward on the path of liberty and spiritual progress; and then again he seems like a child lost in the wilderness of an outworn civilization, he flees from the shallow brilliancy of modern society to the primitive sturdiness of the fairy tale, and, in the midst of a career full of restless striving and ambition, he dreams himself back to the sombre seclusion of his Silesian mountain home. He is crude and refined, heavy and graceful, pessimistic and buoyant, flippant and sublime; and in all these changes he is always and unfailingly true to himself.

He began with lurid scenes from contemporary life, in which it was easy to detect the influence of Ibsen and Zola. But even in the atrocious vulgarity of "Vor Sonnenaufgang" and in the hopeless gloom of "Das Friedensfest" there appeared a strain quite foreign alike to the cynic bitterness of the Norwegian and to the proletarian ferociousness of the Frenchman: a deep, silent craving for purity and childlike innocence. Next, there followed "Einsame Menschen," a masterpiece of psychological analysis, vibrating with the profoundest chords of modern thought, bringing out in figures of wonderful lifelikeness the tragedy of moral emancipation unaided by moral greatness. Then came "Die Weber," a modern Triumph of Death, a cry of sympathy with suffering humanity as genuine and heart-stirring as any word of lamentation or scorn uttered by the prophets of old. Then a strange pair of unlike brothers: "Der Biberpelz," a gross satire of the Prussian police officer in search for crimes of leze-majesty, and "Hannele," a glorification of the spiritualistic elements of the Christian belief. Then the historical drama, "Florian Geyer," a work both grand and ordinary, irresistible and intolerable, a most faithful—perhaps too faithful—reproduction of the sixteenth century, with its democratic aspirations, its reformatory zeal, its popular heroism, fanaticism, and savagery, but somehow lacking in the finer human emotions. And now, finally, "Die versunkene Glocke," a fantastic vision, transporting us into lonely forests haunted by elfs and water-sprites, and strangely illumined by the flicker of swarming glow-worms.

It is almost impossible to give an adequate conception of this "fairy drama" which now for months has been delighting Berlin audiences. The time of the action is somewhere in the Middle Ages. The principal character is a figure belonging to the race of *Faust*, *Manfred*, and *Brand:* Meister Heinrich, a bellfounder in a lonely village of the Riesengebirge. It is evidently not long since Christianity made its way into these remote regions, for we hear that the mountain elfs are disgusted with the unaccustomed sight of church-building going on in the midst of their retreats, and still more with the unaccustomed sound of the church bells ringing through the peace of the forests. Just now one of these malicious spirits has seized the opportunity of venting his spite. He has lain in wait when a bell wrought by Master Henry and destined for a chapel on the mountain summit was being carted up the hill; he has broken the wheel of the truck, and has hurled the bell and its maker down into the lake. Here is the beginning of the action. Henry, rallying, but as yet hardly conscious of his steps, gropes his way upward again, and wanders about in aimless despair through the rocky wilderness. Finally he sinks down exhausted. His cries of agony have been overheard by Rautendelein, a strange mixture of elf and maiden; and for the first time there has been awakened in her breast the dim feeling of a higher life and the blind desire to win it. So, when the villagers come to carry Henry's nearly lifeless body back to the valley, Rautendelein follows them, determined to see and to know "the land of men." Disguised as a servant, she enters the house where Henry, attended by his faithful wife, lies at the point of death. He is delirious. His life seems to him a failure; the comforting words of his wife sound to him like mockery; he persuades himself that she has no conception of what it is to feel the creative impulse and to have it checked by brutal fate; he is sure that she does not understand him, that nobody understands him; he curses his work; he wishes to die. At this moment Rautendelein appears, and the sight of this unbroken youthful life brings back to him his own youthful aspirations. It is as though Nature herself had touched him and renewed his strength, as though she beckoned him to throw away the commonplace cares and duties of ordinary social existence and to follow him to the heights of a free, unfettered, creative activity. He cannot resist. The supreme desire for unhampered exercise of his faculties restores his health; the delirious despondency leaves him; he is himself again.

When the scene changes, Rautendelein has led him back into the mountains. She now appears as his inspiring genius. He is in the fulness of his powers; he is raised above the petty conflict of good and evil. He has won control over the spirits that dwell in rock and cavern; with their help he is creating a wonder work of art, a temple structure on highest mountain peak whose melodious chime is to call free humanity to the festival of universal brotherhood. Wrapt up in these ecstatic visions he has entirely lost sight of his former life. He seems not to know that once he had a loving wife and children. He scorns the friendly warning of the village priest, who ventures into his enchanted wilderness in order to save his soul. He defies the onslaught of the peasants who attempt to storm his fastness in order to annihilate the godless blasphemer. He quiets occasional pangs of conscience by renewed feverish work; only at night he lies restless and is visited by fearful dreams. More and more, however, these evil forebodings get the better of him. Again and again he hears a strange sound that seems to draw him downward, he recognizes in it the tolling of the bell that lies at the bottom of the mountain lake. What causes the bell to give the sound? Who is that pale, ghastly figure floating toward it and striking its tongue? And who are these shadowy forms of little children, coming slowly and sadly toward him, and carrying with great effort a heavily filled urn? Breathless with horror, he addresses them. "What carry ye?" "Father, we carry an urn." "What is in the urn?" "Father, something bitter." "What is the something bitter?" "Father, our mother's tears." "Where is your mother?" "Where the water-lilies grow."

Now, at last, Henry sees that he has overstepped the bounds set to man. The whole wretchedness of his imagined grandeur is revealed to him with terrible clearness. He drives Rautendelein away with calumny and cursing. He destroys with his own hand the work which had been to him the symbol of a perfect humanity. He resolves to descend again to the fellowship of mortals. But it is too late. The superhuman striving has consumed his strength. In his last moment Rautendelein appears to him once more; she has returned into her own realm, she has become the wife of an ugly old water-sprite who had wooed her for years. But she is still longing for human affections, and she presses a fervent kiss upon the lips of the dying one.

The drama thus hastily outlined is to us a messenger of good tidings. It is a fresh evidence of a fact which has recently become manifest in more ways than one: the fact that Germany is preparing again to take a leading part in the literature of the world. Especially the German realistic drama of the last decade has shown a fertility of motives and a constructive energy far superior to that of recent dramatic productions in England or France. But most of these realistic dramas are in too pronounced a manner children of the age to have a long life before them; they are rather clever dramatic essays on social, religious, or philosophical questions of immediate and acute interest than works of art which permanently satisfy. In "Die versunkene Glocke" for the first time we hear once more the unmistakable ring of the universally human. Here we are made to feel once more the eternal longing of the human heart for a happiness that lies beyond the things seen or heard. Here we are brought face to face once more with an ideal striving far transcending all interest

in so-called questions of the day. Here we are indeed reminded of the artistic temper which created the type of *Faust*.

To be sure, the form of this drama is too fantastic to appeal to all persons or to all times. It needs a special frame of mind to find out the instinctive striving after nature which underlies even its grotesque artificialities. German critics have with good reason pointed out the affinity between this drama and the paintings of Boecklin. Hauptmann and Boecklin belong, indeed, together. Both are endowed with an extraordinary sensibility, both feel an irrepressible desire to reproduce the sounds and sights of nature exactly as they hear and see them. But both hear and see not only the sounds and sights of nature, they are equally strongly affected by the discordant impressions of their social environment; and in order not to be disturbed by these, they strain their receptive organs to such an extent that the water looks bluer to them than it does to the normal eye, and the wind roars more wildly to them than it does to the normal ear. This is especially true of "Die versunkene Glocke." There is a note of exaggeration in it which takes away from its sincerity. And delightful as this company of roving, rollicking, swaggering, half malicious, half good-natured earth-spirits is which forms the elemental background of the dramatic action, we are hardly more than amused by it. The true simplicity of the fairy tale is for the most part absent.

But this objection does not touch the central conception of the drama. Hauptmann has created a work which treats the old *Faust* theme of man's superhuman aspirations in a new and fascinating manner. We may confidently hope that his youthful genius, which has given us so much already that is fine and true, will give us something still finer and truer. He is now approaching his full maturity. May he live himself out completely and harmoniously. May he go on, undisturbed by fame or slander, unmoved by the wrangle between literary cliques, unmindful of the meaningless warcries of romanticism and classicism, to bring forth what is in him. If he does this, he seems destined to accomplish what his Meister Heinrich strove for in vain: to build a temple of art in which all ages and all nations may worship. KUNO FRANCKE.

EAST INDIANS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

DUBLIN, April 13, 1897.

IN the early fifties there may have been some excuse for the people of the United Kingdom considering themselves before the rest of the world in some respects. They prided themselves especially on their humanity. They appeared to have fully adopted the principles of free trade. They had abolished slavery in their colonies. They believed they had extended to the furthest confines of the empire those principles of freedom and equality under which, in Curran's time, on British soil alone the slave stood "redeemed, regenerated, and disenthralled by the irresistible genius of universal emancipation." The empire had extended widely over the globe. It was free to every nationality, and within its confines was known no distinction, "Greek nor Jew, circumcision nor uncircumcision, Barbarian, Scythian, bond nor free." In all these respects we were inclined to consider ourselves innately superior to other peoples, guided by clearer reason, impelled by loftier motives.

The experiences of subsequent years have, however, tended considerably to modify our self-satisfaction. Subjected to the same tests, placed in similar circumstances, we have fallen short like other mortals. Our apparent superiority lay not within our own natures, but in our circumstances, and those of our own people who had sought homes abroad under our flag. Under the stress of the Indian mutiny and the Jamaica rebellion, we developed a brutality as great as was ever shown by a civilized people, and which men of the highest culture attempted to justify. We defied ordinary canons of warfare as much as did Napoleon on his retreat from Syria. When the War of the Rebellion broke out, it was soon manifest how little British theoretical ideas concerning liberty prevailed as against aristocratic prejudices and supposed material interests. As our colonies were conceded self-government and came under democratic influences, they adopted protectionist principles. We censured the Chinese immigration restriction laws of California; but Australia and New Zealand, when the shoe pinched, followed suit with regulations as exclusive. The New Zealand Maoris, those that were left, fought their way to respect, but elsewhere in our colonies has developed color prejudice as marked in proportion to the exigencies of the situation as in your Southern States.

Equal laws concerning the rights of citizens in all portions of the empire—more especially in India—still subsisted. Whatever the attitude of our colonists towards colored foreigners, the rights of British-born subjects, of whatever race, stood intact. In the Queen's proclamation after the Mutiny, confirmed by Viceroys upon numerous occasions, the Indian people were supposed to possess guarantees for equal treatment as inviolable as the provisions of Magna Charta. "We hold ourselves bound to the natives of our Indian territories by the same obligations of duty which bind us to all our other subjects; and those obligations, by the blessing of Almighty God, we shall faithfully and conscientiously fulfil." The letter and spirit of this proclamation have been set at naught by recent doings in South Africa, flagrantly in contravention of the theory of an empire guaranteeing equal rights and immunities to all subjects. The question has aroused widespread indignation in India, especially among those classes whose contentment with the general policy of the empire is essential to the peace of the country.

The population of India increases rapidly and encroaches upon the means of subsistence. South Africa is the nearest outlet for emigration. The climate is congenial; and thither numbers of Indians have repaired—educated Parsee and other merchants to trade; men of the middle class as shopkeepers and clerks; coolies and hosts of the humbler classes as laborers—perhaps 100,000 altogether. While all were at first welcomed as helpful towards the development of the country, all alike have been subjected to disabilities by color prejudice and by law. The subject was treated at the Indian National Congress of 1894. "Papers relating to the grievances of H. M. Indian subjects in the South African Republic (The Transvaal)" were presented to Parliament in September, 1895. Concerning wrongs in Natal, forty of the principal Indian residents there memorialized Mr. Chamberlain in February, 1896. Later, M. K. Gandhi, a Hindu barrister, long resident in South Africa, returned to India to arouse public interest in the subject. His address at Bombay, last September, has been published; also the memorial to Lord George Hamilton, from the Hon. Pherozeshah M. Mehta, C.I.E., chairman of one of the meetings, which he addressed. Mr. Gandhi says:

"The general feeling throughout South Africa is that of hatred towards the Indians, encouraged by the newspapers and connived at, even countenanced, by the legislators. Every Indian without exception is a coolie in the estimation of the general body of the Europeans. . . . Naturally neither the traders nor the English-educated Indians are treated with any degree of respect. Wealth and abilities in an Indian count for naught in that country except to serve the interests of the European colonists. . . . In most parts of South Africa we may not stir out of our houses after nine P. M. unless we are armed with passes from our employers. . . . Hotels shut their doors against us. We cannot make use of the tram-cars unmolested. . . . Public baths are not for the Indians. The high schools are not open for the Indians. . . . Even the primary schools are not quite open to the Indians. An Indian missionary schoolmaster was driven out of an English church in Verulam, a small village in Natal. . . . Such is the general feeling against the Indian in South Africa, except the Portuguese territories, where he is respected and has no grievance apart from the general population. You can easily imagine how difficult it must be for a respectable Indian to exist in such a country. . . . Ours is one continued struggle against degradation sought to be inflicted upon us by the Europeans, who desire to degrade us to the level of a raw Kaffir."

"Except the Portuguese territories, where he is respected and has no grievance apart from the general population"!—how little cause has Protestantism to vaunt its humanity as superior to that of Catholicism, where prejudices or interests supervene!

The South African States in which the general treatment of British Indian subjects is above described, are (1) those independent of British control (such as the Orange Free State); (2) those under British suzerainty (the Transvaal); (3) those under British protection (Zanzibar); (4) independent colonies (the Cape and Natal); with (5) a crown colony (Zululand).

Concerning the treatment of Indians in the Orange Free State, the United Kingdom has no direct responsibility and control. It could protest, as did the Italian Government regarding the murder of Italians in New Orleans. This it has not done, as it would concerning like treatment of white citizens. The Transvaal was conceded independence under what is known as the "London Convention." "All persons, other than natives, conforming themselves to the laws" were guaranteed full liberty of ingress, residence, and egress, the right to "hire or possess houses, manufactories, warehouses, shops," and to "carry on their commerce, either in person or by any agents whom they may think fit to employ." The dissatisfaction of British Indian natives at the manner in which these provisions were ignored regarding them was such that in 1895 the British Government referred the case as between it and the Transvaal in this matter to the arbitrament of the Chief Justice of the Orange Free State. He decided in favor of the Transvaal, largely upon the ground that Lord Derby, Secretary of State, in 1885, gave "an assurance that H. M. Government will not desire to insist upon any such construction of the terms of the Convention as would interfere with reasonable legislation" to dis-

courage the "general influx of foreign colored natives." Thus, while English sentiment now appears inclined to justify a raid on a friendly state because British white citizens are delayed in their attainment of political rights, it makes no complaint, though British colored citizens are debarred from ever acquiring citizenship or property, are permitted to settle temporarily only upon registry and payment of a fee of £25, and, when settled, must inhabit only special streets, wards, and locations, are debarred the use of the sidewalks, and restricted on railways to the third class.

In the recent disturbances in Zanzibar, under British protection, while, say Indian memorialists, "Her Majesty's European subjects were given the opportunity of going to the consulate and on board the English ship for protection, and their localities guarded by troops of police, no provision was at all made for us." They were robbed of their property, and some of them killed. The Cape has passed laws, agreed to by the Home Government, authorizing a municipality to frame by-laws prohibiting Indians from the use of sidewalks, and restricting them to specified localities. In Natal, the Chamberlain has given the royal assent to an act excluding from the franchise British subjects not born in countries possessing parliamentary institutions. This excludes, and was meant to exclude, British Indians. An "Immigration Law Amendment Bill" is now under consideration by which Indian immigrant laborers must serve under a five-years' indenture, must pay an annual poll-tax of £3 (equivalent to six months' wages) or leave the country. Laws in force prevent Indians from being out of their houses after nine P. M. without a pass, and from driving cattle without a pass. In Zululand, a Crown colony, under the control of the Home Office through the Governor of Natal, in recent sales of land only persons of European birth or descent have been permitted to purchase; and then under an agreement that if at any time purchasers or their representatives or heirs permit such land to be occupied otherwise than by persons of European birth or descent, it will revert to the Crown.

These varied disabilities, sufferings, and wrongs have been most strikingly forced upon public attention, both in India and at home, by Mr. Gandhi during his mission to his native country. In the treatment meted out to him on his return to Natal, at the hands of the people whose conduct towards his countrymen he had exposed, we are reminded of early abolition days in the United States. When his steamer was signalled, a crowd of indignant whites collected, who mobbed him, upon his landing, with stones and beating. At length, rescued and taken to a friend's house, stones and other missiles were thrown against it, while "several stump speeches were made."

Neither great branch of the English-speaking family can, in truth, plume itself upon its peculiar innate virtues or immunity from failings. At the same time, the Constitution of the United States, with equal laws (broken or outraged, it is true, by sectional prejudices), would appear likely more rapidly to tend towards equal liberty and equal rights than the Constitution of the British Empire, under which imperial prejudices and differences of rights and immunities are sanctioned by unequal laws. D. B.

Correspondence.

GREECE AND CRETE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have just read in the *Nation* of March 18 the letter signed "W. J. S." on "The Motive of Greek Intervention." I hope that an answer to the assertions of the writer from persons better qualified than I can be, may have reached you ere this letter shall have crossed the Mediterranean and the Atlantic.

I will not trespass upon your space by entering into all the matters touched by your correspondent, nor have I the right to complain of the systematic animosity he displays against my country. I believe that his virulence of pen will have put your readers on guard as to the amount of fairness underlying the whole of his violent philippic, and will limit my observations to a few of the points which constitute the basis of his invective.

He asserts that "not an inch of Greek territory has ever been won by Greek effort." I cannot suppose that he really ignores how and when the Greek Revolution began and was concluded. It broke out in 1821, and was carried on with desperate vigor for several years, until the Sultan, unable to cope with his revolted and successful subjects, called for help upon the Pasha of Egypt. It was only in 1827 that France, England, and Russia, unwillingly intervening, destroyed at Navarino the Turko-Egyptian fleet, and subsequently they obtained from the Porte the recognition of the independence of Greece. The gratefulness of the Greeks to these three Powers cannot make them forget that the independence secured in 1830, after nearly ten years' war, for only 600,000 souls, had cost the lives of 300,000 of their kinsfolk (see Herzberg, 'Geschichte Griechenlands,' iv., p. 590).

"W. J. S." cannot, furthermore, ignore the fact that the then liberated portion of Greece had not fought alone for independence. Crete had all along taken an active part in the common struggle, and had as much right as the rest to be included in the newly formed kingdom. Her claims were put aside in spite of her protestations and the protestations of Greece, as well as of those of Prince Leopold, the future King of Belgium, whose refusal of the crown of Greece was mainly based on the mutilation of his would-be kingdom by Crete being cut off from its boundaries. Nor must the fact be forgotten that Crete, as well as Samos, was not then given over to the Sultan. While Samos, exclusively inhabited by Christian Greeks, was made autonomous, Crete was ceded to the Pasha of Egypt, and was recovered by Turkey only after the latter's revolt in 1840.

But "W. J. S." asserts that Greece, not caring for the independence of Crete, regards the island as a means for the aggrandizement of the Hellenic Kingdom; that in 1866-'69, and at subsequent periods, she prevented the liberation of that island in any other form than that of annexation to Greece. He makes Greece responsible for the misfortunes of Crete, and implies that it is owing to intrigues from Athens, not to the firm and spontaneous will of the Cretans, that in their ever-repeated revolutions they have constantly declared that union to Greece was, is, and ever will be their only aim. Fortunately, there are blue-books and official documents enough to prove the contrary. These are not over-difficult of access, but Prof. G. Streit of Athens University has just published in a convenient form a collection of documents emanating from the lawful representatives of Crete, whose perusal I would venture to recommend to "W. J. S." From 1821 down to the present year, in all their outbreaks and on all other possible occasions, the Cretans have made it clear that their unchangeable will is to see their union with the mother-country effected. This object not having as yet been attained, the privileges and autonomies wrested each time from Turkey, to be each time trodden upon, were by the Cretans accepted as a temporary alleviation of their lot until the day of liberty and union should come at last.

"W. J. S.," indeed, bewails the fate of Crete were it ever to be governed from Athens, and dilates upon "the various reasons for its absolute separation from Greece." The Cretans must feel very grateful to your correspondent for the tenderness thus bestowed upon them and the care taken of their future welfare; but it must be admitted that they are the best judges as to where their true interests lie. They have come often enough to Greece, as refugees from Turkish oppression and misgovernment, to know the evils they would find themselves exposed to by sharing the fortunes of their mother-country. In spite of all its shortcomings, Greece is far from deserving the wholesale condemnation passed upon it by your correspondent; but even if it were "one of the worst failures of European constitutionalism," he may be assured that the Cretans, and the other Greeks still in bondage, would not the less yearn to be united to it. National feeling is not fettered by material considerations. While claiming to form part of the Hellenic kingdom, the Ionians knew that Greek administration could not compare with the English. Experience has since shown them still better the difference. But who could dare to say or think that, were a plébiscite to be taken now in the seven islands, the ayes would have it for a return under British protection? Let the same experiment be tried in Cyprus, governed as it is by England, or in Samos, in spite of its autonomy! There is a bond, stronger than your correspondent seems to realize, in common nationality. No better proof of it can be had than the numbers of Greeks from beyond our borders, as far away as the shores of the Caucasus, daily flocking to Athens to enlist as volunteers in the army gathered under our national colors.

Your correspondent characterizes as an "infamous treason" the conduct of the Greek ministry in advising the Cretans to yield in 1869, after all chances of further resistance had vanished. Such *treason*, unfortunately, has had to be repeated since more than once. It was repeated last year, when the Greek Government used all its influence in support of the great Powers, when they had once more recourse to their unavailing palliative of an autonomy. What was to be expected happened earlier than was anticipated. The Cretan Mohammedans, instigated from Constantinople, had recourse to fire and sword, in order to foil the application of the last—or last but one—form of autonomy invented and guaranteed

by the great Powers of Europe. Refugees from the towns of Crete came once more in thousands to seek shelter among us; the mountaineers took to arms; a fresh revolution broke out, the war-cry being, as ever, "Union with Greece." This time Greece did not wait patiently for the work of diplomacy. She took the matter up. She was so little prepared for the event that her ironclads were at the time repairing at Toulon, and her military preparations were not even begun. Still, answering to the call of Crete, she sent there a small detachment of her small army.

That was a bold stroke, no doubt. It proved successful in so far as it forced the great Powers to take a new course, which they would not otherwise have taken. They declared that Crete is to be taken out of the immediate control of Turkey. This is a first step in the right direction. May the Powers be timely convinced that their new receipt of autonomy will not prove a remedy for the chronic disease which they have undertaken to cure. Whatever happens, Greece has not, so far, to repent of its behavior. Your correspondent condemns it on the plea of "international law." I do not know if he has any claim to be accepted as an authority on that head, or whether he merely repeats what has been advanced on the subject by diplomatists and journalists. I only know that the best recognized authorities have expressed quite a different opinion. I may refer your correspondent to the *Gazette de Lausanne* of February 26 last; to the *Revue de Droit International et de Législation Comparée*, No. 1, 1897 (the articles in both known to be from the highest authority on the subject), and lastly to an article in the March number of the *Nuova Antologia*, by Signor E. Catellani, the well-known professor of international law at the University of Padua. These I hold to be better expounders of international law than those who take their stand upon the right of the stronger. According to the view of the writers just cited, all independent states, whether small or great, are equals; each of them has a right of interference with a neighboring state in case of occurrences imperilling its tranquillity or safety—the case becoming stronger when the state interfering has to defend kinsfolk living and incurring danger in the said neighboring state. If Greece had no right to interfere in Crete, by what *right* are the great Powers interfering there in the way they do? It is true that Calvo, another recognized authority, states ('Traité Théorique et Pratique de Droit International,' i., p. 177) that "intervention in the affairs of the Ottoman Empire is nowadays a part, so to say, of the customary right of Europe"; but he does not add that this right is, by international law, limited to great Powers alone.

Greece is but a small—a very small—Power. She is now going through a terrible crisis. Her main force lies in the justice of her cause and in the moral support she may find in the sympathy of free nations. This she expected, above all, to find in America, whom distance from our regions keeps out of the conflict of interests, of the covetousnesses and jealousies which lie at the bottom of the so-called European Concert. Our expectations did not prove vain. The sympathies manifested in your free and great country are worth a victory to Greece! May I express the regret that a discordant voice, even if coming from Rome, should have found an echo in your columns?

Yours truly, D. Bikélas.

Athens, April 14, 1897.

TWO SHAKSPERE PORTRAITS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. John Corbin's description, in the May *Harper's Magazine*, of two neglected Shakspere portraits, will prove no less interesting to the small band of Shakspere students than to the greater reading public which it immediately addresses. But the professed student of Shakspere will wish a more categorical answer than the article affords to such questions as, "May I believe in either portrait? or in one rather than the other?" and Mr. Corbin's paper will yield the answer only to those who divine, in its carefully guarded impartiality, disbelief in the so-called Droeshout original and decided preference for the Ely Palace portrait. I ask the courtesy of your columns, then, only to emphasize certain important conclusions which are, as I feel, implicit in Mr. Corbin's essay.

The question is, fortunately, not one for the connoisseur, with his recondite and perhaps unduly mistrusted criteria; the mere layman, standing before the Droeshout original and using his eyes, will find abundant evidence of "ways that are dark" in its painting. He will note that whoever painted the portrait not only painted it over an older picture, but selected a panel at that time visibly worm-eaten. Witness the many cases where the paint has lapped into or partly filled the worm-holes (holes made after the painting are of course clean-cut), and if he be of a suspicious turn of mind, he can only conclude that a fabricator of Shakspere portraits did

"The same, with intent to deceive"

the pious, but unwary, British Shakspere-fancier. He will further note that the portrait is strangely inconsistent in technique, as if by two hands. In the main, smooth, and dry, in handling after the manner of Oliver, certain passages are thickly and coarsely brushed. The amateur critic, remembering that the crudest painter is at least consistent in his style, or absence of style, will see in this illogical combination of smooth and rough a superficial device for gaining archaic effect. The observer will find something charmingly naïve in the script "Wilm Shakespeare," as it were an endorsement, on the panel; and as he leaves the Memorial Building he will regret that its management has been taken in by that most obvious of fabrications, a carefully doctored copy of the Droeshout print.

The Ely Palace portrait in the Birthplace will strike the now suspicious visitor favorably. It is apparently a life portrait executed in the smooth, careful manner of its date, 1603, and, until the contrary is shown, one may clearly believe in it. If authentic, it must be the original of the Droeshout print, for identity of pose, of costume, etc., forbid any other theory. The angular, accented contours of the print as compared with the flaccid outlines of the painted picture may, at first sight, discredit such a conclusion; but they are in reality rather to be taken as characteristics of an engraver's pen copy, and the dry technique of a poor engraver would have still further emphasized them. And since Mr. Corbin's paper shows that Shakspere portraits were not uncommon, the print might have been made from a replica of the Ely Palace portrait, which already showed hardening of the contours.

The Droeshout original, then, is obviously "manufactured" from the print, as Dr. Furnivall has stoutly maintained. The Ely Palace portrait, if it is what it seems, is the authoritative portrait of Shakspere, for the print is merely a caricature of it, and the Stratford bust suffered mutilation in the cutting. Some one who knows old English portraits—here we need the connoisseur—must tell us what we may believe in the matter. This is the important word that Mr. Corbin's valuable study suggests to the present writer.

Frank Jewett Mather, Jr.

Williams College, April 29, 1897.

INDENTURED SERVANTS IN THE COLONIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Wilson Miles Cary, writing about the will of Col. John Carter, in last week's *Nation*, probably did not think it necessary to point out that the language of the will really meant, Secure a proper tutor under an indenture for my son Robert, etc. I think many people overlook the broad meaning of the term servant in England and in the American colonies before it became confused with slave there.

The facts that have come to my knowledge are far too few to justify me in asserting the opinion I none the less hold, that, over and above the large number of convicts and political prisoners who arrived in Virginia as transported servants, there were a considerable number of perfectly respectable people who came to the colonies to seek their fortune under those conditions. Is it not possible that the young English gentleman who came to this country a few years ago and paid a farmer in Virginia for permission to work with him and for him a year or two, before buying the worn-out farm in which he subsequently sunk his money, would, had he come when transportation and communication were far more difficult, in the seventeenth or early eighteenth century, have been indentured by an anxious parent, before sailing, to the ship-captain, who would thereby be able to exercise control over him until he was safely consigned to respectable and responsible hands in the colony?

I write this chiefly to ask if there is in existence a book containing a careful examination of this subject, and, if not, that some one with access to records or facts will take it up in the columns of the *Nation*, for the benefit of the large number of people just now exercised as to how their ancestors came to this country.—Truly yours,

T. L. Burwell.

Mt. Savage, Md., April 25, 1897.

"NARRATIVE OF JAMES WILLIAMS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the article you published last week, P. K. Foley makes it quite clear that the 'Narrative of James Williams' was written by J. G. Whittier. I find by reference to files of the *Pennsylvania Freeman*, edited by Whittier, that he speaks of it as his work. In the issue of September 13, 1838, he says

the story of the fugitive "was written down from his lips by ourself," and after stating that the accuracy of the narrative has been denied, he adds: "Our cause needs no support of a doubtful character; and if the narrative in any essential particular is untrue, the slave-holders of Virginia and Alabama would confer a favor upon us by immediately producing testimony to that effect." He publishes the statements of reputable Virginians that the names of persons and places mentioned in the 'Narrative' are incorrect, and also the report of the executive committee of the Anti-Slavery Society directing that the sale of the work be discontinued. SAMUEL T. PICKARD.

16 CUMBERLAND STREET, BOSTON.

THE QUAKER IN FICTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In his excellent book on 'Progress in Language,' p. 269, Jespersen quotes a remarkable case of attempted Quaker dialect which was heard in New Bedford and reported in my article on the Dative-Nominative, *American Journal of Philology*, vol. iv. A woman not of the faith addressed two or three Quaker visitors with "Won't *thee all* walk into this room?" I have not now at hand the earlier (Danish) edition of Jespersen's book; but I think he called attention to a parallel case in his own tongue. This delightful blunder now comes to light in print. Harper's *Round Table*, April 13, 1897, has a story, called "The Painted Desert," by Kirk Munroe. One of the characters is a Quaker "professor." A genuine Quaker of the old school, now rapidly disappearing, will prove to be a very picturesque character when he gets into fiction; but the real Quaker is unknown in fiction. Even Bayard Taylor, who knew him, failed to draw him in any satisfactory figure, while the conventional Quaker of novelists, from Addison and Fielding down to modern immortals, is a most depressing caricature. Even the search for that "extinct mammal" of Paris, about which Mr. Stevenson discoursed so humorously, could not be more vain than the attempt to find reality in the novelists' Quaker. In addition to his ridiculous or impossible farings, he is forced to talk an outrageous lingo made up of copious Scripture—always avoided by Friends in their familiar conversation—curious or obsolete grammatical forms, and a sort of refrain or burden to the effect that the spirit moveth him. Perhaps a Quaker uses this phrase apart from his sermons, and perhaps a clergyman opens his ordinary conversation by reciting the General Confession. The Quaker of fiction is humorous, of course; and his humor consists in this application of solemn phrases to the trivial and the jocose. Well, the Quaker of the old school had plenty of humor; but it did not lie that way.

I remember a case in point. A prominent Friend of New Bedford, with a rather feeble voice, joined me on the street one day, and I proceeded to make conversation—intelligent conversation. "What," I queried loudly, and pompously, "what, in thy opinion, is the cause of this unprecedented decline of your leading industry here—this astonishing falling-off in the profits of the whaling interest?" His eyes twinkled as I bent over him to catch the answer. "No whales," he said. Fancy the novelists' Quaker saying anything like that!

But let us hear Mr. Munroe. He has quite properly banished the once inevitable "thou," which the colloquial usage of Friends ignores precisely as ordinary colloquial usage ignores that other nominative, "ye"; but while "thou" is shunned, "thee" is used in the impossible fashion noted above. On p. 584 the "professor" is talking to two boys. "*Thee has* had a more merciful escape than *thy* foolishness deserved. . . . I hereby forbid *thee both* to descend. . . . *Now thee may go to thy beds.*"

Mr. Munroe uses the prevailing form, "thee is," "thee goes." "Thee are," "thee go," are heard occasionally in New England—witness Whittier's familiar letters—and even in England. A few Friends, convinced of erring grammar, laboriously employ the "thou," precisely as if one should try to restore the "correct" nominative, "ye"; but "thee" is the kindly household word. It is still heard in many a home where the inmates have long since forsaken the creed of their fathers, but cling to the only chance offered by our language to establish such a difference as the German prizes in his *Du* and *Sie*. F. B. G.

HAVERFORD COLLEGE, May 1, 1897.

WHY NOT A NEW PARTY?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Do not the times cry out for the formation of a new party as loudly as when the Republican party was first organized? After the exhibition we have had of a narrow partisan spirit in Congress; after the course pursued by a Republican Governor and Legislature in the Empire State of New York, in relation to civil-service reform, has any upright, intelligent, progressive voter any further use for the Republican party?

Is there any more hope in Democracy? Have not the political leaders who control the masses of that party deliberately opposed its better elements, and thwarted the wise designs of its chief? It may be that the sound-money Democracy may form a nucleus for such a party as the country needs—for which the writer has elsewhere suggested a name, "The Old Democracy." Possibly, a totally new name and new departure are needed. But do give us a party which appeals to the moral sense of the country, and for which one can vote without a blush!

Thousands, I have no doubt, have cast their last vote for any Republican or Democratic ticket. W. ALLEN JOHNSON.

MIDDLETOWN, Conn., May 1, 1897.

Notes.

CURTIS & CAMERON, Boston, whose "Copley Prints" began two years ago with a reproduction of Sargent's mural decorations of the Boston Public Library, now announce a continuance with the entire series of the corresponding decorations in the National Library at Washington. They will be published in several sizes, together with other decorations from the Boston Library, and paintings from the Boston Museum of Fine Arts.

Lamson, Wolffe & Co., Boston, will publish for Mrs. Burton Harrison 'A Son of the Old Dominion,' a pre-Revolutionary historical novel, with Washington for one of the characters.

E. P. Dutton & Co. will shortly publish 'My Father as I Recall Him,' by Mamie Dickens, daughter of the novelist.

'The Treatment of Nature in Dante's Divina Commedia,' by Prof. L. Oscar Kuhns, is announced for speedy issue by Edward Arnold.

'Life Histories of American Insects,' by Clarence M. Weed, Professor of Zoölogy and Entomology in the New Hampshire College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts; 'Citizen Bird,' by Mrs. Mabel Osgood Wright; and Nietzsche's 'Genealogy of Morals,' are forthcoming from Macmillan & Co.

Thomas Whittaker has nearly ready 'Oliver Cromwell: A Study in Personal Religion,' by the Rev. Robert F. Horton.

Bonnell, Silver & Co. will issue 'Across the Country of the Little King,' a trip through Spain, by William Bement Lent.

William Allen Butler's poems, "Two Millions," and "Nothing to Wear," translated into German by Eduard Dorsch, and edited by Karl Knortz, are in the press of Karl Henckell & Co., Zurich and Leipzig.

The elegant and fairly sumptuous apparel of 'In Memoriam Frederick Douglass' (Philadelphia: John C. Yorston & Co.) is in seeming contrast to the reference, in the preface, to "this unpretending volume." Yet nothing could be in better taste than this simple and orderly array of funeral services, and memorial tributes in prose and in verse, letters, resolutions, etc., etc., closing with a very brief biographical sketch of a most gifted American. Black and white talent and affection have sincerely joined in rearing this monument, the like of which no other of Mr. Douglass's race in our country has earned. By far the most significant stones in the edifice are the resolutions adopted by the City Council of Rochester, N. Y., where Mr. Douglass long resided and edited his paper; by the City Council of Cambridge, Mass., and by the State Legislature; and finally, by the General Assembly of Illinois. The city of Boston has also issued a memorial volume. These would be cheering signs of the times if we did not know how superficial still, as evidenced by our practice, is the popular recognition of human equality without regard to color. An admirable portrait of Douglass precedes the beautifully printed text.

Mr. Clodd's 'Pioneers of Evolution, from Thales to Huxley' (Appletons), without pretending to any special novelty or profundity, gives a thoroughly readable and interesting account of matters much debated in these days. The book is full of talk about the irrepressible conflict of science and religion, and is written by a frank partisan of Mr. Herbert Spencer. It should, therefore, be read with a certain amount of caution, the more so as the author betrays almost no consciousness of the fact that exceedingly heterogeneous, and even incompatible, facts and theories are popularly amalgamated in the notion of evolution. Mr. Clodd does not distinguish sharply enough, and inclines too much to regard as evolution everything that comes into his net. Still, there is no reason why he should not continue to produce works of this sort so long as, in his own concluding words, he is encouraged, and his "inquiry is stimulated, by the consciousness of the *impenetrable* mysteries of the universe." Evidently only the brave deserve the Unknowable, and we hope they may get it.

The 'Memorial Life of Victor Hugo,' a collection of contributions from a large number of literary men, artists, and critics, appeared in France some time after the death of the poet, and, having been translated, now appears in English from the press of Estes & Lauriat. The first part of the book is devoted to a rather loose biography of Hugo, whose works are then taken up one by one. Some account of the time of composition, of the first and succeeding presentations of the plays, of the contemporary criticism, and also of later criticism, which is generally of quite a different nature, is regularly given. The last chapter but one comprises an excellent philosophical essay on Victor Hugo as an artist, and the final chapter describes almost in detail the great ovation tendered him on his eightieth birthday.

A couple of recent books on the drama are E. M. de Lyden's 'Le Théâtre d'autrefois et celui d'aujourd'hui (Paris: Dentu), and Catulle Mendès's 'L'Art au Théâtre' (Paris: Charpentier). The former is anecdotic, and treats of singers and actors, the salaries paid them at different times and in different countries. It contains some interesting information and throws a side-light on the profession. Mendès's book is a republication of his dramatic criticisms on plays produced during 1895, and does not strike the reader as a very valuable contribution to the sum of ideas on French plays and playwrights. M. Mendès considers Corneille a Romanticist; this we had long ago been told by M. Deschanel. He prefers him to Racine, whom he considers non-poetical; this is not a new reproach either—the school of Hugo rang the changes on it years ago, and yet Racine has survived, and, as was pointed out in these columns a short time since, is becoming the inspirer of the more recent dramatists. M. Mendès looks upon Victor Hugo as a very great dramatist. As for Ibsen, he has no good opinion of him.

Galdós, the leading novelist of Spain, has just had a double presentation to American readers. An edition of his 'Doña Perfecta' is brought out by Ginn & Co., with an introduction by Prof. A. R. Marsh, in which Galdós's place and merits are set forth with ample knowledge and good judgment. Less authoritative is the account of Galdós in the May *Bookman*, by Archer M. Huntington, who describes that writer's reception in the Spanish Academy. This article is disfigured by some sad misprints of Spanish names and book-titles.

We have already heralded the monthly issue of *American Colonial Tracts* undertaken by George P. Humphrey, Rochester, N. Y. The first number, for May, is now before us, and is a bold and tasteful reprint of Sir Robert Mountgomry's 'Discourse concerning the designed establishment of a new Colony to the south of Carolina,' filling 28 octavo pages.

A field which has been much and profitably worked of late by Southern historical investigators, viz., the bookishness of the pre-Revolutionary South, is explored further in an article on "Libraries and Literature in North Carolina in the Eighteenth Century," by Dr. Stephen B. Weeks, of the Bureau of Education. This comes to us as a reprint from the annual report of the American Historical Association for 1895, and will be found worthy of examination. We have also before us the same writer's address on "The University of North Carolina in the Civil War," delivered at the centennial celebration of that institution last June. North Carolina, says Dr. Weeks, furnished one-fifth of the troops of the Confederacy, as against her quota of one-tenth, and more than a fourth of those who fell in battle were North Carolinians.

Thanks to Senator Hoar, as we read in the newly published Proceedings of the American Antiquarian Society (vol. xi., part 2), part of the stone threshold of the church at Delftshaven in which the Pilgrim fathers probably held their last services before embarking, has been secured to be built into the restored First Church of Plymouth; so that, in the Senator's words, the town now holds "the first object which their feet touched when they landed here, and the last object now existing which their feet touched when they departed from Holland."

We remark in the fourth Bulletin of the New York Public Library the announcement that "the section of genealogy at the Lenox is being made as complete as possible by transfers from the Astor."

Three important memoirs on climatology are collected in volume 67 of the *Nova Acta* of the Imperial Leopoldino-Carolinian German Academy of Naturalists. The first, on the "Thermal Constitution of Climates," is by Dr. W. Zenker, who explains his method of determining the temperature for areas of each two degrees of the earth's surface. In the second paper, founded upon observations of the daily change in the temperature of the air, Dr. J. Halm, after treating the question from a mathematical standpoint, describes a new and advantageous method of investigating the periodicity of solar radiation. Two interesting charts accompany Helmuth König's paper on the "Duration of Sunshine in Europe," one showing its possible and its actual duration, the other the percentage at twenty different stations. From these observations it appears that the sunshine is actually greatest in Spain and least in Scotland.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for April opens with an instructive account of Ceylon, in which the author, an ex-official, after describing what English rule has done for the country industrially and commercially, closes with a frank acknowledgment of the fact that there have grown up with this "three unhappy mischiefs," viz., drinking, gambling, and false litigation. To such an extent has this third evil increased that "now no native, however blameless his life, can reckon himself as secure from the success of some false and malicious criminal accusation." This is followed by a chatty paper on the "British in South America," by Col. Sir Howard Vincent, M.P.

In its second number the *Journal of the Society of Comparative Legislation* (London: Rivington, Percival & Co., Covent Garden) fulfils the expectations created by the first number, and takes a permanent place as the leading medium in the English language for research in its field. Now that publication and circulation can be assured for good work in that department, more of it will doubtless be undertaken. The two chief topics of the present number have a practical flavor which typically distinguishes the Anglo-Saxon journal from its Continental companions. The Reports from the sixty-odd British colonies as to Modes of Legislation therein are continued. The answers to the very first question on the circular, "What is the Common Law of the Colony?" ought to be fascinating and suggestive reading to every student of law and history. The Reports on Methods of Legal Remuneration range from Austria through our own country to India, and are decidedly meet for reflection. The great problem of how to regulate the costs of doing justice has been struggled over with varying success, by every civilized people; and when we find an English law journal still soberly adhering to the view that expensive litigation is desirable because it discourages litigiosity, we realize that the solution of the problem is not as near at hand as it might seem to most of us. There are interesting reports in this number from New York, Boston, Chicago, St. Louis, and San Francisco, which even the layman may consult with profit. The editor of the *Journal* is recommended, in future, to print an inside title-page, and to put upon it the name of the editor, the subscription-price, and the addresses of the society's honorary secretaries—matters as to which the reader is now left in ignorance.

The second and third numbers of *Art et Décoration* amply confirm the judgment of the *American Architect and Building News* (Boston) to promote the new French art journal's circulation in this country. The examples of Roty's masterly medals and plaquettes in the March number are an education of the kind which the Dingley bill aims to deprive us of; but there are also introductions to noble work in glass, tinted stuffs, pottery, embossed leather, binding, furniture, with fine illustrations, some in color. The standard of selection is unusually high.

The *Jiji Shimpo* (Daily Times) of Tokyo of March 31 contains both a humorous and a serious suggestion in reply to the menace to Japanese industrial interests contained in the tariff bill now pending in Congress. The former is a double cartoon, with the legend, "Forty Years Before and After." The upper illustration, in allusion to Commodore Perry, is a picture of Uncle Sam dragging the youthful and unwilling "Jap" out of the entrance of his house, to the supreme surprise and disgust of the recluse. The lower half of the cartoon shows Uncle Sam in his own private garden, himself building a high fence or "Chinese Wall" of perpendicular boards, on each of which are figures showing a gradual increase of ad-valorem duties on foreign goods. This pointed pictorial contrast is accompanied by an editorial article on the effect of the new rates on certain Japanese industries, and on the mode in which Japan is likely to retaliate. In conclusion, the *Jiji* urges the Foreign Office to make proper representations in Washington so as to prevent Congress from going to such a deplorable length.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, as ever, to true occasion true, sends us a fine copy of his nearly full-length portrait of Gen. Grant, taken in 1866, which engravings have made familiar to us, and which will always possess a high degree of value as representing the great soldier in his prime. The alert and intellectual face of the late Prof. E. D. Cope is also commemorated in an "imperial panel" from the same studio. It worthily records the appearance of a scientific worker whose career covered forty years, and whose solid versatility and special attainments in comparative anatomy were perhaps unrivalled among his own countrymen.

From F. Keppel, 20 East Sixteenth Street, we receive two of those catalogues of Frederick Muller & Co., Amsterdam, which are

desirable possessions in themselves, as well as guides to bidders at sales. One is of old paintings and preciosities from the collection of M. Gijsbert de Clercq, to be sold June 1, accompanied by photogravure engravings after sundry Dutch artists; another is old paintings from the Widow Jentink-Farret's collection at The Hague, of which the sale is fixed for the same date. This has a couple of larger photogravures after Van der Helst and Van de Velde the younger.

Another, equally sumptuous catalogue, of Mme. G. van den Eynde's collection, to be sold at the Hôtel Drouot on May 18, 19, comes to us from the American branch of Durand-Ruel, 389 Fifth Avenue, New York. This collection embraces a great assortment of objects of art. The paintings, of which many photogravures are given, are by Corot, Daubigny, Decamps, Delacroix, Diaz, Fromentin, Isabey, Meissonier, Rousseau, Alfred Stevens, Troyon, etc., and there are several drawings by Millet.

—Uniformity in education has always been expressly avoided by the English; but, while the educational systems of other countries look better on paper, the actual results obtained in England at the present day rank, on the whole, among the highest. This is especially true of the education of women. Miss C. S. Bremner's book of 300 pages, published in London by Messrs. Sonnenschein, entitled 'The Education of Girls and Women in Great Britain,' is a sort of blue-book on the question, and gives an historical survey of primary, secondary, and university education for women, in England and Scotland, from the destruction of the nunnery schools early in the sixteenth century to the free education act of 1891, the establishment of the Girls' Public Day School Co. in London in 1879, and the foundation of Girton and Newnham in the sixties; these three events being the great landmarks of advance in the education of women in the three stages. Miss Bremner's outline of educational legislation and the workings of the education and science and art departments is brief but clear. Scotland is treated in a separate section. Ireland is left to a more daring explorer of the future. The task of the historian of English secondary education is rendered almost hopeless by the complete lack of coherency in the system, partly due to the fact that the majority of English girls of the better classes are educated at home, or in private schools which are closed to rigid inspection, and so cannot be classified. Perhaps the most interesting conclusion to be drawn from this excellent survey is that the women's education movement has vitality only when it is directed by women themselves—the slow advance of Germany is a good instance of this—so that its final and complete success lies in the hands not of men but women.

—In his April section of the Oxford English Dictionary (Macmillan), Dr. Murray leaves the dis- compounds behind at last, but has to yield one-sixth part of his space to *do*, and to *dog* with its compounds and derivatives. He points out that the prefix di- (not dis-) should determine the spelling of *disyllabic* with one *s*. For the "rare" *diswing* he cites only Carlyle in 1837, in a passage that may have caught the eye of Edward FitzGerald, who uses the word in his 'Bird Parliament' (1857-1862), in his striking image of the spider World that "Seizes, dis-wings, and drains the Life" of "the tangled Fly." And we would fain have seen FitzGerald remembered, under *dive*, with a line from his "Such Stuff as Dreams are Made of": "Just so—Like some scared water-bird, As we say in my country, *dove* below." Since 1872 the word *disturnpike* has gained a footing in England, but we doubt if the late turnpike war in Kentucky ever prompted this coinage in the press of the State. Nor will the adjacent land of the "carpet-baggers" join with us in regretting that *disvalise* (Cotgreave's 'to rob, despoyle, rifle; to depriue of cloake-bag, bag, and baggage') was ever rare and is now obsolete. The South generally, the Sea Islands certainly, could gloss the thirtieth division of *do*, exhibiting its use as a periphrastic auxiliary of the imperative, with an example of emphatic reduplication; for was it not Brer Rabbit, in the earliest version of "The Tar Baby," who entreated Brer Wolf, "*Do* don't trow me in de brier-bush"? The late Prof. W. F. Allen did not overlook this locution among the blacks of those islands in his 'Slave Songs of the United States,' (1867), p. xxxiv.: "*Do* don't let 'em stay arter school done." But it is not confined to the Southern blacks. Purists who object to *don't* for *doesn't* will find themselves confronted with the early form *do* for *does*, from which the contraction now branded as both vulgar and colloquial has normally descended. Farquhar, Richardson and Albany Fonblanque were guilty of employing it in play, tale, and history. Americanisms are well cared for under *dollar*, where the "almighty dollar" is assigned to Irving in 'Wolfert's Roost' (1855); and *doctrine*, where 1848 is the earliest date for Monroe Doctrine. *Donate* is conceded chiefly to the United States (from 1845), and we need not be ashamed of so handy a link in the chain of *donation* (1425), *donator* (1449), *donatrix* (1668), *donatee* (1716), *donative*, and *donatary*. The etymological connection between *divan* and Italian *dogana* and French *douane* (custom-house); the derivation of *doll* from Dorothy, and its recent application to a toy baby (1700); the fact of *domino*, "a very childish sport, [being] imported from France a few years back [of 1801]," and of *donkey* making its first appearance, in a dictionary, in 1785—these are some of Dr. Murray's historical curiosities. The remainder of D, enabling us to bind up volume iii., is promised for July 1.

—Mr. Henry Bradley's section transports us to another part of the file, viz., *Flexuosity-Foister*, marked by the absence of Greek derivatives, the large number of onomatopœic formations, and the confusions of forms and meanings caused by association. Of the last, *flush*, the verb which has for one meaning to cleanse (as, a drain), supplies an instance. We read: "Perhaps originally identical with the preceding [*flush*, 'to fly up quickly'], the notion of 'sudden movement' being common to the two verbs. But the development of meaning appears to have been influenced by phonetic association with *flash*, . . . while the senses relating to color have been affected by association with *blush*." Such interlacings reconcile us to the differentiation of *flower* into *flour*, to express 'the finer portion of meal which is separated by bolting.' Dr. Johnson's lexicography, in 1755, did not recognize this spelling, though in Cruden's 'Concordance' in 1738 the distinction was already made; our present-day phonetic reformers would restore uniformity, choosing one or other form, and cheating the eye of its instant aid to comprehension. The obsolete *flote*, 'a troop, herd, shoal,' one of the collective names in which our language is so rich, has earned a "good riddance" from the same reformers, who have not to adjust it to *float*, a word which leads us to remark that while *floater*, 'a purchasable voter,' is first noted here from Henry George's pen in 1883, the custard called *floating-island* goes back to Franklin's Letters in 1771. *Florist* appears in 1623. The convenient and poetic primary sense of *flourish*, 'the blossom or mass of flowers on a fruit-tree,' deserves to have a wider range than Scottish and Northern dialect. Stable, we should hope, is the noun *floruit*, 'the period during which a person flourished.' It remounts to Liddell and Scott in 1843, and is, we surmise, earlier than the analogous well-rooted *habitat*. *Flimsy* occurs early in the eighteenth century. *Fly-boat*, from being a fast coaster, as if a "flyer," has now humbled itself to 'a swift passage boat used on canals,' with an etymological rapprochement to the Dutch *vlieboot* (channel boat). *Fogger*, like *pettifogger*, embalms the name of an eminent Augsburg family of merchants and financiers in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. In *Föhn* we are taught to discern Horace's "veris et *Favoni*." It is worth observing that the consonantal (initial) combination *fn* expired with three words from Old English.

—The Russian Government has always refused to admit that the United Greeks (or "Uniats") who were coerced into union with the Roman Catholic Church by Poland in the sixteenth century, may now have the privileges of Catholics. Although most of them have been driven back to the Greek orthodox faith, there are still some recalcitrants who suffer for their beliefs as their ancestors did before accepting those beliefs. It is a curious case of visiting, not the sins, but the misfortunes, of the fathers upon the children. A collection of the petitions of the persecuted peasants to the present Tsar has just been published at Cracow in Russian, Polish, and French. The Russian text (the official one) is often confusing and illiterate, but affecting in its simplicity. The signatures are all given. We subjoin one of the shortest of these petitions:

"Most Noble, High, and Mighty Sovereign Emperor, Nicholas Alexandrovitch, Autocrat of all the Russias, King of Poland:

"Petition of the peasants of the village of Prosnów and others, signed below, commune of Huslew, district of Constantinow, government of Siedlce, March 13, 1895.

"Our great-grandfathers, our grandfathers, and we to the year 1874, professed the Roman-Uniat faith, but in the month of March, 1874, our Uniat priest was taken away, an orthodox one was sent in his place, and it was proposed to us to embrace the orthodox faith. But we did not agree to it, we did not accept, and to this day we do not accept. For this we have been severely punished by corporal punishment by a hundred and more blows with Cossack nagaikas [whips] on our naked bodies, we have been chastised by fines of a hundred and more rubles, we have been plagued by imprisonment, we have been sent away to distant governments of Russia; and so it continues till now only the corporal punishments have ceased. Thus we, your poor children, suffer; for this we seek with a most humble petition at the feet of your Majesty, with bitter tears we kiss your feet, grant us that we may remain under the Pope of Rome, the one there is now, Leo XIII. Your Imperial Highness, most humbly we beseech,

do not reject our petition, our merciful Father have pity on us. With impatience we await your mercy."

MACKENZIE'S CASTLES OF ENGLAND.

The Castles of England: Their Story and Structure. By Sir James D. Mackenzie. With 40 plates, 158 text illustrations, and 70 plans. In 2 vols. The Macmillan Co. 1896.

We once ran across in the visitors' book of a Warwick inn the following outburst of a Cincinnati woman who had just been shown through the ancestral abode of the Beauchamps: "Feudal despotism had its *castle* for the one; our glorious republic has *homes* for all." We believe this to be an exceptional demonstration of hostility towards English castles, for most travellers, however democratic they may be, take pleasure in keeps, moats, and battlements. Time has softened the outlines of feudal harshness considerably, and the sight of a castle may be depended on to recall romantic rather than tyrannical associations. At worst, feudalism was in its time a universal institution, and few American readers of Sir James Mackenzie's handsome volumes will be any more disposed to quarrel with his subject than they would be to quarrel with the equator.

The castles of England by no means stand at the head of the European list for either age or number. If we pass over a bit of masonry at Corfe, every one of them is later than the Conquest, and all the adulterine castles of Stephen's reign would be needed to bring the aggregate anywhere near that of an equal territory taken from France or Germany. The small plateau of Eppan, between the Etsch and the Mendel ridge of mountains in South Tyrol, alone contains more ruins than are to be found in most English districts of five times its size. Had the family estates been broken up by a general process of gavelkind, we should possess to-day in the forty shires more nearly 1,000 castles than the 389 which still remain. What they lose in number they gain in many other respects. They are as a rule more carefully built than the castles of the Continent, and while seldom if ever rising to the magnitude of Coucy, Pierrefonds, and Château Gaillard, they are of very creditable average bulk. The Wars of the Roses and the great Rebellion were less destructive to them than the Thirty Years' War to the castles of Germany or than the Reformation and the Revolution to the castles of France. Sir James Mackenzie, excluding the ridiculous figures of Daniel (who states that 1,117 castles were demolished in accordance with the Treaty of Winchester), enumerates 660 military strongholds vouched for by reliable records. Of these 217 are non-existent.

The county histories of England are as good as its municipal histories are bad, and Sir James Mackenzie uses them freely in this survey of military architecture. He has no formal disquisition on the technical features of castle-building, nor upon the connection which exists between the political development of the country and structures of this kind. He plunges *in medias res* at Kent, and emerges after 900 pages at Northumberland. The publication, twelve years ago, of Mr. George T. Clark's 'Mediæval Military Architecture' cleared the way for a book like this, which aims to bring together for reference the main facts known concerning all the feudal fastnesses of England, without making architectural study altogether subservient to them. History comes first and architecture second; but, thanks to Mr. Clark, this arrangement is perfectly natural. Unfortified country houses, even of the largest size, are put at one side. "It will be observed that a very strict line has had to be drawn so as to include only *bona-fide* defensible strongholds, and to omit the halls innumerable and other buildings with doubtful fortifications. A few of the latter, such as Thornbury in Gloucestershire, had to be mentioned for special reasons, either on account of their importance in the local history or because they stand upon the site of a once existing genuine castle." According to its magnitude, a fortress is styled chief or minor, and a third category includes the non-existent. One of these three terms is added to every castle described, and makes a useful heading. The text is purely descriptive, never deviating from the style of "archæologia" into the blandishments of fine writing. Sir James Mackenzie is a descendant in the direct line of Surtees, Ormerod, and Hasted. The only difference between them is that he takes a subject while they take a district.

When one has a suitable theme, one can be minute and circumstantial without becoming unreadably tedious. To be sure Mr. Samuel Tymms, in editing and continuing Camden's 'Britannia,' failed to discover the secret, and obviously the undertaking demands skill. Yet the thing can be done, and Sir James Mackenzie has found out how. Assuming only a fair knowledge of English history on the reader's part, we commit ourselves to the statement that each of his separate articles will be found replete with entertaining fact, even though his method strikes one at first sight as being prosaic. The reason why the bare and bald annalist of English castles can be engaging besides being instructive is that the forts he deals with were also homes. A little interweaving of personal and family gossip with the political vicissitudes of the stronghold goes a long way towards relieving the monotony of dates, sieges, and *coups de main*. For instance, under Oakham, a minor castle in Rutlandshire, the author branches off into the following digression:

"Details of the history and succession of this castle and manor may be dry reading, but it is striking to observe that of the owners and occupiers of this small property, in a remote part of an insignificant county, no less than eight of them died violent deaths, five being beheaded. There is a singular custom connecting this lordship with its ancient possessors, the Earls Ferrers, who, being originally identified with the farrier's department of Duke William's army, adopted as their armorial device a horseshoe, and the same has since been in use by all descendants of their family, under all varieties of spelling. The possessor of Oakham had the right to demand a horseshoe from every peer who passed there for the first time, and his bailiff had power to stop horses and carriages until this service was performed, when the shoe was nailed on the castle gate. Naturally the matter was compounded for by a money payment, and a horseshoe, made large or small according to the sum received, was affixed with the donor's name and title engraved. A curious collection is to be seen here; horseshoes of all sizes, from those of exaggerated dimensions to the size of a toy horse, and mostly gilt, are shown; one very splendid one being left by the Duke of York in 1788."

We might multiply examples indefinitely to show what a wealth of singular customs, legends, and romances is stored away in the nooks and crannies of this compendium.

Politics, however, must be held to take first place in a book of military architecture where the historical element is predominant. One is immediately struck, on analyzing the table of statistics in which Sir James Mackenzie shows the geographical distribution of castles, by the fact that the densest areas fall within the limits of the Conqueror's palatine earldoms. There is nothing to surprise one in this, for the march lands demanded most protection. The figures prove beyond question that they received it. Kent has a record of thirty castles; the Welsh border, including Hereford, Salop, and Cheshire, of eighty-one; while Northumberland and Cumberland required a total of ninety-three to prevent the canny and assiduous Scot from devouring their substance. Would that we might recall some of the border forays so dear to the ballad writers and to Sir Philip Sidney. Many a bout have those rugged strongholds Carlisle and Haworth, Warkworth and Alnwick seen, when

"They swapped together, whyll that they swette,
Wyth swordes sharp and long;
Ych on other so faste they beete,
Tyll ther helmes cam in peyses dowyn."

Let no one open Sir James Mackenzie's second volume without placing the Percy Reliques within reach. They furnish a romantic gloss for every page.

The Welsh border must be deemed of inferior interest to the valleys of the Tweed and the Eden for several reasons. Its castles were less numerous to begin with; they have suffered more from decay, and, despite the vaunted Celtic imagination, fewer sentimental associations cluster about them. Once Hereford and Ludlow held their heads very high indeed. Now the one is nonexistent and the other badly wrecked. We particularly regret the destruction of Hereford Castle, for it was the chief guarantee of local safety when the town was a municipal leader throughout the length and breadth of the west country. Five and a half acres of masonry meant much to a district in the age of the Edwards. Almost always they meant the reign of force and heavier shackles. One takes pleasure in reflecting that at Hereford the Castle was a pledge of security, an earnest that life and property would be guarded from marauders, and that under the ægis of the English crown the neighboring towns should be secured in the possession of their democratic charters. Sir James Mackenzie cites the destruction of Hereford as an instance of wantonness in the execution of modern improvements. "The absence of all vestiges of this great fortress exemplifies the length to which a spirit of reckless destructiveness and careless vandalism, exerted in favor of some supposed 'benefit' to their precious townsfolk, frequently leads municipalities."

If Hereford was connected with a striking chapter in what Dr. Gross aptly calls the "affiliation of mediæval towns," Ludlow overtopped it in military strength. Such is the pen's triumph over the sword that it is now held in remembrance chiefly on account of John Egerton, first Earl of Bridgewater, John Milton and "Comus," though it once headed the list of the thirty-two castles of the Welsh Marches. Sir James Mackenzie devotes several beautiful illustrations to Ludlow, and is also beguiled by it into one of the few blunders which have attracted our attention. "It is of interest to know that Milton was from Ludlow, and wrote his *Comus* there, taking

as his scene a lovely valley some two miles out on the Wigmore road. The masque was first acted in May, 1633, in the banqueting-hall of this castle." We spare our readers the insult of reminding them that Milton was not "from Ludlow" in any sense of having been born or having lived there. The writer is furthermore in error concerning the date of the masque's first production. It was performed in 1634. The whole statement is on a par with Dugdale's passage about Stratford. That great antiquary, in his 'Warwickshire,' vouchsafes, in small print at the end of a long notice of the place, that the "late ingenious poet, Will Shakespeare," was born there.

The rank and file of private castles can be fitly treated within the limits which Sir James Mackenzie has set himself. Certain others of a public character refuse to fit into his scheme with perfect ease. Dover, Windsor, and the Tower of London belong to the nation by a thousand memories and every right of popular achievement. Assuming with Ralph Hythlodaye, in the first part of 'Utopia,' that "the comminaltie chueseth their king for their own sake, and not for his sake, to the intent that through his labour and study they might al live wealthily, sauffe from wronges and injuries," these royal residences must be considered a part of England's historical stock in trade. To dismiss them hastily, even in a general work, is to do them wrong. We wish that Sir James Mackenzie had made his not too bulky volumes a hundred pages longer for the sake of telling us something more than he has done of five or six castles in this special class.

Probably the most valuable part of the present survey is that which deals with the non-existing strongholds. When a building has once fallen into decay, it is soon forgotten and information about it must be searched for. Several of the English castles were strong enough to be dangerous or to arouse vindictive feelings, and thus some oaks have been uprooted by the storm of vengeance while the reeds beside them have escaped by bending before it. Nottingham is notable among the fortified places which have disappeared. Few episodes in English annals are more dramatic than the capture of the "She-Wolf of France" and her lover Mortimer by the young Edward's band of knights in 1330. Nottingham was the favorite residence of Richard III., and survived numerous vicissitudes till the Oliverians pulled it down, stone by stone. Wren built a palace for the Newcastle family on the same site, but few vestiges of the mediæval structure remained when a Reform-Bill mob saw fit to kindle a gigantic blaze on the ancient citadel cliff.

The nature of Sir James Mackenzie's subject invites desultory comment without end, but we must conclude, for we cannot undertake to follow his lead in tracing the history of English castles, one after another. We should neglect a manifest duty if we failed to give due praise to the superb typography and illustrations of the volumes which we have been discussing. Their garb is uncommonly fine, and the author's part of the work may be said to fulfil the intent thus outlined in the first page of the preface: "It is here attempted to collect whatever is known of these fastnesses in a reference book, which shall unite—even if it contains little that is new—such information as can be gathered from the various county histories, the Proceedings of Archæological and other Societies, and from special chronicles."

The Middle Period. 1817-1858. By John W. Burgess. [American History Series.] Scribners. 1897. Pp. xvi, 544.

PROF. BURGESS has undertaken to write a concise history of the United States during the forty years in which slavery was the one absorbing political issue. He brings to his task learning and industry, an uncompromising conviction that the South was in the wrong, and an earnest purpose to set forth, with entire impartiality, the motives and conduct of all the parties concerned. He tells us that he has "made it an invariable rule to use no secondary material," but to rely wholly upon the so-called "primary" sources, by which latter he seems to mean Congressional documents and the like. What he has really done is to give us a volume consisting largely of abstracts of Congressional debates—the proceedings and discussions of Congress reduced, as it were, to their lowest terms—and of official documents of various kinds. In comparison with such a book, for example, as Young's 'American Statesman,' this part of the work has been well done, and the volume will have value for certain classes of students; judged by other standards, however, it has to be said that its shortcomings are neither few nor unimportant. We have not space to criticise the work in detail, but must content ourselves with pointing out two or three respects in which Prof. Burgess's book might well have been expected to be better than it is.

Our author professes to have written only a political history, and, consequently, to have dealt with only those events which are "significant of our progress in political civilization." "The truthful record, connection, and interpretation of such events," he adds, "is what I call history in the highest sense, as distinguished from chronology, narrative, and romance." We are not quite sure for whom or what this last thrust is intended; but if, by "political" history, Prof. Burgess means the kind of history he has given us in his book, we can hardly admit that it is entitled to be called "history in the highest sense." In a work designed primarily for students and the general public, rather than for scholars and specialists, the wisdom of devoting attention almost exclusively to one phase of a subject always needs justification. So far as the volume before us is concerned, the whole social and industrial progress of the United States between 1817 and 1858 is treated almost as though it were not. Such matters as the significant movements of population, the extension of the settled area, and the irregular growth of different sections of the country, though exerting large influence upon the course of our "political" history, receive only brief and incidental mention. Even our diplomatic history, by no means unimportant in this period, and having special bearing on both slavery and the slave-trade, gets rather scanty treatment. Nor does Prof. Burgess make the most, we think, even of the method he adopts. A careful reading of his book leaves an uncomfortable, though possibly erroneous, impression that, in narrowing the scope of "politics," he has become rather more interested in processes than in results. More than once, for example, he leads us skilfully and with heightening interest through some confused debate or intricate negotiation, only to dismiss us in a few sentences when the outcome of the whole affair has been reached. One result of this is to deprive the narrative of continuity of interest; one can, without much embarrassment, begin anywhere and read either way.

To say that the fundamental plan is defective is not, however, the most serious criticism that can be made of a book; and we freely acknowledge the service which Prof. Burgess has rendered by his usually clear and accurate accounts of important episodes in our national history. We are reluctantly compelled, however, to take issue with him on a much more vital point, and that the one on which, if we read the preface aright, he himself would lay especial stress. We refer to the "thoroughly impartial spirit" in which the work has professedly been undertaken. How far this claim is well founded may be seen by examining the passages relating to the abolition movement; for the historian who can hold a steady hand in dealing with a great and radical moral agitation in politics is likely to be a safe guide in less vivid matters. We do not know what authorities, besides Congressional documents, Prof. Burgess has relied upon, but his references to the abolitionists and those who, in varying degrees, sympathized with them, are almost uniformly couched in terms of sneer and denunciation. He speaks of "their extravagant fanaticism" (p. 320), and of "a quarter of a century of radical abolition recklessness" (p. 152), though admitting that the movement "contains those forces of mystical enthusiasm, self-sacrifice, and reckless disregard of consequences so necessary, at times, to drag the world out of the ruts of materialism and the love of peace" (p. 246). As to the Mexican war, "of course the Abolitionists could see nothing in the matter but a wicked scheme for the extension of slavery. Their attitude was, however, too narrow and bigoted to win much attention" (p. 331). In view of the Nat Turner insurrection, "not too much should be made out of the killing of" Lovejoy (p. 250). Webster's 7th of March speech was "received with great satisfaction by all moderate and prudent men," but "of course . . . did not satisfy the extremists, either in the North or the South" (p. 359); while Giddings's "reckless outburst of radical extravagance . . . disgusted the House" (p. 369). Prof. Burgess thinks that Calhoun and the abolitionists might have found common ground if the latter "could have taken the historical view of ethics, the evolutionary view of morals," etc. (p. 267). That such estimates of the greatest moral movement in American politics are either impartial or accurate, few, we imagine, will care to maintain; but they serve to illustrate the dangers which beset the path of those who would essay the writing of history by first ostentatiously ignoring the work of all previous students.

Prof. Burgess's account of the origin of the Dred Scott case is based on an "entirely original and authentic" account of the early history of the case furnished him by Mr. A. C. Crane, of St. Louis, who was a clerk in the law office of Roswell M. Field at the time the case was brought in the United States Circuit Court. The story as here given would seem to be of some importance, and certainly deserves attention. So far,

however, as showing that there were two cases instead of one, and that the case which finally came before the Supreme Court originated in the Circuit Court of the United States, and did not come up on a writ of error from the Supreme Court of Missouri, Prof. Burgess has been anticipated by Nicolay and Hay ('Abraham Lincoln,' Vol. II., ch. iv.). Prof. Burgess, however, says (p. 451) that "the case in the Circuit Court of the United States was begun before the case in the Missouri court was concluded"; but, according to Nicolay and Hay, the decision of the Supreme Court of Missouri was rendered at the March term, 1852, while the declaration of Scott in his suit in the United States Circuit Court was not filed until November 2, 1853. Apparently the history of this case offers a field for further investigation.

Prof. Burgess writes in a somewhat hard and formal style, and we fancy that most persons will find considerable portions of the book rather dry reading. The savor is too largely that of the court-room and the statute-book, while the predominantly legal cast of the author's mind shows itself, at times, in ways closely approaching pedantry. As an examination of an important period in American history in the light of rigid principles of constitutional law and the author's theories of political science, the volume is well worth reading; but it would be a great mistake to suppose that the people of the United States have ever lived, either between 1817 and 1858 or at any other time, in such an atmosphere of formality and didacticism as envelops Prof. Burgess's book.

Les Affiches Etrangères, Illustrées. Paris: G. Boudet.

THE artistic poster, which is the product of the last few years, already, we are assured, threatens to lose its popularity. We have, notwithstanding, quite a little library of books about it. Much the most important is the French work published by Boudet of Paris. The first volume, devoted entirely to the French poster, came out a couple of years ago; the second, 'Les Affiches Étrangères,' has but recently appeared. This, we fancy, with the posterity for whom we labor so conscientiously, must remain the standard anthority. One fact it seems to us to prove beyond all others—that the poster, so far, has not really been worth the loud and persistent praise of the enthusiast. Of course, there is no smoke without fire, and good posters there are—masterpieces in their way. But the greater number of the best have come from France and are the work of the French artist. There was no difficulty in filling a volume—and a large one at that—when France alone was the subject; but a second, no larger, suffices for all other countries, including even Japan. Nor can we find as a result that there are any important omissions, that there is any failure to treat each section with the thoroughness it deserves.

The truth is, the designing of posters, ever since pictorial signs were set up over the shops of Pompeiian tradesmen, has been ruled by commercial conditions and restrictions. The advertiser who proclaims the excellence of his wares in the open streets and public highways, demands first of all that the proclamation should tell, should catch the eye of the passer-by. If this can be done after a fashion that satisfies the artist, there need be no objection; but the artist's pleasure is a very minor consideration. Now and then in earlier days his services were secured, as in the case of the Johannots, of Raffet in France, of Fred Walker in England, to go back no further. But it is certain that Chéret was practically the first who, devoting himself to this branch of design, succeeded in pleasing his fellow-artists no less than his employers and the public. To him belongs the credit of whatever innovation there has been. Men like Lautrec and Steinlen, Anquetin and Gausson, following where he had pointed out the way, went still further, and developed a style at once more simple and effective than his. By the silhouette they produced as startling and striking outdoor advertisements as he had by means of gayety of color and composition. They have carried the art really to the highest point of perfection it has yet reached, and provided a model for all the rest of the advertising world.

Now, the amazing thing is that the rest of the world, thus provided with a good model, has achieved comparatively so little. The writers who contribute the various chapters to the new volume cannot find it in their hearts to approve without much qualification, if, indeed, they approve at all. Germany—*Allemagne* claiming alphabetical precedence—is first disposed of, and in Germany, we are informed, the advertiser's enterprise hitherto has seldom carried him beyond the columns of the daily paper, while the streets of the German town, for some reason, do not make such an appropriate outdoor gallery as those of London and Paris. The few men who do design posters, mostly for art exhibitions, keep by preference to classical traditions, venturing upon no departure more daring than the representation of their ideal figures comfortably seated. There are exceptions, and, first of all, the mystics: Franz Stuck, a painter of decided distinction, but, to judge from the one example here given, not yet accustomed to the open-air conditions; Max Klinger, who, in his poster for a photographical society of Berlin—and perhaps this is part of his allegory—is as clumsy and heavy as he is often graceful and refined in his etchings; Sattler, who is really amusing, and like no one but himself in his announcement of *Pan*, the big German art quarterly. But far better and less mystical is Otto Fischer, whose peasant in broad white cap, with a little red town and bridge for background, is delightful as design and also appropriate as advertisement of a show of peasant industries in Dresden. To pass on to Austria is to gather from the text that the Austrian is serious only as musician; from the illustrations, that he would like to be humorous in his posters. And this brings us to England, where probably more has been said on the subject and more effort made to encourage the art than anywhere else. But in England, too, the results are meagre, out of all proportion to the complacent applause of critics and collectors.

Mr. Beardsley, borrowing a hint from Lautrec, manages to be distinctly original in the practical application of it, but Mr. Beardsley can boast not more than three or four posters, all told. The Beggarstaff Brothers have a still more striking individuality, but, apparently, they have had as much difficulty in making their way into M. Boudet's books as on to London hoardings, and they are much too scantily represented. Then there are Mr. Greiffenhagen, Mr. Anning Bell, Mr. Graham Robertson, Mr. Raven-Hill, who, having produced one or two good designs, have ever since rested on their laurels. There are a few Glasgow men with some appreciation of decorative principles, but oppressed with the necessity of living up to the late so-called "Celtic Renascence." And there is Mr. Dudley Hardy, for whom one would have only enthusiasm had he shown nothing but the simple yellow figure of a very up-to-date young lady on a white ground, supposed to symbolize Mr. Jerome's paper *To-Day*, and perhaps some four or five others. But Mr. Hardy has papered London with designs unworthy of his reputation, and the space accorded to him in the English chapter is really a very fair comment upon the present aspect of English railway stations and streets.

Belgium is the land of the accommodating disciple, or, would it be more correct to say? the accomplished mimic. French Rosicrucianism, Morris wall-papers, belated Pre-Raphaelitism, anything or everything invented elsewhere, it can provide for you, just as if it had not once had artists of its own great enough to set, rather than to follow, the standards of the day. It is not surprising that no sooner did the Belgians wake up to the fact that posters were in vogue in Paris—which awakening is said to date from the Brussels Exhibition of 1894—than they forthwith began to make them at home, if with no marked originality, at least with some degree of gayety and becoming sensationalism when Rassenfosse, Meunier, and Evenpoël were the designers.

In the United States, also, there is no mistaking the influence of Paris, though it has been modified by one or two Englishmen on its way over. We cannot but feel this with Mr. Bradley, even when at times he has improved upon the work of Mr. Beardsley; and Mr. Bradley, without question, has had much to do with forming the style of many of the other most conspicuous makers of posters in America. Mr. Penfield is much more personal in his methods, and some of his little monthly announcements of *Harper's* have a charm and elegance entirely their own. Characteristic examples of other designers are also given.

As for the European countries not already named, they are ignored in M. Boudet's compilation, though the chances are that from Spain and Italy a sufficient number of amusing posters might have been gathered together to form one small section. The Spanish bull-fight announcement, for instance, can be, and often is, a very marvellous performance. When all is said, it must be confessed that our modern street decoration leaves much to be desired, and that the artists to take advantage of the opportunity offered are not very numerous.

The book has been very well got up. The black-and-white reproductions, as a rule, are excellent and carefully printed, while the lithographs give a fairly good idea of the posters, though it is inevitable that the color, concentrated by reproduction, should seem cruder than the designs themselves. The reds and blues, however, are much less staring and violent in the new volume than we remember to have thought them in the first.

Aristotle and the Earlier Peripatetics: Being a translation from Zeller's 'Philosophy of the Greeks.' By B. F. C. Costelloe, M.A.,

and J. H. Muirhead, M.A. Longmans. 1897.

MESSRS. COSTELLOE and Muirhead's translation of Zeller's Aristotle makes accessible to the English reader the whole of the monumental 'Philosophie der Griechen,' with the exception of the final volume on Neo-Platonism and the later schools. With the merits and limitations of the original the public of scholars has long been familiar. It is the quarry from which the materials have been taken for nearly all popular English writing about Greek philosophy during the last forty years. In its philological accuracy and completeness, in the conscientious care with which each successive edition has been made to incorporate the results of an enormous amount of special investigation along many different lines, in the breadth and definiteness of its plan and the faithful minuteness of its execution, it is a marvellous exemplification of the achievement possible to the industry of one man employing through a long life the resources of organized German scholarship. Its philosophical analysis, it is true, will not satisfy a thinker trained in the best school of English psychology. The original taint of Hegelianism still infects its diction if not its thought. The accretions of successive revisions somewhat obscure the definiteness of the first outline. And a scholarship more concerned with nice shades of thought than with the display of a "correct" philological method would find much to say as to the relevancy of many of the citations in the bristling footnotes. But, for the present, there can be no question that Zeller holds the field as the historian of Greek philosophy. The section of which these two volumes are a translation has not been revised since the publication of the third edition in 1879; but the investigations of the past twenty years have accomplished far less for Aristotle than for Plato and the Pre-Socratics, and unless some English scholar arises competent to execute the vast design of Grote, the book may well remain for twenty years more our best and fullest authority on the Peripatetic philosophy.

The work of the translators seems to have been well done. The English is as easy and idiomatic as any reasonable reader will expect to find it in a translation from the German. We have noted some license of paraphrase here and there and a few positive errors. But they are not so numerous as to destroy the student's confidence. In Vol. I., p. 259, n. 3, the parenthetic *denn es würden*, which is in construction with the Greek context, is wrongly rendered "for there would be." On p. 334, *jede Substanz* is not quite "this substance." On p. 483, the first sentence is meaningless from lack of construction, and the second is wrongly rendered: *wie sich dies ja auch an und für sich nicht anders denken lässt* in its context means not "a process, indeed, which would not otherwise be conceivable," but "which is, indeed, in any case, the only conceivable (possible) view." In Vol. II., p. 16, *Kunsttrieb* is hardly "artistic instinct." On p. 147 the translators have really reversed Plato's meaning by rendering *unbestimmten und begrifflosen Seins* "indeterminate, *motionless* being."

Elements of Descriptive Astronomy. By Herbert A. Howe, Professor of Astronomy in the University of Denver. Silver, Burdett & Co. 1897.

IT is not easy to improve upon the astronomical text-books already in use. Prof. Howe's book shows this. It has many very good features, but many more very poor ones to offset them. It is of an awkward size for a text-book, but the typography is perfect. Highly calendered paper is exceedingly objectionable to use by artificial light, and presumably this was selected to favor the process cuts; still, in a descriptive astronomy with 200 illustrations, we find more than three-fifths of them are line drawings, or diagrams, for which uncalendered paper would have been preferable. The wonderful results of celestial photography, by which the progress of astronomy has been so strikingly enhanced within recent years, are dismissed with perhaps a dozen illustrations, and only half of these display the original prints at all competently. There is but one purely photographic picture of the moon, and that is distinctly bad; even worse is the print of Mr. Roberts's classic photograph of the great nebula in Andromeda. Two large pictures of the sun's disk have the cardinal fault of showing no absorption at the edge; nowhere is there even allusion to the difference between the shapes of the terminator at the moon's crescent phase and at a lunar eclipse, and the diagrams represent both erroneously. Many of the diagrams lack technical finish, and are far from an improvement on previous works; but the star-maps are excellent, and some of the colored plates are exceptionally fine. The earth is spoken of as "spinning rapidly," an ancient error which ought not to be longer propagated: we do not speak of the hour-hand of a watch as spinning rapidly, yet it turns twice as fast as the earth does.

Undue prominence is given an unconfirmed theory of the solar corona; the least likely hypothesis of sun-spot periodicity is the only one mentioned, although distinctly unsustained by observations for the last third of a century; and in Prof. Howe's treatment of the sun, where a modern descriptive astronomy might be expected to shine, are several singularly archaic statements and strange omissions of recent methods and results. There is nothing about the diffraction spectroscope and the normal spectrum, nothing about Prof. Young's reversing layer, practically nothing about the periodicity of the corona. Even Spoerer's important law of zones, or variation of the spots in solar latitude, has been discovered in vain. Yet Prof. Howe must have heard of all these things, for Denver, though remotely Western, is no longer in the wilds. The spectroheliograph, too, is passed over, notwithstanding its marvellous work in the hands of Hale of Chicago and Deslandres of Paris. Results obtained with it are twice referred to, but teacher and student are left to infer that they might have been obtained by ordinary methods. Discussion of the tides is practically limited to such statements as, "The flood tide lifts ponderous ships over dangerous bars at the entrances of harbors." The equation of time, although explained, is a fundamental term which nowhere appears in the volume, nor are any of the different ways of measuring celestial arcs given, except by the circle.

We direct attention to these omissions for the benefit of teachers and school superintendents, in that detailed examination to which all text-books should be subjected. The more attractive a text-book's exterior, the more suspicious its interior, and the more searching should be this examination. If question exercises are thought serviceable, Prof. Howe's book ought to give eminent satisfaction, for there is a glorious array—admirably adapted, however, to the exceptional teacher and the exceptional pupil, for their use involves more than the average study, time, and ability. Dozens of them are beyond the depth of the average school-teacher. Rightly to answer just such questions is what text-books are written for; not to propound them as unsolved conundrums. Those which set both teacher and pupil observing the sky are excellent, and the tables of telescopic objects will be useful for the few schools provided with proper telescopes. There are good practical suggestions on the use and care of such instruments. A wide variety of poetical selections is introduced, some apt, others less so; also a long quotation from 'The Travels of Mr. Lemuel Gulliver.' It is well to have omitted so largely the purely technical numerical detail, and much attention has profitably been bestowed upon paragraphing the whole work. Some features are capital for a teacher's self-instruction, and the "landmarks in the history of astronomy," together with the list of reference-books, are judiciously chosen. The index, too, is ample. For the typographical errors the author alone seems to be responsible; a few are here mentioned. The name of one of the discoverers of argon, now a household word, is misspelled (p. 52); it was Hadley, not Halley, who invented the sextant; p. 306, the names of the satellites of Mars are interchanged; the dates (presumably civil) of the total eclipses of December, 1889, and May, 1900, are both a day wrong; p. 173, Cassini is usually regarded as a French astronomer, not an Italian; and one is confronted with the extraordinary statement (p. 160) that the "*Berliner Jahrbuch* is issued from the Imperial Observatory at Kiel, Prussia." But blemishes of this nature are not overabundant.

War, Famine, and Our Food Supply. By R. B. Marston. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co. New York: Scribners.

ZEUS has certainly been persuaded to delude Mr. Marston by sending him a mendacious dream. To what persuader he yielded we do not know; but we shall presently give reasons for suspecting the Goddess of Liberty of influencing the divine counsels in behalf of her beloved Americans. Like the vision that disturbed Pharaoh, this one gives warning of famine; but Pharaoh's dream was a truthful one, while Mr. Marston's is evidently, to our mind, a lying spirit. It has told Mr. Marston that England is in imminent peril of starvation; that Russia and the United States control her bread supply; and that the only way to secure the English people against famine is for the Government to keep a stock of 25,000,000 quarters of wheat constantly on hand. This is the quantity of foreign wheat actually imported every year, 17,000,000 of it from Russia and the United States. It comes to only £30,000,000, it is true, while the value of all the food imported is £150,000,000. Still, half a loaf is better than no bread, and, with a sufficiency of wheat, the English people might forego other grains, sugar, fruit, tea, wine, &c., until they could make new arrangements.

Mr. Marston's proposals have attracted some attention in England, but they should

have their best reception in the United States Senate. Our Jingo statesmen have been stupidly spending money on forts and war-ships with the hope of defending our coasts against English attack. The English navy, however, is so much superior to ours that we can hardly expect to be able to cope with it for a long time to come. But Mr. Marston suggests a short and easy method of humbling our old enemy. Instead of waiting for England to fill her granaries and bid the world defiance, let us anticipate her. Let us agree with Russia to suspend the exportation of grain to Great Britain, and in a week the British populace would be engaged in riots of which the illustrations in Mr. Marston's book—for he enforces his argument with pictures of the London riots in 1886—give but a faint idea. It would not be necessary to declare war. We need only say that we propose to accumulate a stock of food for our own purposes, and, as England contemplated doing the same thing, she would have no *casus belli*.

Under such circumstances, England's navy would be of no use to her. She could not provision it, and, as all the miners would be starved to death, she could not coal it. Within six months we might confidently hope that half her population would have succumbed to famine, while the remainder would be reduced to such a state of inanition as would take all disposition as well as power to "grab" out of them for a generation to come. Meanwhile Russia could seize India and we could annex Canada. France would occupy Egypt, and the Boers would get hold of South Africa, while Germany could appropriate the rest of that continent. In fact, the Germans would probably make use of the opportunity to invade the British Isles—Ireland having, of course, declared her independence—and, instead of the traveller from New Zealand, the Emperor William might sketch the ruins of St. Paul's from a broken arch of London Bridge.

If our Senators were as great in action as in speech, all this might be realized. It would on some accounts be a painful affair, but it would for ever put a stop to the intolerable spectacle of the spread of English civilization outside of Great Britain, as well as within its limits. Until this is somehow done, a large number of our statesmen and journalists will have no peace of mind, and will give the country none. Unfortunately, the success of the plan depends on prompt action, and the plan could not be adopted without discussion in the Senate. Senator Morgan would begin a speech, and, before he had got half through, England would have filled her granaries and be laughing at our dilatory methods. Every patriotic soul must be wrung with anguish at the thought of this melancholy certainty. It would be so easy to humble our proud adversary to the dust, and compel her even to accept the silver standard, if our public men would only act instead of talking; but, alas! there is little hope of it.

Yet something may come out of Mr. Marston's proposal. Should England undertake to store wheat, we might put up the price for her by an export duty, which, as the exercise of a war power, might be held constitutional. If she tried to sell, we could take off the duty and break the market. In fact, Mr. Marston suggests to us infinite possibilities of inflicting injury on other countries, without resorting to the expense of maintaining an army and navy. Why should not our Government corner the wool market, and literally freeze out our British foes? At all events, we can pass the Dingley tariff, and, by preventing England from selling goods to us, make it difficult for us to sell to her. We may not be able to bring on a famine, but we can do something to create scarcity, and at least manifest our ill will.

We have looked at Mr. Marston's proposal from an American standpoint. Viewed through English eyes it does not seem altogether practical. It is conceivable that Russia and the United States might combine in making war on England, but the possibility is too remote to be worth considering. Long before an alliance for such a purpose could have been debated and consummated, the enterprise of grain-dealers would have effected insurance against such results as Mr. Marston imagines. Nor in any event would wheat be the most available of commodities for storage. There are many more concentrated and cheaper forms of nutriment which would answer during a temporary dearth, and, while it would be inconvenient for England to be deprived of the wheat now obtained from Russia and England, the deficiency would be made up from an infinity of sources.

The Fern-Collectors' Handbook and Herbarium: An Aid to the Study and Preservation of the Ferns of the Northern United States, including the District East of the Mississippi and North of North Carolina and Tennessee. By Sadie F. Price. Illustrated. Henry Holt & Co. 1897.

IN this quarto, seventy-two excellent figures of our native ferns are given, for the most part with sufficient distinctness to make their identification as easy as child's-play. We could wish that, in a few instances, the artist had carried a more steady hand, even at the risk of rendering the outlines less sketchy; to us it seems that a little more care in the representation of the axis of the fronds would not have been thrown away. The outlines of the fronds themselves and of the separate divisions of the fronds are all that one can reasonably ask in a practical handbook designed for busy amateurs. Many of the drawings stand out in remarkable contrast to those which are found in some other treatises on ferns, with illustrations in black and white, where students are puzzled to make out differential characters. In the present work the differences are expressed satisfactorily. The artist has a gift for meeting difficulties instead of slurring them over, which we may trust she will employ in further illustration. Both she and Mr. Schuyler Mathews have rendered good service in their botanical sketches, and we must ask them both for more.

In closing, it is our duty to say that it is very doubtful whether the average purchaser of the work will feel inclined to use it exactly as the author designed that it should be utilized, namely, as a receptacle for dried ferns to match the figures. The work is likely to strike most people as being rather too attractive, in its clean white pages and charming drawings, to serve as an "album" for ferns themselves.

The Compleat Angler. By Izaak Walton and Charles Cotton. Edited with an introduction by Richard Le Gallienne. Illustrated by Edmund H. New. London and New York: John Lane.

IN 'The Chronicle of The Compleat Angler,' Mr. Westwood tells us that his first knowledge of the book was gained in the house of Charles Lamb, then living at Enfield, and who, though no angler himself, was a lover of angling literature, and had in his "ragged regiment of book tatterdemalions" a copy of the Hawkins edition of 1760. Lamb surely deserves the gratitude of every lover of angling literature for giving that bent to Mr. Westwood's mind which led him to devote his intelligent and trained labors to the resuscitation of this really important and delightful branch of letters.

The definite and stable place it now holds in the eyes of collectors and booksellers has brought publishers to the point of securing eminent hands to do the editorial work of the new and handsome editions of Walton constantly appearing. It seems quite a transition from the 'Book-Bills of Narcissus' to writing a bibliographical introduction to 'The Compleat Angler,' but Mr. Le Gallienne's versatility has proved equal to the task, both in the original matter he has provided and in the collection of the copious and interesting notes in the appendix. These, Mr. Le Gallienne says, are selected chiefly from the notes of previous editors, Nicolas, Ellis, Major, and Bethune, and he concludes his acknowledgments to the last-named gentleman by accusing him of carelessness, facetiousness, and constructively of plagiarism. No fault can be found with the illustrations by Mr. Edmund H. New, who makes his pictures tell us that he has done the work with a loving hand and in a spirit of thorough appreciation of Walton and the scenes he describes.

Crestomazia Italiana dei Primi Secoli. Per Ernesto Monaci. Fascicolo secondo. Città di Castello: S. Lapi. 1897.

STUDENTS of Italian literature and philology have looked forward to the completion of Monaci's 'Crestomazia' ever since the publication of the first instalment in 1889. The promised grammar and glossary have not yet appeared; but the third and last *fascicolo* is announced to be in the press. A similar announcement was made some three years ago in regard to the second *fascicolo*, now before us; and hence we need not be surprised that some of the bibliographical notes are already out of date. For example, Salvadori, 'La poesia giovanile di Guido Cavalcanti' (1895), is cited, but not Cesareo, 'La poesia siciliana' (1894), the edition by Pelaez of the *Codice Vaticano* 3214 (1895), nor the recent important articles on the Sicilian poets by Torraca and others (1894-'6). Among the notes which need revision are those on Stefano di Messina and Guido delle Colonne. Corrections and additions are to be expected later.

The present *fascicolo*, which brings the number of pages so far printed up to five hundred and twenty, begins with Guittone d'Arezzo and his imitators, then takes up the later Sicilian and early Tuscan poets, and of the *dolce stil nuovo* only Guinicelli and Cavalcanti. Besides the lyrics, there are selections from religious and historical works in prose and verse, and from various documents whose importance is chiefly linguistic. While we might wish that Prof. Monaci had paid more attention to establishing a satisfactory critical text, still we

must be grateful to him for an extremely useful book. Of course, it cannot take the place of the great collections of early poetry published by D'Ancona, Comparetti, Casini, and others; yet it contains specimens from all these collections, and many other texts that are not otherwise easily accessible. If there is almost nothing in the book which had not been previously published, yet in some cases Monaci is the first editor to give an accurate reproduction of the manuscript readings.

It is to be hoped that the third *fascicolo* will not be delayed as long as the second has been; the preparation of the glossary, however, can be no easy task.

THE NEWEST BOOKS.

Adams, Oscar F. The Story of Jane Austen's Life. New Edition. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $2.
Anderson, W. J. The Architecture of the Renaissance in Italy. London: B. T. Batsford; New York: Scribners. $5.
Ashby-Sterry, J. A Tale of the Thames. Scribners. $1.75.
Atherton, Gertrude. His Fortunate Grace. Appletons.
Aubert E. Littérature Française. Dix-Huitième et Dix-Neuvième Siècle. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
Barr, Mrs. Amelia E. Prisoners of Conscience. The Century Co. $1.50.
Barr, Robert. The Mutable Many. F. A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Barrett, Rev. B. F. From Different Points of View. Philadelphia: Swedenborg Publishing Association.
Barrett, Rev. B. F. The Church's One Foundation. Philadelphia: Swedenborg Publishing Association.
Bibliographica. Part XII. London: Keegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co.; New York: Scribners.
Blaikie, W. G. Thomas Chalmers. [Famous Scots Series.] Scribners. 75c.
Boissier, Gaston. Cicero and His Friends. London: Inness & Co.; New York: Putnams. $1.75.
Boothby, Guy. The Beautiful White Devil. Appletons. $1.
Broglie, Duc de. Malherbe. [Les Grands Ecrivains Français.] Paris: Hachette; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Buchanan, Robert. Lady Kilpatrick. Rand, McNally & Co.
Burnham, Clara L. Miss Archer Archer: A Novel. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Cabot, Elizabeth L. In Plain Air. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25
Carlyle, Thomas. Essay on Burns. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Chesterfield's Letters. Selected. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 24c.
Clodd, Edward. Pioneers of Evolution from Thales to Huxley. Appletons.
Cool, Capt. W. With the Dutch in the East. London: Luzac & Co.
Cornwallis, Kinahan. Two Strange Adventures. F. T. Neely. 25c.
Coues, Elliott. New Light on the Early History of the Great Northwest: The Journals of Alexander Henry and David Thompson. 3 vols. New York: F. P. Harper. $10.
Creahan, John. The Life of Laura Keene. Philadelphia: Rogers Publishing Co.
Crowe, Eyre. Thackeray's Haunts and Homes. Scribners. $1.50.
Curtis, Atherton. Some Masters of Lithography. Appletons.
Chapman, Elizabeth R. Marriage Questions in Modern Fiction, and Other Essays on Kindred Subjects. John Lane. $1.50.
Crockett, S. R. Lad's Love. Appletons.
Croker, B. M. Beyond the Pale. P. F. Collier. 25c.
Dawe, W. C. Kakemonos: Tales of the Far East. John Lane. $1.25.
Dawson, A. J. Mere Sentiment. John Lane. $1.25.
Deland, Margaret. The Wisdom of Fools. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Denison, Mary A. Captain Molly. A Love Story. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.
Estill, J. G. Numerical Problems in Plane Geometry. Longmans, Green & Co. 90c.
Faust, Prof. A. B. Charles Sealsfield (Carl Postl), der Dichter beider Hemisphären: Sein Leben und seine Werke. Weimar: Emil Felber; New York: G. E. Stechert.
Ford, P. L. The Great K. & A. Robbery. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Geikie, Sir Archibald. The Ancient Volcanoes of Great Britain. 2 vols. Macmillan. $11.25.
Gilder, R. W. "For the Country." The Century Co. $1.
Goodrich, Prof. Frank. Goethe's Götz von Berlichingen. Henry Holt & Co. 70c.
Gosse, Edmund. Seventeenth Century Studies: A Contribution to the History of English Poetry. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Greene, Belle C. Mr. and Mrs. Hannibal Hawkins. American Publishers Corporation.
Greener, W. W. The Gun and Its Development. 6th ed. Scribners. $4.
Grosse, Prof. Ernst. The Beginnings of Art. Appletons. $1.75.
Guild Curtis A. A Chat about Celebrities; or, The Story of a Book. Boston: Lee & Shepard. $1.50.
Guthrie, W. N. Modern Poet Prophets. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $2.
Harris, J. R., and Helen B. Letters from the Scenes of the Recent Massacres in Armenia. F. H. Revell Co. $1.25.
Harrison, Mrs. Burton. The Merry Maid of Arcady, and Other Stories. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Herford, C. H. The Two Noble Kinsmen. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 45c.
Hichens, Robert. Flames. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Higginson, T. W. The Procession of the Flowers, and Kindred Papers. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Hilton, Alice H. Paola Corletti, the Fair Italian. F. T. Neely.
Hodges, Rev. George. In This Present World. Whittaker. $1.
Horsman, Laurence. Gods and their Makers. John Lane. $1.25.
Howells, W. D. The Landlord at Lion's Head. Harpers. $1.75.
Hume, Fergus. Tracked by a Tattoo. F. Warne & Co. $1.25.
Iliowizi, Henry. In the Pale: Stories and Legends of the Russian Jews. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
In Memoriam, Frederick Douglass. Philadelphia: J. C. Yorston & Co.
Julleville, Prof. L. P. de. Histoire de la Langue Française des Origines à 1900. Tome III. Seizième Siècle. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Knight, William. Prose Works of William Wordsworth. 2 vols. Macmillan. $3.
Le Queux, William. Devil's Dice. Rand, McNally & Co.
Levett-Yeats, S. A Galahad of the Creeks. Appletons. $1.
Memoirs of Baron Lejeune. Translated and Edited by Mrs. Arthur Bell. 2 vols. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Merriam, G. S. Reminiscences and Letters of Caroline C. Briggs. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Mills, Dr. Willis. Scarlet or White? New York: Authors' Publishing Association. $1.
Mitchell, J. T. Duplicate Whist. Kalamazoo, Mich.: Ihling Bros. & Everard. $1.
Mitford, Bertram. The Sign of the Spider. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
Moore, F. F. The Impudent Comedian, and Others. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co. $1.50.
Moore, F. F. The Jessamy Bride. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Pain, Amelia. Saint Eva. Harpers. $1.25.
Payne, W. H. Browning's Short History of Education. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 50c.
Peacock, T. L. The Misfortunes of Elphin, and Rhododaphne. Macmillan. $1.50.
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 13, 1897.

The Week.

By a vote of 43 to 26, or, counting pairs, 52 to 31, the arbitration treaty was defeated in the Senate on May 5. Fifteen of the opposition are put down as coming from Kansas, Tennessee, North Carolina, Montana, Virginia, North Dakota, Idaho, Arkansas, Nevada, Texas, Alabama, South Dakota, and Utah—States representing about a fifth of the whole population of the United States. Twenty-five out of the whole thirty-one were advocates of the free coinage of silver. There was no division on party lines whatever. The vote on the other side, which shows the Senate as standing five to three in favor of arbitration, was equally significant. It represented almost the whole character and intelligence of the country, whether we count by communities or men. To say nothing of New England or the Middle States, wherever throughout the United States the Senator acted as the representative of public as opposed to private interests, wherever he voted free from the dictation of a ring or machine and was an intelligent man, his vote was given for the treaty. The exceptions only emphasize this. If Quay and Penrose both voted, as the list shows, against the treaty, we need no explanation of the fact. In other words, an analysis of the vote shows that even in the Senate the general sentiment of the body reflected very fairly the sentiment of the country. The Senate was five to three in favor of the treaty, and if the Constitution allowed treaties to be ratified by a majority vote, we should to-day be congratulating one another over a great victory.

Mr. Dingley has but just recovered the power of speech. Colleagues and friends hastened to him, as soon as the Senate bill was reported, exclaiming: "Bless thee, Bottom, thou art translated!" But the chairman of the ways and means committee insisted that he must not comment on his translated bill until he had had time to examine it and so to remark upon it "intelligently." Yet it did not require a high order of intelligence nor prolonged thought, to see that the Senate committee had, in effect, told Mr. Dingley that his estimates of revenue were all moonshine; that his tax on books and art was an indefensible barbarism; that his retroactive clause was a mere bogey with all the stuffing let out of it; that his reciprocity proposals were ludicrous. No such damaging reflection has ever been made on a chairman of the ways and means committee by a committee of his own party in the Senate. Mr. Dingley now says the bill reported is not the one that will pass, and that he does not accept the estimate of revenue from it.

Speaker Reed rushed the tariff bill through the House pell-mell, in order that the Senate might the more quickly dispose of it. The announcement is now made that the fact that the bill really had no consideration in the House will contribute largely to the duration of the time that will be devoted to it in the Senate. While Mr. Reed may "thank God the House is not a deliberative body," its neglect in this respect must be repaired at the other end of the capitol. The members of the House themselves insist upon such repair. Many of the amendments made to the Dingley bill by the Senate committee were proposed by Representatives, and inserted by the committee upon their request, after Mr. Reed had denied them an opportunity to bring forward their suggestions in the House. A good authority expresses the opinion that, notwithstanding the numerous and radical changes made by the Senate committee, the bill in its present form is more acceptable to most members of the House than when it left that body. In other words, the Reed system of legislation has now reached the point where Representatives pass bills which they do not favor, with the expectation that the Senate will amend them so as to make them meet the views of the House.

In putting a duty on hides the Senate committee has done what the House wanted to do, but was not allowed to do. Western Republican Representatives are already organizing to retain the duty in the bill, if it passes the Senate. Thus it is almost certain that, if there is to be any tariff bill at all, it will tax imported hides, for the first time in twenty-five years. Such a tax would have been put in the McKinley bill if Lodge and other New England Representatives had not served formal notice that they would defeat the whole bill if the tax were left in. Then the tax was taken out of the bill, although McKinley's report explained why the committee had decided to tax hides. Reminded of these facts the other day in the House, Mr. Dingley said that "later investigations" had persuaded the McKinley committee that the tax would not benefit the farmer. The later investigations meant, of course, the Lodge ultimatum, and also the following letter:

"WASHINGTON, April 10, 1890.

"DEAR MR. MCKINLEY: It is a great mistake to take hides from the free list, where they have been for so many years. It is a slap in the face to the South Americans with whom we are trying to enlarge our trade. It will benefit the farmer by adding 5 to 8 per cent. to the price of his children's shoes. It will yield a profit to the butcher only—the last man that needs it. The movement is injudicious from beginning to end—in every form and phase. Pray stop it before it sees light. Such movements as this for protection will protect the Republican party into a speedy retirement.

"Yours hastily, JAMES G. BLAINE."

It is a bitter dose for the New England Republicans, but can they deny that the Rocky Mountain Republicans are simply repeating the lessons taught them by New England?

The view taken by the wool-growers' tariff committee of pending legislation is that it makes no difference to the consumers of woollen goods how high the duties are, and that the only interest worth considering is that of the producers of wool. If the duties on wool and woollens are prohibitory, nobody is harmed. The public must in that case buy of the home manufacturer, and the latter must buy his raw material of the American wool-grower. So everybody ought to be satisfied. If under this system of thorough-going protection it becomes necessary to tax the washerwoman's cup of tea for purposes of revenue, she is not likely to understand it, and therefore not likely to complain. This is a very plausible scheme, but it overlooks the fact that there is a limit to the purchasing power of the consumer of woollens. The theory of the high-tariff crowd, so far as they indulge in theories, is that the gains of the wool-grower are diffused through the community, so that everybody is able to pay a dollar for what formerly cost him only fifty cents. This theory is rejected, for the present at all events, by the carpet-manufacturers. They say that if the Senate committee's wool schedule passes, the public will not be able to buy the same number of yards of carpet that they have bought heretofore, and consequently that some of the mills must close. This is contrary to the declared intention of Mr. McKinley during the campaign. His aim was to open mills and factories, not to shut them up. There is the duty on hides, too. Nobody believes that that will open any new tanneries, or boot and shoe factories, or harness shops. The men who operate them say that the contrary effect will be produced. So it seems that the diffusion theory—the theory that if A makes money out of the tariff, all of A's customers will be prosperous—is not believed in by all of its former votaries.

The Chicago *Times-Herald* learns through its Washington office that speculations in the stock of the sugar-

refining company took place last week in the office of one broker which netted a profit of $30,000, and that the customers of this broker were three United States Senators. This is so surprisingly like the charges brought, and in part proved, against certain Senators when the Gorman-Brice sugar tariff was before the Senate three years ago, that the public will be very likely to put the worst possible construction on any facts, or even surmises, that find their way into the columns of the press. It might be supposed that at this juncture, when one of the witnesses of the last investigation is under sentence of imprisonment for refusing to testify, and when his counsel are seeking vainly for his pardon on the ground of ignorance of the law, there would be considerable hesitation to enter into such speculations. But that would be an unwarranted supposition. Any Senator who has incurred this risk once and come off with anything short of expulsion would not hesitate a second time. If the country has anything more to learn from such disclosures, it should be this, that the tariff system is rotten. Any system which makes all the business of the country a game of grab, where Senators and Representatives are besought, by day and by night, to put money into the pockets of A, B, and C by changes in the schedules, will draw Senators and Representatives themselves into the vortex. While voting to enrich the Sugar Trust some of them will put their hands in the sugar.

The Senate, on Thursday, with characteristic sneers at "scientific gentlemen from Harvard College," voted to suspend President Cleveland's proclamation of February 22, setting aside several millions of acres of public timber land as a national forest reservation. Mr. Wilson of Washington said that his people were going to have the timber, "law or no law," and the Academy of Sciences might whistle for its pains. Alarming rumors are afloat about President McKinley's readiness to give the miners and sheep men and timber-thieves unlimited access to this precious part of the national domain. The case is undoubtedly one for establishing some sort of regulation or control of the territory set aside, so that trees may be properly cut, and mineral deposits and land suitable for agriculture opened for preemption; but to undo the whole work of forest reservation at a stroke seems too monstrous even for the Senate. The reckless action was taken under the form of an amendment to the sundry civil bill, with which it normally had no more to do than with the consular and diplomatic bill. But the Senate voted that the amendment was in order, and so of course it was. We are glad to observe that Vice-President Hobart took occasion to declare the practice of thus passing on points of order an exceedingly bad one. This may be an intimation that he means, when the occasion comes, to assert the rights of a presiding officer without too much reverence for the musty, fusty Christophers of the Senate.

The tenor of the present Cuban debate in the Senate is significant, when one remembers the heroics of last winter. Even the sensational press abandons the once flaming subject, for fresh crimes and scandals new. Why this great change? Are the Spaniards no longer cruel? Do our hearts no more throb for Cuban liberty? As far as the situation in the island goes, there is as much to call for our intervention as there ever was. Is it mere fickleness on our part that makes us now tired of the Cuban business, as we had before tired of the Hawaiian, the Venezuelan, and the other businesses? A better explanation is, we think, to be found in the extraordinary weight in all matters of international law and international relations which a President at the beginning of his term exercises as compared with one at the end of his term. The latter, as every Senator knows, is more than likely to be "all wrong" in his law, despicable in his policy, and bent on humiliating the country. An incoming President, on the contrary, is almost invariably sound in his law, firm and dignified in his policy, and resolute in upholding the country's honor. This striking difference is not at all impaired by the fact that both incoming and outgoing Presidents think and act precisely alike on the given question. The whole thing is a good deal of a puzzle to our more thoughtful constitutional writers. They naturally dismiss as irrelevant the fact that the incoming President has a lot of offices to give out, while the retiring President had bestowed all his.

Speaker Reed has succeeded, through the power which he exercises by his control over the committees yet to be appointed, in getting the Republican members of the House almost unanimously to approve his policy of doing nothing in the lower branch of Congress. But he cannot be very well pleased with the treatment of this conclusion by the Republican party throughout the country. Many organs content themselves with a silence which hardly conceals their disapproval, but not a few important newspapers are outspoken in their condemnation of Mr. Reed's position. On the very eve of the vote sustaining his do-nothing policy which the Speaker forced the other day, both the *Tribune* and the *Times-Herald* of Chicago earnestly demanded that the House should pursue the opposite course. "Let Congress Go to Work," was the title of a leading editorial article in the *Times-Herald*, which complained that the House had already "dawdled away a solid month of the public time"; declared that, if this policy was intended to make the Senate ashamed of itself for its unreasonable procrastination and remissness, "it has utterly failed in its object"; and called upon Mr. Reed to "appoint your committees, and let the House go to work." Under the very similar caption, "The House Should Get to Work," an article in the *Tribune* maintained that "further inactivity on the part of the House of Representatives is inexcusable"; predicted that "the country will be profoundly dissatisfied if the House remains idle till midsummer and then adjourns after disposing of the Senate amendments to the tariff bill"; and insisted that "Speaker Reed should announce his committees and let the members get to work." Both the *Tribune* and the *Times-Herald* specify two subjects regarding which the House should take action without the slightest delay. One is currency reform, the other is bankruptcy legislation, in which the whole business community is deeply interested.

The question of consular fees at London and Liverpool has come up again, and it is understood that the President has been asked to revoke the order on the subject made by the last administration. This, if done, will inure to the benefit of his cousin, William McKinley Osborne, to whom he gave the London consulship, and of James Boyle, the appointee at Liverpool. The ground suggested for the revocation is a legal one, that under the Revised Statutes all consular officers are entitled to fees for the consular signature to commercial documents. The section of the Revised Statutes referred to says, it is true, nothing whatever about fees, but authorizes consuls, before certifying invoices, to require "satisfactory evidence, either by the oath of the person presenting such invoices or otherwise, that such invoices are correct and true," and adds: "In the exercise of the discretion hereby given, the consular officers shall be governed by such general or special regulations or instructions as may from time to time be established or given by the Secretary of State." Under this provision, it was for years understood that merchants in London and Liverpool could not make their evidence satisfactory without paying something for it to the consul, and in consequence it was also understood that the Liverpool office was worth at least $10,000 a year and the London office $25,000. This comfortable arrangement, which applied to one or two other ports also, was broken up by the hypocritical Cleveland and Olney, who, under pretence of what they and those like them call "reform," issued an order abolishing the system, thus, as the precious pair claimed, relieving shippers

and trade of a burden of some $50,000 a year.

Gov. Black shows that he is a level-headed man by declining to affix a memorandum to the New York charter giving his reasons for signing it. No sensible man in his position could pursue any other course. "Act and keep your mouth shut," is the only policy. Why waste time in giving reasons which will deceive nobody? Everybody knows why he signed the charter. He did it because Platt wished him to. He made proper recognition of the real author and promoter of the charter when he sent the pen with which he signed it to Platt. Whom else could he have sent it to with so much propriety? Platt is not a citizen of New York, but he has shown himself to be more powerful than all its citizens combined, and this pen is a fit symbol of his power. Every time he looks at it he can chuckle over the delightful way in which the Governor performs his duties as agent. Black's methods are very similar to those of the legislative agents, though possibly a little more liberal. He always grants hearings to the opponents of Platt governmental measures, gives them "a song and dance," and then acts precisely as he intended to do from the beginning, without dignifying their protests with a word of notice. That is the delicious humor of the system, you see. It is so amusing, you know, to see these reformers going through their "song and dance" as if we really had an old-fashioned system of constitutional government in operation. The poor things do not realize that all this has been changed.

The people of the future great city of New York cannot begin too soon to realize that a task of unprecedented magnitude has been imposed upon them. They are to set in motion on January 1 of next year the most colossal system of municipal government that this country has ever seen. They are to elect in November, six months hence, a Mayor who is to have virtually unrestricted control in the selection of the men who are to administer this new government. The city over which he is to rule will have a larger population than the entire United States had when our national government was formed, will have an annual budget of at least $75,000,000, or twenty-five times the size of that which the national government had when it began its career, and an aggregate of property so far in excess of that which the original thirteen States possessed as to defy comparison. What the municipal salary roll will aggregate no man can say now, but some idea may be formed of it from emoluments attached to the chief appointments which the new Mayor will have to make within six months after entering upon his duties, and which amount to nearly $250,000. Each of these heads of departments will have subordinates, in many cases aggregating large numbers. If the new civil-service law which the Governor has forced through the Legislature shall become law, the new heads of departments will have it in their power to make a "clean sweep" of the entire municipal service.

The occupation of Pharsalos and Volo by the Turks has been the military event of the week, and this has forced Greece to a *modus condescendi* and has enabled the Powers to intervene for a cessation of hostilities, which will be as welcome to the victors as to the vanquished. It will be pretty to watch France and Germany determining together what indemnity the loser shall pay, fixing the period of Turkish occupation of Thessaly, and perhaps shifting to the Turkish side of the frontier some petty Alsace-Lorraine. To separate Crete from Turkey under the guise of autonomy, and to devise means of reimbursing Turkey out of the doubly bankrupt finances of Greece, will furnish another amusing act in this tragi-comedy. The moral inquiry, "What is all this worth?" as to the fearful destruction of life and property now drawing to a close, the terror and the misery precipitated upon Christians and Mohammedans alike, may be left to some British historian to answer.

In any settlement which the Powers can now effect, one fact forces itself upon the attention, and that is that the Turks occupy a totally different position from that which they have hitherto held. Before the present troubles began, the Sultan was actually imploring Lord Salisbury to be "easy" with him, and he would most certainly be good in future, while Lord Salisbury was warning him in a public speech in London of his impending doom if he did not mend his ways. He has not mended his ways, but he has, with the aid or connivance of the Powers, including England, since obtained some very notable advantages. He has settled the Armenian question by massacring the Armenians; he has mobilized a powerful army, well officered, armed, and equipped; he has succeeded in getting the Powers to neutralize Crete, which was ready for annexation to Greece, and has been allowed to invade and conquer one of the principal Greek provinces, which he now holds, while demanding a war indemnity, or territory—and all this in the face of the promises of Europe recorded in the Berlin Treaty for twenty years.

Lord Salisbury made a speech on Thursday at the annual meeting of the Primrose League, in which he defended the action of the Powers towards Greece. He said that the Treaty of Paris, made at the close of the Crimean war, bound them to respect the "integrity" of Turkey; that they now formed a "federation," the object of which was the preservation of the peace of Europe; that the war between Greece and Turkey was a local affair, and that all danger of a general war had passed away, *i. e.*, through the action of the concerted Powers. The latter part of this statement is pure prediction, intended to reassure England; but the first part is a serious perversion of historical facts. Literally, it is true that the Powers in 1856 promised to respect the integrity of Turkey, but the fact is that the history of Europe from that time to this is the history of the collapse of Turkey and dismemberment of its territory under the supervision of these same Powers; while to call the Concert a Federation is really the artful application of a term which does not describe it. The Concert has nothing federal about it, for there is no agreement at the bottom of it to which any one can appeal, and it is not inconsistent with secret arrangements and treaties between the parties to it, totally inconsistent with the preservation of peace. Moreover, the Treaty of Paris was substantially superseded in 1878 by the Treaty of Berlin, and it is in the latter instrument that the present obligations of England towards Crete and the Christians are to be found.

The serious difficulties in the way of Australian federation, if not its impending failure, reported a week ago, were, in fact, foreshadowed from the very opening of the convention to draft a federal constitution. This body met at Adelaide on March 22, and, while unanimously in favor of the principle of federation, found itself at once divided on almost all questions of detail. The sharpest clash came just where it did in our own convention of 1787, on the question of the equality of the smaller States in the upper house. A subordinate part of this controversy involved the right of the upper house to amend money bills sent to it by the lower. This right was stoutly asserted by the delegates from Tasmania, West Australia, and the smaller States generally. However, a majority of two votes finally decided, early in April, that the upper house should not have the right to amend money bills, as the United States Senate has, but should follow the practice of the House of Lords. Thereupon the West Australian delegates withdrew, saying that if the larger colonies were not willing to make this concession to the smaller, they would have to federate by themselves. Compromise may yet do in the Adelaide convention what it accomplished in the Philadelphia convention; but the present outlook does not promise it.

CONFESSED FAILURE OF PROTECTION.

The week which has elapsed since the Senate tariff bill was reported and published discovers the Republican press and party in confusion. Counsels are divided; even the familiar old prophecies that "all will come out right in the end," with a reunited party, are put forward with unwonted timidity. It would be hard to recall a condition of party bewilderment and alarm at the work of its own leaders equal to that in which the Republicans now find themselves. Like the nursery artist, the party looks at its drawing of a tariff bill, and is frightened at the ogre which its own hands have made. The reason for this trepidation and looking every man at his neighbor in wild surmise does not lie in any given schedule of the Senate bill. New England looks hard at the tax on hides, but that is only a minor grievance, after all. The sugar schedule is confessed by the *Tribune* to be much more favorable to the Sugar Trust than was the Wilson bill, which it denounced on that score; but this might be mended or endured. But what cannot be mended or endured is the confession by the Senate committee that the whole Republican system of protection has broken down; that the policy for which the party has fought, in victory and defeat, for twenty years, has now, in the hour of victory, to be abandoned as a failure.

That is the true significance of the Senate bill and of the Republican perturbation in view of it. Enemies of protection have said that it was an antiquated and outgrown policy; but now its friends acknowledge it. Opponents of protective taxes have asserted that not enough money could be got from them to pay the expenses of the Government; at last friends of protective taxes are forced to admit it. The proposed tax on tea, with the increased taxes on beer and tobacco, in a bill drawn by a Republican committee, with their hands free, is a standing confession that the protective system, as we have known it, has passed away.

It would be cruel, as it would be needless, to go back to the debates of 1888 and 1890 to show what the historic Republican position on this question really is. Everybody knows that taxes for revenue were to be avoided like the pest —any tax, in fact, that any American citizen had to pay was to be shunned religiously. Breakfast-tables and tea-tables, too, were to be unvexed by the presence of the tax-gatherer. Internal-revenue taxes were to be reduced and eventually abolished altogether, and ample revenue for the Government, at the same time with full protection to American labor, provided by a high protective tariff. We say it is not necessary to go back six years to prove this to be the Republican policy; it is necessary to go back only two months. In President McKinley's inaugural address he distinctly said that "every form of direct taxation except in time of war" was to be avoided, affirming that "the country is clearly opposed to any needless additions to the subjects of internal taxation, and is committed . . . to the system of tariff taxation." The comment of the Republican Senate, eight weeks later, is a tax on tea and higher taxes on beer and tobacco. And Mr. McKinley's newspaper friends say he is pleased with this Senate bill, largely because it promises to raise the needed revenue!

The man who really prophesied what the new tariff bill would be was not Mr. McKinley, but Mr. Carlisle. In his last annual report, discussing calmly the fiscal situation, he laid down the principles to which the Senate committee has reluctantly come. He distinctly informed Congress and the country that, if the present scale of public expenditure is to be kept up, "it will be necessary to resort to taxation upon various kinds of importations heretofore exempted simply because they were not included within the scope of the protective theory." He added, with a brusque disregard of the opinions which Mr. McKinley was complacently to express in his inaugural, "It is evident that new objects of taxation must be included in our tariff schedules, or the attempt to secure the usual proportion of revenue from customs must be abandoned." The Senate bill was framed as if in exact and conscious fulfilment of these predictions.

It is a great triumph for Mr. Carlisle, as a lucid reasoner on finance, but the real victors are the laws of trade, the progress of industry and invention, the growth of the country. Whatever may be said of protection theoretically or historically, it is obsolete as far as the United States is concerned. A tariff which will at once bring in revenue and make high prices for manufacturers is no longer a possibility. This truth is now publicly confessed by the greatest tariff experts in the Republican party. After weeks of wrestling with the problem, they have had to turn to revenue duties. They tacitly come over to the position of their adversaries, and say that the hocus-pocus of keeping out imports and at the same time collecting revenue on them is now too transparent a trick to be tried again. If the Treasury really must have money, revenue taxes must be laid, and even Americans, tenderly reared as they have been in the belief that they need pay no federal taxes, must begin to go down into their pockets. This is a tremendous party rightabout, but it has now been made.

With Republican leaders thus openly converted, in fact if not in creed, to the doctrine of taxation for revenue, it ought not to be so difficult to give a little more rationality to our taxing methods. Why, in fact, might not Congress drop the whole protective humbug, as it has dropped a part of it? Why might not the revenue features of the Senate bill be made law, and the rest of the tariff left as it is? Messrs. Allison and Aldrich practically confess that Master Dingley has been trifling with the laws of trade and has got badly hurt; why should they want to write themselves down silly boys like him?

THE PAUPER LABOR OF ASIA.

For a long period of time the very basis of the plea for a protective tariff was the competition in manufactures from England. The advocates of a high tariff never wearied of describing the "pauper" labor of England, and the necessity of protective duties here to prevent labor in the United States from falling to the same level of wages—to them one of indescribable misery and extreme poverty. Even within a few years an account of the hand nail-makers in the iron district was circulated as a campaign document, and was regarded by protectionists as the best evidence of what "free trade" in England had done for the workingmen. But the picture of women hammering out the nails was recognized as a phase of campaign argument which was rapidly passing away. The pauper-labor argument went the path of the "British gold" argument and the forged extracts from English papers. The question of labor cost is now discussed from a more scientific standpoint, and the fallacy of basing conclusions upon money wages has been exposed. Experience has demonstrated that high wages in the United States mean high productive ability, and when American manufactures meet similar foreign products in neutral markets, and control those markets, the theory of the protectionist falls.

The view that high money wages mean high cost of manufacture dies hard. As the exporter of manufactures, England was looked upon as the country most to be feared. When Continental nations began to manufacture on so large a scale as to provide a surplus for export, the "pauper labor of Europe" became the bugaboo, and the wages of the Continent, much lower in money than the wages of England, were quoted by high-tariff stump-orators. For some years the sums of money received weekly by the glassmakers of Belgium, the ribbonmakers of France, and the textile-workers of Germany have done yeoman service in bolstering up the demands of our manufacturers that duties should be maintained because of our "high-priced and dear labor." It was useless to repeat that money wages did not express labor cost, or that England would long since have been driven from the field by this "pauper" labor of Europe if the ar-

guments of the protectionists were true. Any sort of a table was prepared, showing a remarkable difference in money wages, and this table, without comment or explanation, was looked upon as unanswerable proof of what the protectionists asserted.

Signs of another change of base are now visible. Continental Europe may still serve to frighten a few who have not been enlightened, and even English wages are quoted occasionally as a memorial of the good old days when such an argument was accepted without question. But neither of these excites the same horror that it once did, and the pauper labor of Asia is now the scarecrow. Manufacturers passed before the committee of ways and means and urged duties that would protect them and the labor they employed from the products of China and Japan, of British India, and the East Indies. The harrowing condition of labor in those parts was dwelt upon with almost morbid horror, and any wages — a few cents a day — were named as representing the earnings of these peoples. Textile fibres grown by "pauper labor or labor paid in the most niggardly manner"; chemicals, made or to be made in China, with labor at starvation wages; machinery and machine products, the outcome of Japanese ingenuity in applying their ridiculously cheap labor to copying American inventions and trademarks—these are a few of the matters brought before the committee. One and all spoke of the impending (for there was always an atmosphere of futurity in the conditions they described) influx of Eastern copies of Western manufactures, and one and all saw in a nearly prohibitive tariff the safety of the infant industries of the United States.

This scare over the possible competition in the East has grown in recent years, and now threatens to become an actual factor in tariff legislation in this country. For our part, a study of the commerce between the United States and Asia fails to discover any evidence of this competition. In the last five years our imports from China have gained $1,600,000; but this increase is almost entirely to be found in the single item of raw silk. In the same period the imports from British India and the British East Indies decreased $4,400,000, and not a single item of manufactures shows a larger import in the year 1896 than in that of 1892. With Japan, the country most to be feared in manufactures, our imports have gained $1,800,000 in five years, and in manufactures of silk, flax, and hemp there has been a small increase; yet it is an increase too small to weigh in the supply of such a market as the United States. Our exports to Japan have gained $4,300,000 in five years, to China $1,300,000, and to British India have lost $400,000. On the face of the returns these countries are better customers for our products than the United States is for theirs.

While failing to see any immediate danger from this Asiatic competition, we are obliged to recognize the use likely to be made of it in fixing tariff duties. The tariff of 1883 was determined by a fear of European competition. An average duty of 45 per cent. was regarded as good protection against the Continent of Europe as well as England; against the machine products of Great Britain, France, and Germany, as well as against the house industries of Russia and Austria. If that rate was required against Europe, what rate will be demanded against Asia?

THE CURRENCY DANGER.

The Governor of New Jersey, in his speech last week at the dinner to Ambassador Porter, denied that Sound-Money Democrats had any just cause of complaint in the dawdling and do-nothing policy of the present Congress as respects currency reform. They were not deceived, he asserted, and have already got what was promised them—salvation from "the black cloud of Bryanism." "What do we care now," went on Gov. Griggs, "if gold goes out or comes in? For four years the country is saved, its financial honor is saved. We are in no danger, for even if anything happens to our President, there is another hand to take the nation's helm and hold it steadfast."

Gov. Griggs was himself among the foremost to invite and acknowledge the coöperation of Sound-Money Democrats in the election of McKinley. He knows how many of them must have contributed in Democratic New Jersey towards the majority of 81,000 which McKinley obtained in that State. But he ought also to know that they were promised, and voted in order to obtain, not only an escape from the silver standard, but the secure establishment of the gold standard. This was not merely the logic of the campaign and the burden of innumerable speeches; it was the express pledge of the party platform and candidate. The platform specifically recognized the need of legislative enactment to "maintain inviolably" the gold standard, and solemnly bound the party to "favor all measures" designed to do so. No promise made to the Sound-Money Democrats which has not already been fulfilled? What, then, did President McKinley mean in his inaugural address by saying that it is "necessary to devise a system" to remedy the "constant embarrassment to the Government" caused by "the several forms of our paper money"? Why did he say that "our financial system needs revision," and that our money should "be put upon an enduring basis, not subject to easy attack, nor its stability to doubt or dispute"? Here are promises and pledges explicit enough, yet Gov. Griggs says that the election dispelled the black cloud of Bryanism, and that the Democrats who voted for McKinley should ask for nothing more.

Probably the Governor would not seriously argue, except in an after-dinner speech, that a popular election makes legislative enactment unnecessary. The only chance the people have at a law is to vote that it shall be made or repealed. Their suffrages can neither make nor unmake it. Legislatures and Congresses obtain, or ought to obtain, guidance in law-making from an expression of the popular will; but the specific laws to execute the popular will have to be passed in legislative halls; they do not emerge magically from the ballot-boxes. The absurdity of having to argue this with a man of Gov. Griggs's intelligence only shows how he forsook his intelligence when he declared that the vote of last November saved the financial honor of the country for four years, whether anything is done to reform the currency or not. Reverse the case. Suppose Bryan had won. Would he and the silverites have fallen back on the popular majority and said nothing more was necessary? Would they have attempted to still popular clamor by saying that President Bryan's heart was true to silver, and that, even if anything happened to him, there was glorious Sewall ready to keep the helm steadfast? Everybody knows that nothing of the kind would have been the case. Bryan specifically asked for the election of a Congress to give him the laws that would be needed to put the country on a silver basis. He knew that a popular election, however overwhelming the verdict it pronounced, would go for nothing unless that verdict were written into law.

But, putting one side all talk about party obligations and promises made to Sound-Money Democrats, what are the facts? Is our currency system rational and secure, or is it not? Gov. Griggs's own argument implies that it is not. He rests all our hopes on the fidelity of the President or Vice-President. That is to say, all depends upon the Executive; the law is wavering and uncertain. Another President might wreck all under color of the very laws which enabled President Cleveland to save the nation from dishonor. No country is safe in such a condition as that. No financial system can inspire anything but distrust when it is so at the mercy of a changing Executive. Law and statute are for the express purpose of removing such vital interests from control by the personal caprice of any public officer. Our present condition is one of unstable equilibrium. That is what alarms the country, as well as exasperates Democrats who think themselves tricked. Positive financial legislation is needed. It must be speedily undertaken, if at all. To wait for the regular session is to wait

in vain. To wait for the next Congress is to wait for a Congress that will be hostile. When is President McKinley going to tell Congress that he, at least, will no longer consent to dangerous delay?

MORE ABOUT GREEK EXCAVATIONS.

ATHENS, April 10, 1897.

THE Greek Archæological Society was founded in 1837. In 1896 it was reorganized with the Crown Prince Constantine as president, and with most of the native-born archæologists by profession in control of the machine. The society has ever gained its money from a lottery, which for years sold 150,000 tickets, four times a year, at two drachmas a ticket. In 1895 the number of lottery tickets was raised to 225,000. This number is sold out at each drawing, and, after the premiums have been paid, the society finds itself in possession of 268,000 drachmas a year wherewith to conduct excavations, pay salaries of officials, and care for antiquities in general throughout the kingdom. The society has done noble work with the money thus gained, as the Acropolis, Epidaurus, Eleusis, and many other places prove conclusively. This year, too, excavations have been conducted in various places in Greece. Some of them I mentioned in a recent letter to the *Nation;* others I mention below, basing my account on the *Praktika* for 1896 by Kabbadias.

The excavation of Eleusis was continued. The object this year was to investigate the southern court of the temple and the southern slope of the Acropolis. But, owing to the great depth of the débris with which this region is covered, the excavations were not completed, though they continued from June to October.

Some facts in regard to the architecture of the Bouleuterion have been gained. The corridor by the southern gate of the temple was completely excavated, with the result that the inscription C. I. A. iv., 2, 1054, which contains the specifications of a building to be erected on the spot, does not agree with what was actually found. The building, therefore, was never begun. Very few pieces of sculpture and inscriptions were found. But, in atonement for this lack, the excavator came upon a rich and unique collection of vases of the geometrical or linear style. These treasures were found in an ancient cemetery outside the temple-precinct. It was a fortunate circumstance that this cemetery had never been overhauled in antiquity or in modern times, and for that reason its contents are of immense importance for the study of the art of the period to which they belong.

Excavations were made in Mycenæ inside the Acropolis. In some places the earth to be removed was forty feet deep, and, when removed, a wealth of labyrinthine walls of houses stood revealed. The untutored visitor stands dazed before this mass of walls, whose purpose perhaps no one will ever be able to divine. Many of them form rooms, with walls thirty feet high, but with no doorways whatever. The complete excavation of the Acropolis of Mycenæ will be accomplished this year, when Tsountas will undertake a description of the entire citadel, giving plans and photographs. Outside the Acropolis walls, eight new tombs were found and added to the large list already uncovered by Tsountas. Being far from the Acropolis, these tombs belonged to poorer families, and therefore yielded few objects of interest. Seven of them are rock-cut tombs, but the eighth is a beehive or vaulted tomb in an excellent state of preservation and of great importance architecturally. It contained three graves, each covered with large stone slabs, but unfortunately the graves had been robbed in antiquity. Tsountas thinks, though he gives no reason for the surmise, that the robbers were members of the family to which the tomb belonged—a case that is not without a parallel at Mycenæ. On the floor of this tomb were found numerous objects, among others, certain small plaques of glass paste bearing animal-headed daimones standing round a tripod or an altar and carrying vases in their hands. These plaques are important for the insight they give us of religion in Greece in the most archaic times. This is the first instance of animal-headed daimones on ornaments of glass. They also prove that glass was made here in the Mycenæan period.

Among the finds on the Acropolis itself may be mentioned an archaic inscription on bronze, a piece of sculpture representing an animal-headed daimon subduing two lions. and lastly, the head of a woman 0.17m. high. This head has colored hair, eyes, ears, and mouth; it is further adorned with four ornaments painted on the forehead, the cheeks, and the chin—a fact which seems to prove that in earliest Mycenæan times it was customary to paint or tattoo the body. I have elsewhere pointed out the astonishing parallelism between the dress of the Mycenæan female and that of the squaws of the Mojave Indians. This matter of painting or tattooing the body furnishes still another parallel. Because of its size and workmanship, this unique head is of the utmost importance for the history of Mycenæan and of Greek art in general.

The excavations that were begun at Epidaurus in 1881 were continued throughout this year also. The Stadium was uncovered, and the Hippodrome was found at a distance of about a quarter of an hour from the temple of Asklepios. The ruins that have been uncovered up to this time extend over an immense territory, and are the despair of the traveller who is foolish enough to attempt to see Epidaurus and return to Nauplia the same day—a thing that most men do, owing to the difficulty of securing entertainment at Ligouris. But, in spite of the vastness of the uncovered area, a large outlying territory still remains to be unearthed, though probably it contains only the substructures of private houses. Fortunately Epidaurus is not deeply covered, as is the case, for instance, at Corinth, where the excavations will be very costly, owing to the fact that the wicked old city is buried beneath twenty or thirty, sometimes even forty feet of dirt. But in this very fact lies our best-founded hope of discovering something in spite of Mummius and others who helped to cover Corinth with such a shroud of earth.

Near Amarousion, on the old road to Pentele, a large mound had long excited curiosity. The mound is forty-six metres in diameter by eight in height at present, though originally it was much higher. The mound was partially excavated in 1890, when many large rectangular blocks were found at varying heights, but the excavations were abandoned too soon, and the purpose of the mound remained a mystery until the recent excavations, which have proved that the tumulus was a vast family tomb. A trench was driven through the mound, in the centre of which a base built of the colossal stones mentioned above was found. Originally this base pierced the tumulus to its summit and was crowned by some imposing memorial of the dead. Earth was heaped systematically around this central structure in layers that can be distinguished easily to-day.

Some slight excavations were made at the Amphiareum, and at Lykosoura, but without noteworthy results.

At Daphne, Signore Novo, a Venetian artist, has been busy the entire year in an attempt to patch up and preserve the mosaics of the monastery.

The tomb of Marathon has been rebuilt or restored to the condition it was in before it was excavated.

The great iron fence around the Dionysiac Theatre has been finished; the stone blocks have been piled up, and the excavated dirt has been put back in many places. The region about the Asklepieion will be treated in a similar way this year. An iron fence will enclose the Odeion of Herodes Atticus and extend around to the Acropolis. Similar fences have been erected around the Stoa and the old market, at great cost. Measures have also been taken to preserve the ruins at Orchomenos.

In addition to the *Ephemeris Archæologike,* the Archæological Society has undertaken the publication of three other works: Lolling's Catalogue of the Epigraphical Museum, which will be a godsend to many people; a periodical under the title of *Monuments of Greece* (Μνημεῖα τῆς Ἑλλάδος), to contain phototypes of the most important works of art, accompanied by short explanatory texts; and lastly Caweran's topographical and architectural plans of the excavations on the Acropolis from 1885 to 1891.

For many years past, visitors to Athens have been distressed to see the hills around Athens ruthlessly blasted away and destroyed in order to furnish the city with building material and with lime. The Frog's Mouth has been uterly ruined; Lycabettos has been hopelessly disfigured; the same is true of the Mouseion hill and the old city of the Kranaans south of the Pnyx. It will delight every one to know that this vandalism will proceed no further, thanks to a law that recently passed the Parliament. Unhappily, the law came thirty years too late, for the huge gaping holes that have been made in these classic hills can never be refilled; the ghastly sores are too deep for healing by any medicaments that man may apply.

It will interest a wide circle in America to know just what the Archæological Society has expended on excavations and in the care of the antiquities during the past year:

Scaffolding for Parthenon repairs	Drs. 84.622
Mosaics at Daphne	18.314
Excavations at Epidaurus	8.603
Excavations at Mycenae	9.898
Excavations at Eleusis	5.616
Excavations at North Slope Acropolis	12.295
Excavations at Outer Ceramicus	3.172
Excavations at Dipylon Mound	.783
Excavations at Amarousi Mound	.966
Excavations at Amphiareum	.127
Excavations at Lykosoura	.217
Excavations at Stoa of Attalus	.564
Fence around Theatre of Dionysos	20.122
Fence around Stoa	5.878
Fence around Old Market	15.329
Purchases for Museum	5,000

This does not take into account the expenditures for the various publications and for salaries. The sums above speak for themselves; for impoverished Greece they are colossal; they should put America to shame and induce our moneyed men to give at least one million dollars for the excavation of Corinth, for it will take fully that much to do the work thoroughly, and to publish the results worthily and fittingly.

J. R. S. STERRETT.

NAPOLEON AT ELBA.

PARIS, April 18, 1897.

No one, says the proverb, is a great man to his valet. It may be said, also, that the great man has somewhat to lose, if you study him when he is fallen from power. The light through which we view him is not the same; he is not so much changed as are those who observe him. The philosopher can see the same man in the Hermit of Friedrichsruhe and in the powerful Iron Chancellor who so long kept Europe under his influence; but the general public is not made up of philosophers. The official editors of the 'Correspondence of Napoleon I.,' which was published in many volumes by order of Napoleon III., at the imperial printing-office, took care to pass lightly over the period of the Emperor's sojourn in the island of Elba. They published only one hundred and fourteen letters of that period, which was followed by the dramatic Hundred Days. They used either the originals, which were communicated to them by Gen. Henry Bertrand, or some well-authenticated letters which were written under Napoleon's dictation and preserved in the library of the Louvre. The register of these last letters was preceded by a note in these terms: "This register of the letters and orders dictated by the Emperor for the administration of the island and of his guard was written by me, his secretary, under his dictation. Paris, March 20, 1847. RATHERY." The original text of this register, preserved at the Louvre, was destroyed in the fire of 1871. Curiously enough, a copy of it was preserved and is now at Carcassonne. This copy was made for M. Cornet Peyrusse (son-in-law of Peyrusse, a faithful servant and treasurer of Napoleon), who intended to write a history of the Emperor at Elba. This manuscript of Carcassonne (which bears the number 260 in the catalogue of the manuscripts of the Carcassonne Library) is a volume of one hundred and fifty pages. M. Cornet Peyrusse died before having even begun the history of the Elba period; and the register has now been published by M. Léon Pélissier, a professor in the University of Montpellier. The volume has for its title, 'The Register of the Island of Elba: Letters and Inedited Orders of Napoleon I. (28 mai, 1814 - 22 février, 1815).

The editors of the voluminous correspondence of Napoleon I. did not think it necessary to publish all the letters which M. Pélissier now publishes. They were not only afraid to increase too much a collection which contains no less than 20,000 pieces; they tried to establish a certain proportion between the number of the documents and the importance of the period to which they refer. The choice, sometimes arbitrary, of the commission which published the correspondence was, however, not always inspired by such considerations.

"Other motives," says M. Pélissier, "sometimes guided it. It was thought necessary to keep for Napoleon the heroic and superhuman attitude which the memorial of Saint Helena gave him, and to allow his letters to represent him as he wished to be painted. It was thought necessary to show him, as it were, with the aureola of the admiration and devotion of his guard and of the troops of the island of Elba. Consequently the letters relative to the revolts of his grenadiers and to their punishment were almost all put aside. The reign of Napoleon at Elba was to have been an era of perfect happiness for the inhabitants of the island *chosen* as a residence by Napoleon 'in consideration of the mildness of their character and of the goodness of the climate' (such were the expressions of Napoleon in a letter written by him to General Dalesme, and the good people of the island themselves really thought for a while that Napoleon had come voluntarily, with a view to taking a little repose among them). The letters concerning the severe repression of a popular tumult at Capoliveri, other letters relating to the indebtedness incurred in the island and left unpaid, were not published, as well as many others which pertained to vulgar details, the table of the officers, the distribution of linen in the household, etc., etc."

It is evident that, after his great campaign in France, his abdication at Fontainebleau, his journey to Saint-Tropez, through Provence, when his life was constantly in danger, Napoleon might have sunk in Elba into a state of complete apathy. He left a world behind him—not only a material world, but a world of emotions, of perils, of gigantic plans; and he sank into the state of a landed proprietor, of a small farmer, unseen, unknown. Yet such was the elasticity of his nature, he was so essentially a man of action, that he took as good care of the small guard which had been left to him as he had ever done of the "Grande Armée"; he preoccupied himself as much with the needs of the small island of Elba as he had ever done with the needs of France and the immense provinces which he had added to ancient France. He was as autocratic in Elba as he had been in Paris. Nothing was done or could be done without direct orders from him. M. Pélissier is unjust when he says that the prosperity of the island never interested Napoleon; his publication shows that the Emperor initiated many measures of public interest, sanitary measures, erection of fountains, planting of trees along the road, water-works, etc.; he made plans for the opening of schools, for drawing and for sculpture, for a polytechnic school.

His activity was extraordinary. We see him looking into the finances of every commune, of the hospital of Porto Ferrajo, organizing a police, a gendarmerie, a small army, a navy, the defences of the coast; opening roads, building bridges over torrents. His administration in Elba is imbued with the same spirit as it was in France. "In whatever situation fortune may place me," he had once said to the Treasurer Peyrusse, "I will never tolerate any *friponnerie*." It is true, he said once, "We are here no longer in Paris"; still, he keeps up his old habits, the respect of form, of registration, of control. M. Pélissier says of him: "Sous l'autocrate, le bureaucrate"; and adds that his letters reveal "the revival, with extraordinary vital intensity, of the *officier d'administration* in the generalissimo. So long as Napoleon could apply himself to great affairs, so long as he could leave to his subordinates the care of details, it might be thought that with him the genius of social organization, like the genius of war, was pure and detached from all meanness. But here, when fate had reduced him to administer petty affairs himself, one is surprised and frightened at seeing, under the mask of Cæsar growing fat, the petty soul of a *riz-pain-sel* [such is the familiar name given in the French army by the soldiers to the officers of the supplies department—*intendance*]." Napoleon knew better than M. Pélissier that there are no petty details in the organization of an army, that the smallest differences in the expenses of a soldier are multiplied by thousands and very soon by millions; that the efficiency of an army depends upon these details. He had found, after the Directory, not only the military administration of France, but its civil administration, in a state of hopeless disorder and chaos; he introduced order everywhere, showed the greatest severity to those who squandered or stole the public money; he organized the inorganic masses which had been freed by the French Revolution. He could not help doing at Elba, where he was still a sovereign, what he had always done. The stage had changed, the actor was the same.

It seems to me that M. Pélissier also takes a narrow view of his subject when he says:

"Lower still in his heart there survives the soldier of fortune; the Corsican *gentillâtre*, the thin and underfed young man for whom the trade of arms was at first only a mode of bread-winning and the means for obtaining a pension. . . . Aroused from his unheard-of dream of fifteen years (and it seems impossible that, during these fifteen years, he should not have had at times the sensation that all this was unreal, that normal life was in suspense for him), the captain of artillery of the siege of Toulon returning to common life, to a legal situation, could congratulate himself on having found for his old age an assured and peaceful existence. In his conversations, his letters, one feels, amidst a thousand other feelings, along with the bitterness of a fallen sovereign, the proprietor's feeling of plenitude. He wishes to make his retreat as comfortable as he can and to secure the highest possible income. . . . He shows a true bourgeois passion for building. . . . He must above all assure his finances; his first care is to verify his resources, to make his budget, to lay his hand on all the revenues of the domain—salt, mines, woods, taxes."

I can see in this disposition of Napoleon, as well as in his habit of controlling all the expenses of his household, only the result of acquired habits of economy and order; I cannot help thinking that the extraordinary activity of Napoleon at Elba and the interest shown in the minutest affairs of the island served him as a veil to cover the project which he was forming of a return to France. M. Pélissier is not of this mind; he does not admit any premeditation for the famous return from Elba.

"The letters," he says, "do not allow us to suppose this premeditation. It is not because the absence of political letters authorizes this negative conclusion, for from the fact that there is no trace of them in this register of Rathery, it would be imprudent as well as foolish to conclude that no such letters were written, by him as well as by others. It is rather the multiplicity of business letters, the infinite detail of internal questions, which force us to this negative conclusion."

M. Pélissier believes that Napoleon was resigned to his fate; he cannot think that this mass of administrative papers served as a mask to cover a long conspiracy.

We know that the French agents at Leghorn and on the coast towns of Italy kept the French Government as well as M. de Talleyrand at Vienna informed of the small-

est incidents relative to Napoleon, while he was at Elba, of all the movements of his family, of all the visits which he received; but Napoleon had shown on his return from Egypt that he knew how to prepare in secret a *coup d'état*, and had kept all parties and all men in the dark about his real intentions before the 18th Brumaire. M. Pélissier publishes himself in his volume three letters which show clearly that Napoleon had secret relations with the Continent: one relates to a journey in Tuscany of Countess Walewska, who had remained faithful to him since the days of Poland; in another letter, we see that Napoleon tries to send dispatches in a Neapolitan ship; in another, he invites Col. Mallet to advise the grenadiers who go back to France from Elba to send notes to their comrades remaining at Elba "on the state of the public mind." Napoleon's resolution was taken only after the visit of Fleury de Chaboulon; but we believe that the project of a return to France was constantly in his mind. He watched events on the Continent with the most eager interest and the transformation of public opinion in France, after the return of the Bourbons. Even on his way to the coast of Provence, after he had been forced to abdicate, he had conversation with the foreign officers who accompanied him and saw him embark, which proved that he was not resigned and had not said his last word in history.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION AND THE MONROE DOCTRINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Has it ever occurred to the distinguished Jingo from Massachusetts, or to any of his colleagues, that our protective tariff is at the bottom of all our trouble with the Monroe Doctrine? Of course, England and the other greedy Powers eagerly swallow all the fat business opportunities which this generous nation of ours allows them to seize. So long as we leave any ripe plums growing on the outside of our Chinese wall, just so long will those hungry Powers come all the way across the Atlantic to gather them.

What's the use of the Monroe Doctrine, anyway, if we can't get the Pan-American products over our own fence? We might as well let Europe in outright; then she would not have so many ignorant emigrants to flood off on us. But, no! the glorious Doctrine must be maintained—and so must protection. We need only increase our navy to a point where we shall no longer be obliged to submit every petty claim against us to arbitration, but shall be able to prescribe that method of settlement to all other nations. Our home securities, to be sure, may fluctuate more or less under continuous doses of war scare; but then they represent protected industries, and must expect to take a bitter pill now and then; perhaps some day it will produce nausea, and Congress will see the errors of its way.

With the Chinese wall removed, the gunboats could withdraw to make way for our merchants, who would quietly proceed to drive out those European hucksters from the South American market.

John Alden Lee.

Milton, Mass., May 3, 1897.

A NEW PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The inquiry, "Why Not a New Party?" in this week's *Nation*, has often suggested itself to the writer, and must have done so to many others who find no political resting-place in any of the parties now existing. Certainly the need of a new party is as great as it was when the Republican party was founded. The manner of its founding suggests the method to be pursued to-day. Let the Democrats who voted for Palmer break with the present Democratic party, and call for a convention of those citizens everywhere who favor the principles of the Indianapolis platform. There must be many everywhere who would join a real party of ideas. T. C. D.

HISTORY REPEATING ITSELF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have never known an implied prediction of coming events so completely verified in so short a time as in the letter of "W. J. S.," in the *Nation* of March 18, on "The Motive of Greek Intervention." He says, among other things:

"The result was the blockade of the Peiræus, which closed the agitation and permitted the Ministry to resign, with a flaming appeal to the nation, saying what it would have done if the Powers had not stopped it; the fact being that the Turkish General had his orders to cross the frontier if the provocation lasted another day, and march on Athens, which he would have done with no serious difficulty, since the Greek army lacked organization and even the shadow of discipline. Tricoupis came to power just in time to save Greece from a disaster, but, as the ranters of Athens said, only to prevent Greece from going to Constantinople. The Turks would have been in Athens in less than two weeks, there being on the frontier 40,000 men, many of whom were veterans of the Bulgarian war."

Here, then, we have in the statement of what would have been in 1886, a fairly accurate description of what has been in 1897. The American people may now see what "W. J. S." saw in advance, that the occupation of Crete and the war with Turkey were not brought about by an intelligent, self-restrained, determined people, but by the Jingoes, the politicians, the editors, and the idle inflammatory material of the Grecian cities. The Ministers yielded because otherwise they would have "to go"; the King yielded because he thought war safer than revolution. The result, of course, is that the brave and heroic have poured out their blood and laid down their lives for the cause of the Jingoes; that the innocent inhabitants of village and country are subjected to the ravages of war; that the Jingo element is laying the blame upon the monarchy, and trying to set up a republic to keep the Turks out of Athens, and valorously insulting the wife and daughters of the King when they appear in the streets.

Personal bravery, love of country, hatred of the oppressor are priceless elements in national character. These the Greeks have. But these are not all the elements needful to make a great people or, in the present age, to wage a successful war. A successful war, to-day, may be defined to be "a terrible product of industrial and scientific preparation." This the Jingo does not know. He may be defined to be "a survival of mediæval ignorance." C. C. N.

Washington, May, 1897.

INDENTURED SERVANTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My mother, now seventy-six years old, tells me that she very frequently heard her mother (living in the Cumberland Valley, Pa.) refer to the practice, as rather a common thing, of very respectable people, in the early days of immigration, contracting with a ship's captain to have him "sell their time" in America for a sum sufficient to repay him for the amount of their passage-money from Great Britain. One or another of the well-to-do farmers in their vicinity would be spoken of as children of "Redemptionists," and not at all to their discredit. They simply worked their passage, only doing their work after landing instead of en route. Schoolmasters might well have been among them. T. E. C.

BRANT AND RABELAIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your reviewer of Virgile Rossel's 'Histoire des Relations Littéraires entre la France et l'Allemagne' (April 22) states that "there is, according to our author [*i. e.*, Rossel], a likelihood that closer investigation will reveal traces of Brant's 'Ship of Fools' and 'Till Eulenspiegel' in Rabelais." This fact has been proved beyond doubt, at least in regard to Brant and Rabelais, cf. Louis Spach, *Bulletin de la Société littéraire de Strassbourg*, 1862, I. 38; Süpfle, 'Geschichte des deutschen Cultureinflusses auf Frankreich,' I, 31 ff. In Brant, chapter 108, *das schluraffenschiff* (the fool's trip to *Montflascun*) ("all port durchsuchen wir und gstad") undoubtedly was the source of Rabelais's voyage to the *Holy Flasc* (Publ. of the Mod. Lang. Assoc. of America, 1893, p. 4, note 2: Rabelais and Erasmus).

Very respectfully,

Hermann Schoenfeld.

THE ANTIQUITY OF "WELLERISMS."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent "W. H. B." cites a passage from Petronius as the earliest example of a "Wellerism," or παραπροσδόκημα, to use the terminology of ancient rhetoricians. An exact parallel is, however, found in an author who antedates Petronius by more than three centuries.

Readers of Theocritus will recall the delightful scene in the "Adoniazusæ," where the two Syracusan women, accompanied by their maids, after considerable jostling, finally force their way through the dense crowd and into the "concert hall," where a celebrated prima donna was "advertised" to sing the "Adonis." At this point, Praxinoa remarks: "'Ενδοι πᾶσαι" ὁ τὰν νυὸν εἶπ' ἀποκλάξας ("They're all in," said the man, as he locked out his bride).

For similar instances of proverbial expressions, followed by a ridiculous and unexpected "epilogus," see Laberius, p. 286 Ribb., Lucilius, fragm. 458 L., and especially M. Haupt, Opuscula II., pp. 400 ff., and Hoefer, 'Wie das Volk spricht,' 1856.

Yours respectfully, Alfred Gudeman.

Philadelphia, April 30, 1897.

PHILOLOGY AT A VENTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Among the contents of *Dialect Notes*,

Part IX., lately published, figures an article entitled "British vs. American English," which, to the editor of that journal and his colleagues, is "very welcome," and, in their opinion, "can be regarded as authoritative as to English usage." The writer of it is Mr. Evacustes A. Phipson, of Birmingham, England.

The point whether Mr. Phipson's deliverances are as they have been estimated will receive illustration in the sequel. If, however, their author is qualified to determine what, in others, is prescriptively reputable English, it is unexpected that he should, himself, now and then deviate from such English in a manner the most marked. For instance, in his significant judgment that his fellow-countrymen are "absurd in excluding from *genteel language* the useful word 'belly,' substituting for it the misnomer 'stomach,' " the proletarian equivalent of "the language of gentle life" is seen to have his practical countenance; and, accordingly, we must take it for granted that the only consensus regarding it which is to be consulted with a view to guidance, since it cannot have escaped his attention, is discarded by him on principle. That, in England, at the present day, the expression *genteel* is mainly a peculium of the underbred—of those with whom *wives* are *ladies*, and of those, who, in their own sphere, are known as *gents*, *donas*, and the like—is a position which none but the ill-informed are likely to controvert.

And not only as above, presumably under provincial influence, does the Birmingham critic exemplify, in the article of æsthetic predilections, what, tested by the accredited touchstone, ranks as vulgarity. "There is," he says, "no more need to mention the forename after the title *Sir* or *Rev.* than after *Mr.* and *Lord*. Why always say 'Sir *Charles* Dilke'?" "Need," in the matter, and the answer to his "Why," are sufficiently obvious. Acquaintance with established etiquette being presupposed, observance of it, where not clashing wth scruples of conscience, is generally felt to be of the nature of a duty. In particular, it is not instinctively that one can come by such a fact as that "the Rev. Smith" and "Sir Dilke" are peculiarities of phraseology which, to persons of refinement or good taste, at once distinguish, as being alien to themselves, those who employ or would tolerate them. Summarily, it is impossible to misinterpret the bearing, as towards the rulings of the great centre of English culture, of one who can speak of the "'polite,' or, rather, cockney, language" and of "the London simper."

Before we reach the bottom of his first page, we meet with what follows:

"The word *guess* may be found, used in precisely the American sense, in nearly every page of Chaucer, and is not quite obsolete in England even now, but may occasionally be heard, in remote rural districts, employed in the Chaucerian sense. Moreover, it is, certainly, more correct than the usual British substitutes, *fancy*, *imagine*, *suspect*, to say nothing of the commonest of all, *expect*, which is positively ungrammatical, unless referring to future events."

Mention having been premised of writers on this side of the Atlantic, Mr. J. R. Lowell, as formerly quoted by me in these pages, remarks: "I have never seen any passage adduced [from them] where *guess* was used as the Yankee uses it." Nor, I am confident, has any one else. Of the discussion relative to the question in hand, which, in 1893, I entered into at length, I may be excused for repeating the summing up:

"The true state of the case regarding the verb *guess* in America is, that, while it is employed there, rather than its practical synonyms, much more frequently than in England, it not seldom, especially in the Eastern States, 'implies a confident certainty,' as Mr. Lowell says. 'Are you sure that your statement is correct? 'Yes, I *guess* I am.' 'Bein' the mercury is at zero, I *guess* it is pretty cold.' 'I must start now for Boston; and I *guess* I shall.' Here are genuine Americanisms, reminding a dweller in East Anglia of the expletival 'That du *fare* to rain right tidy,' 'How do yow *fare* to be, mate?' "

Incidentally, not without entertaining a very original notion of grammaticalness can Mr. Phipson say what he says about *expect*. Is it syntax that the Scotch "I *will* come just now" transgresses? *Expect*, for *suspect*, is, at present, a blunder; and yet, possibly, it may by and by become classical. If it violates grammar, we must bracket with it *desecrate*, which, quadrating with Latin, would be convertible with *consecrate*, if not also with *deify*, *devote*, *prescribe*.

As respects the English of America, so as respects that of England, the critic's information is often glaringly at fault. "The diction [*sic*] of a French Canadian," he remarks, "in its misplacing of the aspirate, strongly reminds one of the brogue of our southeastern counties." In all parts of this country, a little of the extreme north and east excepted, is the cacoëpy which he notices prevalent among the common people. According to him, furthermore, "it is becoming the fashion," here, "to sound the *t* in *often*, *pestle*, and the word *lieutenant* as spelled," and to say "'*umble*, '*erb*, '*eroic*, '*istoric*, '*abitual*, '*umorous*, '*armonious*;" the truth being that most of these pronunciations have long been more or less customary, and that none of them are now recognized by good society, metropolitan or other. "'*Otel*," the omission of which is indicated above, stands by itself, in that the *h* of *hotel*, though not heard after *an*, is always heard elsewhere.

Once more, the subject being still the aspirate, we have the assertion that it "is never wrongly sounded, in England, in an unaccented syllable; so it is utterly erroneous to represent an Englishman as talking of *Hamerica*, though he may say *I ham*." Rather, it is to unaccented or sub-accented syllables that, in speaking, the aspirate is, here, most commonly prefixed amiss, especially to mark emphasis. Would not *heddication* and *helevation* come from the same mouth as *heddicate* and *helevate*? Hardly can one have travelled much about England to find anything strange in *halteration*, *hanimation*, *howdacious*, *hemploy*, *hengineer*, *henjoy*, *hexpress*, *hingenious*, *hinstruct*, *hobligation*, *hoperation*, *huncertain*, *hundrinkable*, and so on; and why should Englishmen print such forms, as they have been doing since the time of Fielding, if they are only fancies? A good number more of gratuitous statements, kindred to those just animadverted on, are, in the interest of brevity, left uncastigated.

Tokens that Mr. Phipson, in posing as a philologist, has mistaken his function are thickly strewn. On his credit, "it has lately become the fashion to write . . . 'on the *carpet*' for 'on the (*table*) *cloth*' (the same word, *tapis*, in French, standing for both)." Again, "to wantonly introduce such confusions as . . . *elect* for *choose* (as 'he *elected* to go'), and *assurance* for *insurance*, is to deliberately mar the richness and harmony of the language."

On the carpet was used by Sir Roger L'Estrange in 1687; it occurs in *The Entertainer*, published in 1718; and no more to our forefathers, at any period since, was it a novelty than it is to us. When it first appeared, it exactly corresponded to the French phrase *sur le tapis; carpet*, from the fourteenth century till the reign of George II., having meant both what it now means and also "table-cloth." The *Oxford Dictionary* takes its *carpet* to have been, originally, that "of the council-table." As little as other things are the age and the history of an expression to be dogmatized about on conjecture masquerading as knowledge.

To come to the verb *elect*, one would ask in vain what "confusion" is occasioned by making it intransitive. And the critic's "wantonly" and "introduce" betray equal dreaminess with his "confusion." From the era of Lord Bacon forward, the intransitive *elect* has been a formal substitute, with jurists, for *choose;* and, so far forth, it resembles the modern *condone*, for *forgive* or *overlook*. Colebrooke, the great Orientalist, has it repeatedly in his *Treatise on Obligations and Contracts*, issued in the year 1818. And it early became popularized. Lord Orrery, in the days of the Commonwealth and just after, was especially fond of it. I have marked twenty-six instances of it in his *Parthenissa* alone. As untechnical, it has had the sanction, in recent years, of Lord Strangford, Prof. de Morgan, John Stuart Mill, Cardinal Manning, and many others. Here, again, the *Oxford Dictionary* would have been inspected advantageously. In passing, a reviewer in the *Guardian* newspaper of August 23, 1871, p. 1023, dealing with a book "placed in the year 1829," observes: "At that time we are sure that horrid Americanism '*elected* to do a thing' had never come in." Almost as a matter of course, an ordinary Englishman does not hesitate to impeach, "hitty-missy," as a "horrid Americanism," anything in his mother-tongue that seems to him objectionable.

Touching *assurance*—that, it is presumed, which is the object of *assurance-companies*—the essayist writes much at random. In the *Oxford Dictionary*, which quotes "the price of assurance" under the date of 1622, there is the subjoined observation by Dr. Murray:

"Technically, the present usage is to differentiate life-*assurance* and fire- and marine-*insurance;* though, as will be seen from the quotations, *assurance* was the original term in reference to marine risks."

From among Mr. Phipson's numerous placits, here follow a few specimens, as expressed by himself, or in substance, with brief comments.

Goods-train and *luggage-train* are stated to be confined, in England, to the diction of men and to that of women, respectively. This distinction is one of narrowly limited currency. *Drawers*, to denote a "female garment"—the restriction is unwarranted—is called a "barbaric [*sic*] word." One would like to know why it is barbarous. "*Pail* is, properly, a utensil with one handle at the side, and is erroneous, if used as synonymous with *bucket*." Understood as thus defined, it is a localism. *Rooster* and *slut*, instanced as samples of "American fastidiousness," are living English provincialisms, and are of long standing. *Cute*, *glimpsed*,

pshaw, faucet, rarely ever, maybe, with the adverb *any, mad,* for *angry,* and *'most,* for *almost,* "are, I believe, peculiar to America, or nearly so." All of them, good and bad alike, are common enough here. Is "the dove returned not again *any* more" false English? "The American usage is decidedly the more correct in *around* for *round* (adverb)." On what conceivable ground is it "more correct"? Condemnation is arbitrarily awarded to *"than whom,* for *than who, to a degree,* for *to a high degree, quite so,* for *just so";* as if the first locution were not supported by the highest authority, while the other two are respectable colloquialisms. *"He ignored the question . . .* is only correct [correct only], if he could not answer it"; a rare and obsolete use being thus preferred to one of universal acceptance. And here my choice of citations must end.

Let us now come to the winding-up of the critic's prolusion:

"If speakers and writers would take the trouble to consider a little, in the light of common sense, whether or not the words or phrases they use are correct, instead of merely following vulgar usage, regardless of whether it is right or wrong, the most flagrant inconsistencies and solecisms in our language would soon disappear."

This may be accepted, when those who would improve English by inspiration produce testimonials certifying that they are veritably inspired. Pending, however, the production of such vouchers, and the saving of labor therefrom resulting, a scholarly apprehension and a reasoned appreciation of linguistic conventionalities are indispensable preliminaries to tenable proposals for setting them aside. These wanting, "the light of common sense" is only an ignis-fatuus to the would-be reformer of speech. Again, as to "vulgar usage," inasmuch as it is, admittedly, sometimes "right," established usage is, of course, intended by it; and we have had to do, all along, with a professed exhibition of the established usage of both England and America. "It is," however, "impossible for any man who has not lived in a country to be an authority on the usage there"; an axiom which the editor of *Dialect Notes* pertinently adduces, by way of preface to the plentiful array of misrepresentations of Americanisms pointed out by him in Mr. Phipson's essay. Forestalled, partially, by the editor, I have but slightly concerned myself with particulars akin to such as he has specified, having chiefly kept to a selection of those of another category, namely, those evincing, on the part of their enunciator, an imperfect familiarity with what is, or what has been, recognized as standard English in its old home. The general qualifications of the Birmingham critic for engaging in our vernacular philology the reader, after turning to *Dialect Notes,* is now in a position to appraise.

That our language is largely open to adverse criticism is confessed on all hands. But equally the exposure of its blemishes and practicable suggestions for their removal necessitate comprehensive and serious study. Dilettantism, with its little budget of quisquilious jottings, would, if prudent, indulge in some pursuit of a different description. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 11, 1897.

Notes.

MACMILLAN CO. have in press 'Burns and his Times as gathered from his Poems,' by J. O. Mitchell, LL.D.; a volume supplementary to the Oxford Chaucer and uniform with that edition in six volumes (1894), to be entitled 'Chaucerian and Other Pieces,' edited from numerous MSS. by the Rev. W. W. Skeat; and 'Elementary Drawing,' a series of practical papers for beginners, by Elizabeth Moore Hallowell.

'Latest Excavations in Nippur,' edited by Prof. Dr. H. V. Hilprecht after the recent researches of Dr. J. H. Haynes in Babylonia, will be published by John D. Wattles & Co., Philadelphia, under the auspices of the Department of Archæology and Palæontology of the University of Pennsylvania.

Mr. Gladstone's new series of 'Gleanings from Past Years' (1879-1897) will bear the imprint, in this country, of Charles Scribner's Sons.

Further announcements by G. P. Putnam's Sons are 'Evolution and Religion; or, Faith as a Part of a Complete Cosmic System,' by John Bascom; 'Bases of Religious Belief, Historic and Ideal,' by Prof. Charles Mellen Tyler of Cornell; 'The Occasional Address, its Literature and Composition,' by Prof. Lorenzo Sears of Brown; 'Corporation Finance,' by Thomas L. Greene, Auditor of the Manhattan Trust Co.; 'Nullification and Secession,' during the first century of the Republic, by Edward Payson Powell, D.D.; and 'Personal Recollections of the War of the Rebellion,' edited by Gen. James Grant Wilson and Dr. T. M. Coan for one series, and by A. Noel Blakeman for a second.

'A Garden of Romance,' "a collection of the best short stories of all ages and countries," edited by Ernest Rhys, will be issued in handsome form this month by the New Amsterdam Book Co.

In the autumn the A. D. F. Randolph Co. expect to publish 'Handbooks for Practical Workers in Church and Philanthropy,' by Prof. Samuel Macauley Jackson.

Mark Twain's latest travels round the world are to furnish a new 'Innocents Abroad,' to appear in the autumn through the American Publishing Co., Hartford, but by subscription only.

Prof. Morris Jastrow, jr.'s, 'Religion of Babylonia and Assyria' is nearly ready to be published by Ginn & Co.

Bates & Guild, Boston, have in preparation 'The Municipal Buildings of the City of Boston Designed and Erected by Edmund M. Wheelwright, City Architect 1891-95,' compiled and edited by Francis W. Chandler, Professor of Architecture in the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The work will be illustrated with photographs, plans, working drawings, notes on construction, cost, etc., of more than eighty buildings, of which school-houses form a large proportion.

De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. will shortly bring out 'Samuel Sewall and the World He Lived In,' by N. H. Chamberlain, with portraits and other illustrations.

Among the gathering reprints on our table we can mention a new edition of 'John Halifax, Gentleman,' on which the Harpers have bestowed much care in presswork and binding, and which has been modestly illustrated by Hugh Riviere, largely from the actual scene of the story. It makes a very pretty book. Attractive, likewise, is Dodd, Mead & Co.'s new dress for Mr. Edmund Gosse's 'Seventeenth Century Studies.' It is a third edition, to which the author adds a fresh preface, intimating that his early judgments of 1883 have suffered some modifications, but not such as to call for a working over; and he has done well to procure an index, which greatly enhances the worth of this collection of studies of the lesser literary lights of the period under review. In an appendix Mr. Gosse prints an interesting extract from a letter of Lowell's explaining the structure of the Commemoration Ode by its having been intended for public recitation. Mr. Gosse had denied its Pindaric legitimacy. An older work, Bryant's metrical version of the 'Iliad,' is now issued in a single volume by Houghton, Mifflin & Co. as a students' edition. The manufacture has purposely been made inexpensive, but the presswork is clear and the binding tasteful. The same firm has enlarged its "Riverside Literature Series" with Grimm's Tales, Bunyan's 'Pilgrim's Progress,' "Macbeth," and Carlyle's Essay on Burns. The brown linen covers of this series call for especial commendation. Mr. Oscar Fay Adams's 'Story of Jane Austen's Life' was already a well-made book in 1891, with its index and bibliography; now the author is able to carry out his original plan of illustrating his biography with portraits and views, and this improved edition has been published by Lee & Shepard, Boston. The last portrait in the series is that of the genial nephew and first biographer of Jane Austen, the Rev. J. E. Austen-Leigh. We conclude with the little pocket-piece, Fletcher's "Two Noble Kinsmen," in the Dent-Macmillan "Temple Dramatists." The literary apparatus is furnished by Dr. C. H. Herford.

Full of apt description and poetical suggestion is Col. T. W. Higginson's book of summer sketches named, from its first essay, 'The Procession of the Flowers' (Longmans, Green & Co.). The orderly march of this yearly parade Mr. Higginson delights to watch while welcoming the special gifts of each season. Even in the bare winter woods he sees a peculiar propriety, and speaks with approval of the thoroughness of Dame Nature's annual housecleaning. This variable lady's many moods and toilets find keen appreciation in his pages, which also charm by their reproducing for the reader, in some degree, the pleasure that its author feels in "all out-doors." A botanist might find here and there a trifling error, as when *hepatica triloba* is called an annual, but an easy, every-day familiarity with common plants and birds is shown in all the essays. It would be a pity, indeed, if all our botany were Latin names, but Mr. Higginson's plea for the moderate use of Latin will be appreciated by every one who has tried to scrape an acquaintance with our native flowers. When half-a-dozen distinct plants of widely separated orders have the same English name, and others, common enough, have no English name, we must be pedantic or unintelligible if we speak of them.

Following very rapidly upon the appearance of Messrs. Thatcher & Schwill's larger work on the Middle Ages comes an abridgment by the senior author ('A Short History of Mediæval Europe'; Charles Scribner's Sons). It commends itself especially to the pupils of high and preparatory schools. It is marked by the same general

characteristics noticed in the larger book—a comprehensiveness of plan, a studied sententiousness of style, an avoidance of all personal element in the movement of events. In the hands of a skilful teacher it would be better than nothing; in those of an unskilled teacher it would be almost worse than nothing. In other words, while it has no glaring faults, it does not rise by any virtue of its own above the level of the usual text-book.

The 'History of Iron,' by Dr. Ludwig Beck, is apparently approaching completion. The first volume of this valuable work, which was published originally in 1884, a second edition appearing in 1891, contained the history of this industry from the earliest times to the end of the Middle Ages. In the second volume there was an account of its development during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. The third volume, of which the sixth quarterly part has just appeared, is wholly devoted to the eighteenth century, the plan of the author being to give first a general account of the different processes of extracting the ore and of its manufacture then in vogue, and afterwards to describe their application in the different European countries.

One of the most entertaining occupations man can take up is that of the discovery of unsuspected genius, and one of the richest fields he can work is contemporary literature, applying himself especially to the study of authors who have had their moment of vogue in a more or less restricted circle of admirers. This is the task to which Maurice Le Blond has addressed himself in his 'Essai sur le Naturisme' (Paris: *Mercure de France*). He reveals to an expectant public that romanticism is dead; that realism and naturalism have followed it to the grave, and that symbolism has shared their fate. What is certain to be news to many is that the new and most recent literary school is that of "Naturism"; the dropping of the syllable "al" makes all the difference. "Naturism" is an "art of humanity," simpler and more naïve than pre-Raphaelitism and symbolism. As for the revealer and expounder of this nebulous doctrine, he is called Saint-Georges de Bouhélier, and, though scarce twenty years of age, is a Sage and a great Poet. The capitals are important.

The *Mercure de France*, whose mission in this lower and intensely ignorant world of ours is to enlighten a benighted public on the rare merit of small potatoes, sends forth, in addition to Le Blond's essay, a volume by Victor Charbonnel, 'Les Mystiques dans la littérature présente.' This book has more value to the student of literature at the present day, although it also is conceived and written in a spirit of well-nigh unbounded admiration for mediocre writers. It is scarcely possible to evoke much enthusiasm for Paul Desjardins, Des Esseintes, the Sâr Péladan, or the "great Hello." Villiers de l'Isle Adam had parts and talent, but even posterity is not likely to place him in the first rank of writers, any more than Mallarmé, Schuré, Rod, or Viélé-Griffin. Of these, Rod is easily the best, and yet even he cannot be said to have done more as yet than express a not infrequent gentle melancholy and regret. His last novel, 'Là-haut,' is worth reading, but it is not a great work nor within measurable distance of greatness.

Pierré Loti's latest novel, 'Ramuntcho' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), is marked by the same traits which distinguish his other works: the same voluptuous languor, the same love of color and vague form, the same absence of virility, of vigor, of healthy thought, the same cloying sweetness of sensation and impression, the same helpless view of the problems of life and death which disgusts or exasperates once its fleeting charm has evaporated. There are beautiful descriptions in 'Ramuntcho'—one expects to find such in Loti's pages; there are suave and passionate passages of love in youth and sad strains such as he has accustomed us to in his former novels; but there is also that same feeling of puerile discouragement and of weak despair in the presence of events, that washed-out emotionality and theatrical yearning after a lost faith, that have marked this author's work and have recommended him so highly to certain temperaments.

Hachette & Co. have just published two additional volumes in their series of monographs of great French writers: 'Malherbe,' by the Duc de Broglie, and 'Beaumarchais,' by M. André Hallays. Two more widely different authors it would be somewhat difficult to select, and the two volumes appear to reflect precisely the character of the two men. The 'Beaumarchais' is interesting and bright from the first page to the last; the volume on 'Malherbe' is almost uniformly heavy and disappointing. The Duc de Broglie has taken great pains to make his work readable and to give as lifelike a portrait of his author as he could, but the formalism of Malherbe has proved too much for him. On the other hand, M. Hallays has given us one of the brightest and truest portraits of Beaumarchais which we possess, and this without exhibiting undue partiality for the subject of his brilliant study. He puts the witty author of the Memoirs, of the "Barber of Seville," and of the "Marriage of Figaro" in his real light, with all his faults as well as all his qualities justly and fairly set forth. His style has much of the vivacity of Beaumarchais himself, and the result is one of the most readable and entertaining of books, in which honest criticism and the sense of responsibility are ever present.

In a second and revised edition of the Rev. J. H. Pettee's 'A Census of Christian Charities in Japan' (Okayama), the author shows that the foreigners and missionaries have established the following institutions: Theological seminaries, 14, with 216 students; 32 boys' schools, with 2,239 pupils; women's training schools, 10, with 238 inmates; 50 girls' schools, with 2,748 pupils; 14 kindergartens, with 526 children; 184 day or night schools for the poor, with 9,241 pupils in attendance; 39 orphan asylums, with 2,686 inmates; 15 homes for the destitute, with 335 pensionaries; and 31 hospitals—a total of 333 benevolent institutions, which benefit 15,448 persons. Ten pages of detailed information cover only the Protestant work, but Roman and Greek Catholic statistics are included in the totals. We also note the publication by a Japanese bookseller (2 chome, Ginza, Tokyo) of 'A Mirror of Christian Names,' giving name and address of over 1,000 native and foreign workers, 754 churches and preaching stations, 208 religious and benevolent native institutions, and of 30 periodicals, all Christian, though of various forms.

The Boston Book Co. began last month a *Bulletin of Bibliography*, which is frankly a private commercial medium for this house and its customers, yet possesses features which librarians at least must prize. For example, Miss Ethelyn D. M. Tucker, of the Amherst College Library, contributes the first instalment of a list of books that originally appeared in periodicals. This information practically doubles a library's resources for the works named—and they are by no means all novels; witness Agassiz's 'Method of Study in Natural History,' Matthew Arnold's 'Study of Celtic Literature,' Bagehot's 'Constitution of Great Britain,' etc. Miss Mary W. Plummer describes anew the Petrarchan and Icelandic collections of Prof. Willard Fiske at Florence. There is also an editorial article on the Dingley duty on books and works of art. The *Bulletin* has no subscription price.

Part i., No. 2, of the *Lower Norfolk County (Va.) Antiquary*, edited by Edward W. James, and for sale by George M. West, Richmond, reproduces the resolution of a hustings court at Norfolk on July 31, 1835, instructing the Mayor to request the Postmaster to withhold delivery to free negroes and other colored persons of the *Human Rights*, the *Emancipator*, "and other incendiary papers published in the Northern States," and alleged to have been addressed to that dangerous element of the Southern population.

—The *Atlantic* for May opens with two articles under a common heading, "The Problems of Rural New England," by Philip Morgan and Alvan F. Sanborn. The first is called "A Remote Village" and the second "A Farming Community"; neither makes it very clear what are the problems referred to, except, perhaps, that Mr. Morgan raises the question whether New England character "has not entered upon a long and gradual course of sure decay." It is a queer community which he describes, possibly (from the very slight indication given of its situation) a New Hampshire village. Most of the touches of description are strong of the soil: "The prevailing tone in Asher Dill's store, and in the village generally, is a humorous one—a tone of irony and of good-natured sarcasm; . . . in fact, to be humorous, and especially to be good at repartee, is the one intellectual ambition of the community." The nearest railroad station is ten miles away; the office in the tavern is the pleasantest social centre in the village, though some people prefer the gathering-place round the stove in Asher Dill's store, where there are more "happenings," as, for instance, when poverty-stricken Jake Herring (Almiry Herring's husband) shuffles up to the counter, and, after buying medicine for his dying wife, finds he has not cash about him "just then" to pay for it, upon which Asher replies without hesitation, "That's all right"—Asher being a good-natured man, and ready, very likely, to furnish the coffin, too—the selectmen, possibly, in the end, finding the money. Nobody has much ambition, or, indeed, any expectation of ever materially bettering his condition; but nobody is so poor or busy that he cannot afford to take a day off for fishing or shooting. The inhabitants are not specially moral (though there is no bar-room in the tavern), and the number of illegitimate births is said to be large—so large that there is a tariff of $400 per child which custom fixes as decently obligatory upon the putative father. Away from the

village, on a lonely farm, is an establishment for the illegal sale of liquor, the resort of scapegraces and the scene of degrading orgies. There is no stealing, and there is no standard of manners; bathing, for the sake of cleanliness, is rare, and slovenliness in dress the habit of the community. Mr. Sanborn notices the fact, characteristic of all New England village life, that there are apt to be a number of queer characters, who have travelled out into the world, and come back with a history of some kind, which suffices them for experience, and gives a little eccentric relief from the unmodified village type. He does not mention the village drunkard, who in some localities is an important character. Lowell, if we remember right, somewhere records the decease of one, adding, "We don't know how we shall be able to supply his place." We must not forget the marked passion for equality, which has really obliterated all the social traditions of the earlier New England. Prof. Gildersleeve's "My Sixty Days in Greece" reaches its third number, and we may also call attention to Lafcadio Hearn's "Trip to Izumo" as worth reading. His account of the impression produced by the restrained irony of a Japanese war-song is a delicate essay in musico-literary analysis.

—Undergraduate life at Harvard is described in *Scribner's* by Edward S. Martin in an illustrated article. He points out several of the contrasts which exist between the old and new Harvard, *i. e.*, between the University as it was before the introduction of the elective system and as it is now; the main cause of the differences lying in the facts that the college is twice as large as it was twenty years ago, and that the introduction of the elective system has broken up the solidarity of the class, as it used to exist, men being grouped now, not by the proscrustean associations of that time-honored institution, but by those of their chosen studies and tastes and friendships. Not much is said in the article about studies, the writer evidently entertaining a little of the old feeling that if a man studies at college, the less he says about it the better. There is plenty of evidence in the article that the moral atmosphere of undergraduate life is not very different from what it used to be in the remote preëlective days. The spirit of Harvard, we learn, still "makes for veracity, for a high sense of honor, and for good manners"—and it cannot make for better things, though the graduate with gray hairs may hardly be able to restrain a smile as he remembers that he too, in his youth, forgot during most of his college career that it ought to have made also for a zeal for learning. A companion article, without illustrations, on "Harvard College in the Seventies," by Robert Grant, confirms many of the impressions made by Mr. Martin. It has more literary value, and the literary skill with which Mr. Grant manages to give the effect of remoteness in time to what happened twenty-odd years ago is very noticeable. The minatory letter from a sophomore to a freshman ending "Sic semper stultibus" is what would be called in French an historical undergraduate "document."

—The most novel and original illustrated articles in the *Century* are on kite-flying, by J. B. Millet and Hugh D. Wise, U. S. A., and photographing from kites by William A. Eddy. Kite-flying, like everything else, has become scientific, and one may, after gazing at the queer machines which are now often seen floating in mid-air above New York, find solid satisfaction in learning from these pages that the adult kite-flyer is becoming an expert investigator into the internal movements of air currents, a thorough knowledge of which is to-day the basis for the future art of aerial locomotion. The war-tap in the magazines begins to run rather dry. The "Chapter of Secret History," by Gen. Schofield, relating to the withdrawal of the French from Mexico, contains an amusing story of Seward, whose instructions to Gen. Schofield were, "I want you to get your legs under Napoleon's mahogany, and tell him he must get out of Mexico."

—*Harper's* principal illustrated articles are John Corbin's "Two Undescribed Portraits of Shakespeare," which contains matter for both illumination and contention; Poultney Bigelow's seventh instalment of "White Man's Africa," with some naïve African folk-lore; and Dr. Henry Smith Williams's "Geological Progress of the Century." Mr. George W. Smalley writes about "English Country-House Life" as it appears to a visitor, and tells the story of the Duke of Wellington's guest, who consulted another as to "how much he should give the gamekeeper." He was advised to give him nothing at all. "But do you give nothing?" said the first guest. "Oh, I shall give him a five-pound note. But then, I shall be asked here again, and you never will." Mr. Smalley imparts a good deal of information to American visitors, and his aim is evidently to produce the impression that the English country-house is the home of kindness and hospitality; but he in some degree fails—partly, perhaps, because he has in his mind's eye the raw visitor who knows little of any country save his own, and at home has not had a very effective social start. He is much struck by the fact that the visitor need not expect on the part of the host any great effort at "putting himself out"; and this is no doubt true. The host who carved for you, sat with you, "drew you" on your favorite topics, welcomed you to "Liberty Hall," and sped the parting guest by seeing you half-way home, is as extinct as the dodo. The English host nowadays best reflects the new, as he once best reflected the antique, method.

—The rôle of the librarians in this country as critics of literature and arbiters of literary reputation is growingly apparent. 'Poole's Index to Periodical Literature' is of necessity selective, and the selection from each periodical embraced in the Index appertains to the particular librarian or library assistant specially charged with the care of that periodical. In most cases the name of the author is ascertained and appended to the title, and so the aristocracy of current letters is called into being. Writers in this way come to be known for their range of subjects and interests; their weight is suggested by frequency of titles; editors and publishers will naturally apply to them for further work in their lines; the youth who resort in great numbers to the Index for aid in debate, will look up to them as authorities. Not satisfied with this control at once of fame and of research, the associated librarians got up a list of works recommendable for a library of five thousand volumes, and available also for any one building up a private library or for the casual purchaser. They now undertake an annual estimate of the year's literary product in the shape of books, assigned in classes to judges among themselves. Again, of last year's issue, 489 were culled out as "leading" by Mr. Melvil Dewey, the well-known Director of the Public Libraries Division of the University of the State of New York, and "submitted to the librarians of the State and others to obtain an expression of opinion respecting the best fifty books . . . to be added to a village library." The result has just been printed at Albany, and as the 300 books named which fell short are recorded along with the fifty which led off, a pretty generous advertisement is given to a considerable number of authors, both old and new.

—It is obvious that the object of the selection, to suit a village library, militated against pure criticism. Lecky, Froude, Grove, Rae, Hamerton, Mahaffy, Lubbock, Bonney, Sully, Pater, Hugo, Sinckiewicz, Maspero, are well-known foreign authors left "outside the breastworks," while the same fate overtook Marcou ('Life of Agassiz'), McMaster ('With the Fathers'), Francke ('Social Forces in German Literature'), A. L. Lowell ('Governments and Parties in Continental Europe'), Putnam ('Books and their Makers during the Middle Ages'), Mrs. Navarro ('A Few Memories'), Sturgis ('European Architecture'), C. W. Whitney ('On Snow-Shoes to the Barren Grounds'), Hosmer ('Thomas Hutchinson'), Shinn ('Story of the Mine'), Channing and Hart ('Guide to the Study of American History')—to mention but a part of the American works which any village library might rejoice to have, and which are not too expensive to be thought of. Equally significant is it that in fiction the popular idols of the hour—Barrie, Crockett, Kipling, and Watson—crowd out those of yesterday: Besant, Black, Crawford, Howells, James, Phelps-Ward, Wilkins, etc. It is also clear that preference was given to works relating to current political and social topics, as, Armenia, Nicaragua Canal, Transvaal, strikes, to popular science, education, domestic arts, bicycling, etc. For this reason, again, the collection could not embrace the intrinsically best or permanently important; and *the* fifty may be likened to the envied forty of the French Academy in being a company of which it is no discredit not to be a member.

—Vol xxiv., and the last but one, of the present series of B. F. Stevens's 'Facsimiles of Manuscripts relating to America, 1773-1783' (London), does not require, owing to the homogeneity of its contents, so extended a notice as we have usually accorded to preceding issues of this admirable undertaking. Most of the papers herein contained are addressed to Lord Dartmouth, and upon them Mr. Stevens has discoursed helpfully in his preface to the Dartmouth manuscripts recently published in the Fourteenth Report, Appendix, Part 10, of the Historical Manuscripts Commission. A letter from Dartmouth to Thomas Cushing—the only one by him in this volume—confirms the opinion that Dartmouth was an "amiable, pious man," and, as a statesman, more honorable than astute. He will be remembered, if remembered at all, as the friend of the Countess of Huntingdon and her thought-of successor, rather than as Secretary of American

Affairs and Lord of the Privy Seal. Most of the letters are from Richard Oswald, Ambrose Serle, and Joseph Galloway. Serle wrote with accuracy and candor, while Galloway seems to have had a faculty for believing what he wished to believe, and, though zealous, must often have been misleading in his copious information. Mr. Stevens has pointed out elsewhere that the person to whom was written the unaddressed letter by Thomas Jefferson, dated August 25, 1775 (No. 2038), was John Randolph. The first document (No. 2024) is the famous "Little Red Book," or "Account of Money issued for His Majesty's Secret and Special Service," from 1769 to 1782. Here we may learn that more than £360,000 was paid out from 1775 to 1783 to "American Officers and Others who have suffered on Account of their Attachment to his Majesty's Government," the "others" possessing the main interest for us. To this American fund it was good policy to subscribe on the part of those who wished the King's favor. Few documents in the whole collection have so vital an interest as this "Little Red Book"; but how happens it that this and other documents of a public nature remain in private hands and not among the Archives of Great Britain?

THE STORY OF THE BALKANS.

The Story of the Balkans: Roumania, Bulgaria, Servia, and Montenegro. By William Miller. [Story of the Nations Series.] G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1896.

WHEN the forces of Sultan Orkhan first obtained a foothold on the European side of the Dardanelles, in the middle of the fourteenth century, Servia was at the zenith of her power under her able Czar, Stephen Dushan. He was master of Bosnia, Albania, and Thessaly, and aspired to the dominion of the Balkan peninsula. Seven centuries had elapsed since the warlike Serbs had settled in the region of the Save. The Bulgarians had been established for about an equal period in the Balkan country. They had early become amalgamated with the Slavs, whom they had subdued, and had laid aside their Turanian speech for a Slavic tongue. Conquered by the Greeks of Constantinople early in the eleventh century, they had emancipated themselves before the close of the twelfth and founded a new kingdom. Beyond the Danube, in the region which had been the prey of the Petchenegs and Kumans, two Romanic principalities had recently arisen, Wallachia and Moldavia. Greece was partitioned among petty Latin Powers, and the Empire of Constantinople had been reduced to less than what the Turks possess of the Balkan Peninsula at the present day. The untimely death of Stephen Dushan paved the way to Ottoman invasion. Adrianople fell in 1361 and became the capital of the Sultans. The victory of Amurath at Kossovo in 1389 crushed the power of Servia, and revealed the nature of the foe with which southeastern Europe had henceforth to cope. Bulgaria was speedily conquered by Bajazet, and the prince of Wallachia became his vassal. The fall of Constantinople was followed by the incorporation of Servia, Bosnia, and Greece with the Ottoman Empire. Albania, after holding out desperately under Scanderbeg, succumbed after the death of that hero. Moldavia, at first successful in her resistance, was soon forced to acknowledge the overlordship of the Sultan. Only Montenegro, the little fragment that was left from the wreck of the Servian kingdom, could not be effectually subdued in her mountain fastnesses. Hungarian heroism availed to check the onward tide only as long as John Hunyadi and Matthias Corvinus lived. The victory of Solyman at Mohács in 1526 broke up the Magyar realm, and the crescent was planted on the walls of Buda.

After the disaster at Lepanto in 1571, the power of Turkey steadily declined, but for more than a century she retained firm hold of her conquests, to which in 1669 she still was able to add the island of Crete. With the defeat before Vienna in 1683 began the dissolution of the Turkish realm. Austria, Poland, Venice, and Russia undertook to batter down the mighty edifice reared by the Mohammeds and Solymans. In 1791 Austria closed her accounts with the Porte and left to Russia the rôle of dismemberer of the Ottoman Empire. The rising of the Serbs under Kara George in 1804 inaugurated a new phase in the process of dissolution.

In the volume before us, Mr. Miller presents the history of three peoples on whom the Turkish yoke formerly rested, and of a fourth whose career has been that of a tiny state successfully struggling through long ages to keep itself above the tide which engulfed its more powerful neighbors. The annals of these four peoples may truly be said to be inscribed in blood. We think it a pity that Mr. Miller did not see fit to round off his task by the addition of a chapter or two on Albania and Bosnia; but, as it stands, the work is a most valuable accession to the "Story of the Nations," and fills a broad gap in English historical literature. It is about equally divided between the four countries whose history is told. The author carries us back to the times of the ancient Greeks and Romans, and traces in skilful outlines the revolutions which have resulted in the modern mosaic of the Balkan Peninsula. With regard to the origin of that newest of European nations, the Rumans, or Wallachs, Mr. Miller is not willing to accept the theory, advanced in recent times, according to which Dacia was altogether deromanized by the successive occupations of barbarous peoples, the Romanic element being subsequently restored by the influx of a rustic folk who had been dwelling south of the Danube and had preserved a corrupt Latin speech. The emergence of this great Romanic island on the ethnographic map of Europe remains a most interesting riddle. The beginnings of the Ruman principalities in the thirteenth century are shadowy enough, and yet as early as 1475 we find Stephen the Great of Moldavia bidding defiance to the conqueror of Constantinople. The Rumans, who are a prolific race of peasants, at present number nine or ten millions, of whom only about one-half dwell within the limits of Rumania, the bulk of the remainder inhabiting Transylvania, Bukowina, and Bessarabia.

A peculiar feature of Ottoman domination has been the small extent to which the conquerors settled in the countries which they subdued. The Turk, true to his Asiatic origin, has evinced little desire to stray far from the sight of the Black Sea and the Dardanelles. A century and a half of Ottoman sway in Hungary hardly left a vestige behind it, and the Sultan permitted his Ruman vassals to close their gates against his Mohammedan subjects. The Turkish conquest of the Balkan Peninsula nowhere meant the uprooting of the conquered inhabitants from the soil. Nor was forcible conversion to Islam part of the policy of oppression practised. Numbers of Bulgarians and Bosniaks, however, were induced by the prospect of bettering their condition to embrace Mohammedanism, and the bulk of the Albanians became Moslems. Mr. Miller deals with Turkish misrule, the misrule which has especially marked the decline of Ottoman power, in no stinted terms of denunciation. A brilliant exception among provincial governors was Midhat Pasha, whose administration of Bulgaria from 1864 to 1867 is awarded an eloquent eulogy. Russia does not receive very gentle treatment at the impartial hands of our author, who vividly portrays the insidious and grasping part she has played in connection with the Bulgaria which she has freed. He expresses unbounded admiration for the heroic qualities of Alexander of Battenberg, "one of the most romantic figures in the history of our time," but admits that he was "lamentably deficient in the arts of a statesman." Of Prince Nicholas of Montenegro, with whom Mr. Miller would appear to be on terms of personal friendship, and whose portrait is the frontispiece to the volume, he says: "Whoever would see benevolent despotism in full working order had better go to Montenegro."

"It has truly been said," continues Mr. Miller, "that the Montenegrin is the exact opposite of the Bulgarian. Put both in a drawing-room, and the Montenegrin, who has never bowed his neck to a foreign master, will look and behave like a gentleman, while the Bulgarian, but lately set free from the Turkish bondage, will look and behave like a boor. But put the two upon a waste plot of ground, and the Bulgarian will convert it into a garden of roses, while the Montenegrin will look on."

The disruption of the Turkish realm in Europe has not brought Russia closer to Constantinople than she was at the beginning of the century. Her frontiers are still where they were in 1812, when her boundaries were advanced to the River Pruth. Nor has she obtained a hold on the affections of the peoples who owe their liberation more or less to her efforts. She alienated the Rumanians, whose gallantry before Plevna deserved a better reward, by forcing them to an exchange of territory which was galling to their national pride. Bulgaria, after the infamous treatment which she received at the hands of her Muscovite guardian, has barely been won over to a state of cold allegiance. The Greeks have every reason to dread Russia as a barrier to the realization of their dream of a new Byzantine Empire. But when the time for action arrives, Russia will have means at her command wherewith to attach the states of Greek Christendom, Greece perhaps excepted, to her banner. It is only at the hands of Russia that Rumania can hope to receive the investiture of that extensive domain, peopled mainly by Wallachs, which constitutes the southeastern part of Austria-Hungary. To the Servians Russia can hold forth the vision of a greater Servia, to embrace Bosnia and Croatia-Slavonia, as the price of her coöperation in a grand onslaught upon the Austro-Hungarian monarchy. She can bribe the Bulgarians by offering to revive the greater Bulgaria of San Stefano. Montenegro is bound to her by the strongest ties of gratitude. Austria-

Hungary is not in a position to bid against Russia. She may hand Bosnia over to Servia, to which that region naturally belongs, but this is much less than Russia can offer, and a greater Servia on her borders is a menace to Hungary, whose Croat subjects, of the same blood as the Serbs, would fret still more than they have done in the past under Magyar domination. To Rumania Austria can offer nothing unless it be the evanescent prospect of recovering Bessarabia in the event of the repetition of Russia's discomfiture in the Crimean war. With regard to Bulgaria, she could perhaps hold forth inducements equal to Russia's in order to gain her over, and a stronger Bulgaria would in fact be a support to the Hapsburg throne, involving as it would a weaker Servia by reason of the enmity between Serbs and Bulgarians. Not one of the Balkan countries is naturally drawn towards Austria; to Russia they are all bound by the ties of a common church. But it is Russian Panslavism, and not the danger of Hapsburg aggression, that rests as a cloud upon the future of the Balkan region.

The recent history of the Balkan Peninsula is presented by Mr. Miller in a very spirited and effective manner. He confines himself strictly to narrative, and refrains from discussing the present situation with reference to the possibilities of the near future. In his preface he emphasizes the benefits that would result from a Balkan confederation as a safeguard of peace. In dealing with mediæval history the author occasionally shows a pardonable lack of close familiarity with the shifting scenes on the margin of his panorama. Thus, considerably more is known of the Patzinakitai (Petchenegs) than the reader would infer from the statement on page 31, this Turanian people figuring rather conspicuously in early Russian annals. Mr. Miller's style is animated and vigorous throughout, but now and then lapses into a somewhat journalistic vein. The defective orthography of foreign names is a decided blemish on these attractive pages. We find, for example, Marica, Tirgovischtea, Mirtschea, Kesckho, Garashanine, and other unpardonable spellings, in many cases representing German transliteration. On the map of the Balkan States such memorable battlefields as the Shipka Pass and Slivnitza should not be conspicuous by their absence. The illustrations are neither numerous nor striking, and the small maps inserted in the text are decidedly poor.

INSTINCT.

Habit and Instinct. By C. Lloyd Morgan, F.G.S. London and New York: Edward Arnold. 1896. Pp. 351.

Die Spiele der Thiere. Von Karl Groos. Jena: Fischer. 1896. Pp. xvi, 359.

PROF. MORGAN'S 'Habit and Instinct' adds another to his series of works, now three in number, dealing with comparative psychology. The reader is impressed anew with the prime quality which he has learned to expect in this author's writing: great lucidity, secured at once by a simple style, long reflection, and a certain persistence in making his point tell. Combined with this is a balance and caution which invites the reader's confidence, and leaves the impression that the writer, even in the theoretical parts of his subject, can always be trusted. At the same time we find that the work goes over many of the same topics as the earlier books, repeats some of the same instances, even repeats itself more than is necessary, and, while the net gain is great—the book is one of the most important in the recent literature of the problem of instinct—yet both the observations and the discussions could have been put into much less space at half the price. The volume will tend in some degree to supersede the one on 'Animal Life and Intelligence,' since the author has now reached points of view on the most important subjects, such as the relation of instinct and intelligence, the inheritance of acquired characters, imitation, etc., which render it impossible for workers to quote the earlier work as representing Prof. Morgan's entire views.

As to the essential teachings of the present book, we have space to give only their most important bearings in connection with recent discussion. Among recent publications on this side of the water Prof. Morgan makes use of the observations of Prof. Wesley Mills of Montreal on the instincts and habits of young animals, and the experiments and conclusions of Prof. Mark Baldwin of Princeton reported in his work on 'Mental Development in the Child.' It will be remembered that Prof. Morgan, in a course of Lowell lectures in Boston last year, dwelt on the results of detailed experiments carried out by him with young birds, artificially hatched and reared under constant observation. The early chapters in 'Habit and Instinct' contain these experiments carried still further. The substantial result is in agreement with those of Mills, and goes to show that many of the actions of young fowl which have been considered quite instinctive—as the experiments of Spalding and others seemed to show—are really a mixture of congenital tendency and acquired habit. Some of these activities are of vital importance, such as drinking, fleeing from constant enemies (as the hawk), appreciating and acting upon exact spacial relationships, etc. Such results, found also in the examination of trustworthy reports of animals, as those of Hudson in the 'Naturalist in La Plata,' lead Prof. Morgan to his most important conclusions. Briefly stated, they are somewhat like this:

First, this imperfection of instinct, even in things vital to the organism, emphasizes the intelligent and imitative learning processes of young animals. These learning processes keep them alive by supplementing their congenital activities and structural capacities. This conclusion gives new importance to the psychological side. Second, the further question arises as to the sort of things which young animals learn and how they come to learn them. Upon this, again, observations throw light. The fact appears that there are certain relatively constant functions and activities handed down from generation to generation in animal families and communities, as has been theoretically insisted on by Wallace, and recently confirmed by the observations of Hudson, under the term "tradition," and Baldwin, who calls the individual's learning of tradition "social heredity." And, third, the question of the method of organic evolution has some light shed upon it, in Prof. Morgan's opinion, by the relation between these learning processes of the animals and natural selection. Prof. Morgan here develops (chap. xiv.) a suggestion which has also been put forth, as Morgan points out, by Prof. Baldwin, and independently reached by Prof. H. F. Osborn of Columbia University, namely, that by learning intelligently and imitatively to do things which are essential, certain animals are screened from the operation of natural selection, and so hand on their capacities to future generations, while the race accumulates further congenital variations in the same directions (what Morgan calls "coincident variations"). Thus evolution takes the direction marked out in the first instance by the individual's learning. All these writers agree that this suggestion neutralizes in great measure the current arguments for the inheritance of acquired characters, since if evolution is directed in any case in the channels of the acquired characters in the way suggested, it becomes unnecessary to suppose, in the absence of evidence in favor of it, that the same characters are also directly inherited. It may be noted that among others Mr. A. R. Wallace, in a recent review of this book in the journal *Natural Science*, welcomes this suggestion.

Possibly our readers will be most interested in certain positions regarding "Human Evolution" which Prof. Morgan reaches (in chap. xv.) on the basis of the observations and conclusions already briefly set forth. He seems well justified in drawing them in view of the foundation laid in his other chapters. His main contention is that, even in the animal world, the method of learning by the individual—*i. e.*, imitation, association, profiting by experiences of pleasure and pain—is essentially different, and the progress which is secured through it is essentially different, from natural selection and the progress secured through it. In the former, consciousness becomes "efficient," at least in a sense. It is not clear to us just how much this means from a philosophical point of view—this "efficiency" of consciousness, in the mind of Prof. Morgan; but it is yet clear that in the case of man, where social heredity comes to replace physical heredity as the means of handing on the mass of tradition and race acquisition, consciousness, whatever it is able to do, has the field largely to itself. In human evolution, therefore, we are not under the law of natural selection alone, operating upon fortuitous variations. We are rather under the law of conscious selection accumulating and progressing through social and intelligent handing down. Natural selection weeds out the worst on a large scale; conscious selection picks out the best individuals, the best actions, arrangements, beliefs, etc. This is the way the author and some of those whom he quotes would reconstruct the relation of biology to social evolution; and the position seems to be fruitful enough.

Readers at all versed in recent biological discussion may remember the sort of fatalistic results which the new neo-Darwinian theories of human evolution were supposed to bring. If the discipline and the dissipation of parents have little or no effect upon their children, we are asked, where is the place of social reform and the motive to individual training? The answer to this comes through the line of teachings brought together in this book. The individual is not born with a physical heritage made better or worse by his father, but into a social heritage which takes its character from the set of conditions which the father also lived in and contributed to. We all make these conditions better or worse, and we

all profit by them for better or for worse, in a new and truer sense. The individual is redeemed from the capricious and accidental effects of single lives lived for good or ill, but he inherits socially the larger influences which make the social environment what it is, and which represent a continuous social movement.

We cannot dwell upon the special question which Prof. Morgan discusses with his usual clearness and force—such as the relation of instinct to acquired habit, the function of sexual selection, the details of the specific habits of mammals and birds. These discussions may, however, be brought to the attention of both biologists and psychologists. In conclusion, we may notice emphatically the contrast between this book and the work of those recent writers who deal with the same large questions of heredity, degeneracy, race-progress, etc., having only scented biology from afar and having learned their anthropology from Lombroso and Nordau.

Groos's 'Die Spiele der Thiere' goes well with the work just spoken of. The author sets himself to examine the plays of animals, collecting all the facts hitherto reported, and interpreting them in a general theory of play, and its function in the economy of animal and mental life. He reaches an instinct theory of play as against its traditional opposite—the "surplus energy" theory held for so long by Mr. Spencer and his followers. Herr Groos shows himself a competent critic, and, moreover, an able constructive thinker. He finds that the plays of animals are a necessary preparation for their strenuous life. Play exercises their capacities of both mind and body, while they are immature and when failure does not bring fatal consequences, and so gives the practice and aids the development which are essential for adult life. On this basis the literature of animal life is ransacked; cases of play and pseudo-play are brought together, all with a very high fertility of resource and ability of interpretation.

Prof. Groos also signalizes, as Prof. Morgan does, the learning processes of young animals, and the imperfection of instincts. He likewise lays great stress on imitation, finding that imitation acts to enable the animal to dispense with fixed complete instincts, and so allows a species to acquire the generalized ways of action in which intelligence predominates. His foundation as regards heredity is similar, also, in that he discards use-inheritance utterly, thinking that play both results from and carries on the operation of natural selection, which is sufficient. He does not take over his conclusions into human life, however, reserving all that for another volume, to be called 'Die Spiele der Menschen,' which will be expected with interest.

Prof. Groos, finally, makes interesting applications of his theory of the psychology of play to æsthetics. The essence of play-consciousness in animals is a sense of self-illusion or of conscious *Schein*. This is also the root of conscious æsthetic experience, as he says in agreement with Hartmann. So, in the animal plays we have the lower stages of æsthetic consciousness present. Interesting cases are found in the male's show of bright color to the female bird, and in the charm which the male fowl exercises through his evolutions in the presence of his mate, etc. We cannot follow this in detail, but the reader will find it only one of the many suggestive and fruitful positions taken up by the author in a book which should be read by all who are interested in the larger problems of the evolution of instinct.

History and Criticism. By H. Schütz Wilson. London: T. Fisher Unwin. 1896.

ONE'S first impression on opening these essays is that Mr. Wilson's taste is in part gruesome, in part bizarre. When the Conciergerie and Bianca Capello are followed up by "Wallenstein" and the second part of "Faust," one begins to shake off sloth and to prepare for an exciting time. If circumstantial detail, together with an unlimited supply of strong adjectives, can make the reader "creep," he will not be disappointed. Bulwer Lytton's 'House and the Brain' palls beside the gore which is shed more freely than ink in these pages.

Mr. Wilson writes history and criticism from the standpoint of the *Quarterly Review*, to which we gather from a prefatory note, he is a contributor. The 'Annual Register' for 1793-94 discusses the events of the Terror with the same animus, though with a less copious vocabulary. We can best show how earnest our author is by quoting a few of his phrases. Of Robespierre: "We admit a feeling of exultation as we stood in the dreary little cell in which the inhuman and incarnadined fiend was left to face the prospect of that horrid death which he had inflicted on so many thousands." Of the Queen: "After she had been dethroned, Marie Antoinette became most truly queenly. . . . She was thirty-eight when she was done to death. . . . She had been sublimed and rapt to truest heroism." Of her trial: "Only two painters are good enough for such a theme and such a picture, and they are Millais or the imagination." Of Égalité: "That purple pustule on the cheek of royalty." Marie Antoinette is troubled by "haggard dreads," just as Bianca Capello a little later on is troubled by "a haggard horror." In short, Mr. Wilson seeks to adapt his language to the occasion. When he is dealing with Danton, Robespierre, and Marat he has no trouble in making "the punishment fit the crime."

While his essay on the Conciergerie is occupied with a specific recital of ghastly deeds, the comparison of Carlyle and Taine gives our author an opportunity to arraign the Revolution on more general grounds. Taine's contempt for the chief personages of the National Convention is heartily reëchoed, and Carlyle is scored for neglecting to denounce the atrocities with vehemence. Mr. Wilson evidently admires the Scotchman's "great warm heart," but will not stay his pen on that account. Some mitigation of the offence is found in comparative ignorance, and some in preconceived theories; still, Carlyle's "passionate picturesqueness, his graphic grip, and his most fervent emphasis" are found wanting when brought to the touchstone of the "truest philosophy." To "the vivid and masterly picture painted by M. Taine . . . of that inhuman Revolution" the palm is awarded. We shall be at no pains to exalt Carlyle or to decry Taine, and we would praise Mr. Wilson for his careful examination of their books. At the same time, we think that in making strictures on Carlyle he has overlooked one of the gravest artistic charges that can be brought against him. He obtrudes himself between the reader and the subject in a gratuitous way. The French Revolution is a movement so colossal, so titanic, that one does not wish to see even a Chelsea philosopher in the foreground. The future historian (for Taine, with all his learning, stops short of exhausting the subject) will do well to keep himself sedulously in the background, and to create the impression that destiny is marshalling events. How can any one man's symmetrical theories pretend to estimate and account for the proportions of good and evil involved? Here, too, as in the case of pure criticism, it is one's business to "keep out of the way and let humanity decide." We certainly cannot allow that Mr. Wilson has got to the root of the matter when he sums up in the following strain:

> "The great distinguishing feature of the Revolution is that it plucked the muzzle from all restraint; that it enfranchised all vanity and vice; that it would, but for that revulsion of outraged humanity which sickened at last of the sorry spectacle of rivers of innocent blood, have ruined France. The latest and ripest fruit of the French Revolution is, perhaps, the godless anarchist and bomb-thrower of the distracted hour in which I now write."

We are somewhat amused to note that though Mr. Wilson is unwilling to admit local conditions in extenuation of Danton's share in the September massacres, he is ready to view Bianca Capello in the light of the late Renascence. "Bianca was a product and a portent of her land, her Church, her day; and we must judge her always with reference to the Italy of the 16th century. It became a question whether Ferdinando should kill Bianca, or Bianca kill Ferdinando." If one takes up with the "product" theory, he should nail his colors to the mast and be consistent throughout. A graver complaint is that Mr. Wilson accepts without question the tittle-tattle of Florence about Cosimo I. and his sons. We should gather from his statements that Garzia beyond doubt murdered his brother Giovanni. "The slayer of his brother went to his father to plead for pardon, but Cosimo, in the very presence of the youth's mother, Eleonora di Toledo, stabbed Don Garzia to death; and the Duchess, the miserable witness of this second crime, died of grief." The fact is that this whole story is probably a piece of moonshine. Symonds, no lenient critic of the age, repudiates it unhesitatingly: "There is little doubt that all three deaths were natural; and Cellini's interrupted account of the occurrences very materially confirms this view." It is only fair to the public that an author should indicate in such disputed cases the nature of his sources. Mr. Wilson's antithetical conclusion will not save him from censure if he despises the essentials of sound historical writing: "Fair and yet foul, lovely and yet repellent, is the picture which we ultimately paint in our imaginations of the beautiful and winning, if tempted and wicked, Bianca Capello."

Besides the essays already mentioned, this volume includes articles on Calderon and Goethe, and on Goethe and Carlyle. We have several little items against the printer—for instance, "Courthon" for Couthon. "Marsiellaise" for Marseillaise, and "Merlin, De Thionville." "Goethe and Garlyle" is a headline which is sure to catch the eye of every one except the proof-reader. When Mr. Wilson calls Mme. Roland the Egeria

of the Girondins, should he not put the phrase in quotation marks? He places the number of the September executioners at 300; the official number is 173. A worse slip is the naïve acceptance of Lamartine's story of the Girondists' "Last Supper." In short, this book bears evidence of some reading and of some literary aptitude, marred by turgid language, absence of the sifting process, and a slight lack of balance. Its component essays were in their day good average magazine articles. When arranged in book form under the title 'History and Criticism,' they show off to less advantage. Had Mr. Wilson selected a modest caption, he would not have appeared so distinctly over-parted.

The Mount: Narrative of a Visit to the Site of a Gaulish City on Mont Beuvray, with a Description of the Neighboring City of Autun. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston: Roberts Bros. 1897.

THREE-QUARTERS of this little book is devoted to an interesting mountain called Mont Beuvray, or Le Beuvray, which is a few miles west of Autun. This mountain rises twenty-five hundred feet above the sea and more than two thousand feet above the plain of Autun, and yet, upon the summit and the sloping sides near the top, there exist the remains of a fortified town four miles or more in circuit, and well filled with the vestiges of small hut-like dwellings of pre-Roman Gauls. For twenty-five years explorations have been carried on, slowly and systematically, under the direction of an antiquarian whose name is given in full in Joanne's Guide and Napoleon's 'History of Cæsar.' This gentleman, Mr. Bulliot, is the hero of Mr. Hamerton's tale, in which he appears as The Antiquary, though his name is mentioned when the story is half told. The account of the dwellings, half-subterranean and with but little provision for light and air, and of the work-shops in which were wrought the admired Gaulish enamelling and bronze work, of which specimens begun, half completed and wholly completed were found, is interesting, though much too slight and too brief. The general character of the great ramparts is also well explained—their vast size, their position, now lost among the trees which have grown upon their sloping sides, but cannot grow where a hard road forms the uppermost surface, and their condition of grassy slopes where the forest is not. A very curious error, however, marks the detailed description. The recognized manner of construction of the Gaulish walls is well known from Cæsar's 'Commentaries' (Book VII. of the Gallic War, chap. xxiii.). This description has been entirely confirmed by the diggings at Mont Beuvray, at Bourges, and elsewhere. A book not more uncommon than Napoleon's 'Julius Cæsar' gives a quite accurate plate of the system in connection with the defences of Avaricum. Mr. Hamerton, referring to these authorities, has yet misunderstood completely how the timbers were placed. He thinks there was an extensive system of vertical posts, and a glance at the plate in Napoleon's book shows how he made the error: he simply took the ground plan for an elevation, and supposed the construction to be that of a scaffolding of uprights and horizontals.

This town on Mont Beuvray was probably the Bibracte which Cæsar calls much the largest and richest *oppidum* of the Ædui. The neighboring city of Autun, which is known to have been the Roman Augustodunum, is thought by many to have been Bibracte; but we quite agree with Mr. Bulliot and his imperial patron and pupil, and with his more recent pupil, Hamerton, in finding Bibracte in the newly discovered hill fortress. The mountain is a fascinating place, covered in part with a noble forest, and having detached chestnut trees of great beauty near the top. A score of splendid springs of pure water are found on it. It is ascended by many ancient Gaulish roads, and near one of these, and close to the summit, Mr. Bulliot has his mountain encampment, where Mr. Hamerton often visited him. The natural beauties of the mountain, the superb views from the summit, and the romantic beauty of the site itself, are all delightfully treated.

The second part of the book, only sixty pages long, is devoted to a description of the ancient city of Autun, its churches and more ancient remains, as well as its present appearance. There are few cities so rich in architectural antiquities, and these few pages, small and in large print, afford but little opportunity for analysis or even description. The essay is, however, most attractive, and capable of serving as a partial introduction to the study of the artistic side of architecture.

The Physiocrats: Six Lectures on the French *Économistes* of the 18th Century. By Henry Higgs. Macmillan Co. 1897. Pp. x. 158.

THE development of economic thought has suffered much from the faulty exposition of important principles. Ricardo has received his commonest interpretation in the dicta of McCulloch; Malthus has found his largest clientèle through the pages of J. S. Mill, and Quesnay has been most often refuted by readers of 'The Wealth of Nations.' In the last ten years, partial correction has come in the extraordinary growth of interest in and study of the history of economic theories and systems. Thus, a striking phase of current economic discussion is the so-called "rehabilitation of Ricardo." Dr. Bonar has placed within reach a masterly interpretation of Malthusianism, and the careful investigations of a group of distinguished European scholars have made clear the real significance of the doctrines of the French economists of the eighteenth century.

The brilliant studies of Oncken and Bauer, of Schelle and Hasbach, in the field last indicated—the doctrines of the physiocratic writers—have brought into prominence the surprising and discreditable absence of any English treatment of this important chapter of economic theory. With a general recognition of strong physiocratic influence upon the beginnings of the science, with the original texts inaccessible to the ordinary student, and with the most superficial treatment in the stock manuals, this long-continued neglect is extraordinary.

Reasonable assurance that an adequate study in English of the Physiocrats is within sight comes in the attractive little volume given us by Mr. Henry Higgs, well known in economic circles as the scholarly editor of Cantillon's *Essai* and as Secretary of the British Economic Association and joint editor of the *Economic Journal*. It contains six lectures delivered before the recently established London School of Economics, in May and June of last year, supplemented by adequate notes and a useful list of authorities. The book is avowedly a mere introductory study, and conforms in method of treatment to the elementary purpose for which it was designed; but the most exacting reader turns the last page with the comforting sense of prospective release, in this particular field, from "the tyranny of unread books," and with the no less absolute conviction that lack of occasion and not of capacity has prevented Mr. Higgs from giving in the present connection a definitive exposition of physiocratic thought and influence.

The genesis of the physiocratic school can be traced with some precision. The wretched economic condition of France under the *ancien régime* evoked the criticism in succession of Boisguillebert, Vauban, Melon, and the fuller exposition of Cantillon. Mirabeau's 'L'Ami des Hommes,' essentially a commentary upon Cantillon's *Essai*, fell into the hands of Quesnay, then Madame de Pompadour's physician at the French court, and led to a meeting of the two men. From this interview in July, 1757, Mr. Higgs dates the school of the Physiocrats.

The growth of the school, the important principles of physiocratic philosophy, and the personality of its chief exponents—Quesnay, Mirabeau, Dupont de Nemours, and Mercier de la Rivière—are characterized in bold, clear outline. John Stuart Mill described the Ricardian theory of rent as the *pons asinorum* of economic science; but a longer retrospect must surely award the distinction to Quesnay's 'Tableau Économique.' Few students who have grappled with the elusive "zig-zag" have failed to derive keen satisfaction from the statement recorded by Francis Horner, himself in despairing pursuit of the clue, as made by Lauderdale, "that he had repeatedly left the study of the 'Tableau Économique' cursing himself for a blockhead." Mr. Higgs's interpretation (pp. 38-39) is simple and intelligible, and divests the chart of its terrors, even to the veriest tyro.

Symmetry in treatment is gained by the consideration in successive chapters of the activities, the opponents, and the influences of the Physiocrats. Here the scholarship, industry, and skill of the author leave little to be desired. Inclusion of Turgot's 'Réflexions' in chapter iv. ('Activities'), rather than in iii. ('Doctrines'), seems an unwise cession of essence to form. Adam Smith is surely to be classed as opposed to as well as influenced by physiocratic thought, and some consideration is demanded of the influence of the school upon American publicists, notably upon Franklin and Jefferson, and upon American political thought, manifest even in the framing of the Constitution.

Mr. Higgs has realized a want in economic literature, felt long and painfully. If he has not entirely filled it, he has given the amplest assurance of his fitness to do so.

The Story of the Pilgrim Fathers, 1606-1623 A.D.; as Told by Themselves, their Friends, and their Enemies. Edited from the Original Texts, by Edward Arber, F.S.A. London: Ward & Downey; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897. Pp. x, 634.

PROF. ARBER is so well known by reason of his republication of tracts by Knox and Udall, and other rare pieces of the Tudor

and Stuart periods; by his 'Introductory Sketch of the Martin Marprelate Controversy'; by his 'English Garner'; and especially by his 'Transcript of the Registers of the Company of Stationers of London,' that it was with decided prepossessions in its favor that we took up the volume under consideration. Nor has this expectation been disappointed. We can, indeed, assent only in a modified degree to the author's assertion that "the Pilgrim Story must, after the appearance of this Volume, assume a somewhat different aspect from that which it has hitherto had." The discovery which seems most to have surprised Prof. Arber, namely, that the Pilgrim church felt an increasing affection for the "Church of their fathers—the persecuting Bishops apart," is certainly not novel to American students of the writings of Robinson; on the other hand, Prof. Arber, probably with much justice, attaches greater weight than have American investigators heretofore to the charges of moral rottenness brought by White and Lawne against the character of several of the leaders of the London-Amsterdam church, to escape from contact with which organization the Pilgrims transferred themselves from Amsterdam to Leyden. But though little really essential to the main outline of the Pilgrim story seems to us to be altered by Prof. Arber's volume, he has brought to light a good many facts of much interest, and his treatment of this well-worked theme throughout is fresh and suggestive. It deserves the author's description as "in one sense . . . a resetting of old material; in another, the production of new facts."

The volume under review, as its title implies, is essentially made up of extracts, drawn necessarily in the main from familiar sources; but Prof. Arber has evidently gleaned the less accessible literature of the Pilgrim movement with equal painstaking, while his own comments are constantly interspersed and give flavor, and largely value, to the work. In opposition to the opinion that has widely obtained by reason of Nathaniel Morton's designation of the year 1602 as the date of the formation of the Pilgrim Church, Prof. Arber holds that the congregations of Scrooby and of Gainsborough originated about 1606, and that each was largely independent of the other. He demonstrates that John Smyth, through whose activity the Gainsborough congregation was organized, was still a minister of the Church of England, being a "lecturer" at Lincoln, as late as March, 1605; and could not, therefore, have reached the full Separatist position, to which he came after nine months of struggle, till after that date. Moreover, the author identifies this erratic Separatist leader with the John Smith who graduated M.A. at Cambridge in 1593; instead of finding in him, as the late Dr. Henry M. Dexter did, the like-named recipient of a similar degree in 1579. It is rather to Clyfton and Brewster that Prof. Arber traces the beginnings of the Pilgrim Church; both men laboring, though in different ways, within the Establishment for years before openly separating from it, and having John Robinson as their associate from about 1604. The author thus epitomizes his conclusions:

"So, going back to the ultimate facts, we say that the Pilgrim Movement originated in the Rectory and Church of Babworth, in Nottinghamshire; and that it was mainly a Nottinghamshire Movement. The West Riding of Yorkshire was not in it; except as Austerfield was the home of Governor W. Bradford: but he, during the period now under review, was merely a child growing to youthhood. Lincolnshire, through the Congregation at Gainsborough, temporarily furthered the Movement during the years 1606-1608; but this was merely an accidental help, occasioned by the coming to that town of the Rev. John Smyth. In the main, Nottinghamshire men founded the Pilgrim Church."

Contrary to the usually received opinion, moreover, Prof. Arber gives strong reasons for believing that Smyth and his Gainsborough congregation, instead of emigrating to Amsterdam in 1606, did not greatly, if at all, precede the Scrooby emigration thither. As late as November, 1607, Smyth and his flock seem still to have been at Gainsborough. The time limits within which the Pilgrim exodus Hollandward must fall, the author places at October, 1607, and August, 1608.

But probably the portion of Prof. Arber's volume to which the reader already somewhat familiar with the Pilgrim story will most readily turn, is his account of the activities of what he aptly calls the "Pilgrim press" at Leyden, and of the troubles which its publication, for circulation in England, of books unlicensed in that kingdom brought to the "sleeping partner" in the enterprise, Thomas Brewer, and would have brought to the "working partner," Elder William Brewster, had he not succeeded in hiding from the officials and employees of the English Government. "For more than a year before he left Delfshaven," Brewster "was a hunted man"; and the letters exchanged between Sir Dudley Carleton, English Ambassador to Holland, and Sir Robert Naunton, the English Secretary of State, which the author reprints to the number of twenty-nine, show how eagerly this pursuit was followed. Prof. Arber is able to present a list of fifteen volumes, most of them such as could not have been printed in England, which may justly be regarded as the product of this press between October, 1616, and June, 1619.

Characteristic of the author's suggestive comments is his observation regarding Bradford's statement that the *Speedwell* was "bought and fitted in Holland":

"Now it was those members of the Leyden Church who were responsible for this *fitting* of the *Speedwell*, that were the proximate causes of most of the troubles on the voyage out, and of many of the deaths at Plymouth in New England, in the course of the following Spring. For they *overmasted* the vessel, and, by so doing, strained her hull while sailing. Then that cunning rascal, Captain Reynolds, finding this out, all that he had to do was to clap on all possible sail, and so to make the hull, as Robert Cushman tells us it was, '[as] leaky as a sieve.' For this fatuous and supreme error of judgment in business matters, and all that came of it, the Leyden Church *alone* were responsible. No one in England had anything to do with it."

A valuable and novel document presented by the author is the statement of claims growing out of the robbery by the French of the *Fortune*, in January, 1622, on her return voyage from Plymouth, and of the loss thereby, among other things of value, of a "letter written by [William Bradford] the Governor of our Colony in New England, containing a general relation of all matters there." The author intimates that a second volume, tracing the fortunes of the Pilgrims in a similar manner to 1628 or 1630, is projected. We trust that he may be able to carry out his purpose.

Municipal Problems. By Frank J. Goodnow. New York: Published for the Columbia University Press by the Macmillan Co. 1897.

THIS book gives evidence of much thought as well as scholarship, and it deserves the attention of those interested in the government of our cities. Prof. Goodnow has already pointed out some of the most objectionable features of the systems prevalent in this country, and he here restates his position more at length, and with some constructive suggestions. His fundamental objection to the American method of municipal government is that it results in the city's being governed by the State Legislature. The bad results of this arrangement are so notorious in the case of New York city as to need only an allusion. In Prof. Goodnow's opinion they are bad everywhere. For in his view—and his book is but a development of this view—a city ought to legislate for itself. The taxing power and the power of appropriating money are legislative in character. There should be deliberation and publicity in determining how money should be raised and how it should be spent, thus giving public opinion a chance to make itself felt. Hence he disapproves of the policy of suppressing city councils and putting their powers in the hands of the Mayor. He urges, with much force, that this policy has resulted in transferring the functions of the city legislature to the State Legislature, and not to the city executive. It has also resulted in the creation of boards of commissioners by the State Legislature which are independent of any municipal authority. Moreover, it proceeds on a theory which Prof. Goodnow dislikes—the theory that the city is a business corporation. He holds it an organ of government, and infers that its members should be those to whom the law of the land gives the ultimate determination of governmental policy. It is primarily an organ for local government, secondarily an agent of State government. Its local concerns should be controlled by a council, its State agency should be regulated by a permanent board of administrative supervision representing the State Government. Its council should content itself with debate and resolution, accepting no emolument, and abstaining from administration. That should be attended to by boards of unpaid members appointed by the Mayor for indefinite terms and removable by him, which should have under their direction permanent subordinates of tried capacity.

This theory is pleasing in appearance, and, under different circumstances from those which prevail in this country, it might be successfully applied. In fact, it is in essentials the theory adopted in England, although the modifications are important. But the objections to it are serious. It ignores the real difficulties in the way of good government, it proceeds on false analogies, and it makes incorrect assumptions. To present these criticisms in detail, we notice, in the first place, that Prof. Goodnow barely alludes to the fact that foreign cities are not governed by universal suffrage. It is this system of government, however, that renders the government of our large cities so difficult, and this fact makes the example of foreign municipalities inapplicable. We must, like Montesquieu, recognize the spirit of laws, and remember that Prussia is a military aristocracy, almost a despotism, and that England is still governed by its aris-

tocracy. The "spoils system" has not arisen under these governments, while it is the most important feature in our politics. With childlike faith, Prof. Goodnow tells us that this evil will not long remain with us, so great has been the growth of the civil-service reform movement. We should be glad to be able to share this confidence, but it is at least premature to construct a system the efficiency of which depends, as Prof. Goodnow acknowledges, on the establishment of the principles of selection of officers for merit and of permanency of tenure in the place of party considerations. To establish these principles would mean deprivation of occupation and of income to the whole tribe of politicians, and it is idle to suppose that they can be displaced without a far more desperate struggle than has yet taken place.

We must take issue, further, with the assertion that the government of a city is not essentially a matter of business. By way of confession and avoidance we may say that even if it is not, a mayor can discharge legislative functions better than a board of aldermen. Prof. Goodnow wholly disregards the fact that these boards have always in this country been inefficient or corrupt, or both. They have been representative bodies only in name. They have represented the spirit of party or the spirit of plunder. They have not represented intelligence; they have borne the name of legislatures, but have not discharged their theoretic functions. To say that their deliberations have been serious discussions of matters of public policy is absurd. They have been influenced by public opinion only when they have been deterred from particularly outrageous measures by angry protests. They are essentially irresponsible to the people, for they are responsible primarily to the party managers who have placed them in office.

The mayor, on the other hand, may be quite as competent for deliberation as a board of aldermen. He is in position to be influenced by the best and most intelligent public opinion. He need not act until he has been informed by public-spirited citizens of what, in their judgment, the general welfare demands. To this public opinion he is responsible, and, being an individual, he cannot escape responsibility. It may be urged that our mayors, when given great powers, as in Brooklyn, have disappointed public expectations. Even if this be conceded, it can hardly be maintained that they have done worse than our common councils. The experiment has not been fairly tried, and in any case it gives reformers a more advantageous position than they can possibly enjoy otherwise. It is easier to compel the nomination of a decent man for mayor than to compel the nomination of a number of decent men for aldermen. The majority must rule in the council; and the desires of a majority of the citizens can be quite as well carried out by a single functionary as by a majority of the board of aldermen.

But, in the true sense, the municipality is a business corporation. Prof. Goodnow maintains that the city is not concerned to make a profit; that, as Mr. Matthews, ex-Mayor of Boston, says, "Municipal corporations are organized not to make money, but to spend it." But the important thing is that they should spend it on business principles, and not wastefully and corruptly, as they are prone to do. The methods of expenditure are the most essential feature. Prof. Goodnow admits this to a certain extent, but he does not recognize its fundamental importance. Not a few municipalities have been bankrupted by bad business management, and this possibility is so serious as to make good business management the first thing to be sought for in municipal reform. If that can be secured, the properly governmental functions will easily be provided. In our view, boards of aldermen have in this country proved themselves unfit for the discharge of these functions, and nothing but disappointment will come from the policy of increasing their powers. They will be chiefly composed of men incapable of taking wise and broad views of municipal development, and interested primarily in partisan and selfish ends. If this be true, and if the State Legislatures retain their present character, it will be impossible to keep the administration of city affairs out of the hands of politicians. We cannot, therefore, accept Prof. Goodnow's theories; but we must thank him for the able and suggestive way in which he has presented them, and we commend his book to the careful consideration of all thoughtful citizens.

Philip and Alexander of Macedon: Two Essays in Biography. By David G. Hogarth, M.A., Fellow of Magdalen College, Oxford. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1897.

THIS work wears a luxurious dress—excellent paper and type, elegant illustrations from coins and medals—and is written in a style flashing with brilliantly colored words. The theme is in itself interesting: Philip the maker of a nation, and Alexander the architect of an empire; but Hogarth has added to it a new interest, and has brought us closer to the personality of these two men than perhaps any other modern writer. He mentions only the telling facts, pursues only the main line of events; and, thus avoiding detail, gives us a remarkably perspicuous narrative of the rise of Philip's kingdom and Alexander's empire. Such a method has its limitations. Though furnishing plenty of footnote citations of sources, the author speaks to the cultivated public rather than to the scholar. He rarely discusses unsettled questions; he meets disagreeable views with the summary judgment of "not proven," though he never seriously attempts to prove his own views. Also, the author follows the too common practice of exalting his own subject by depreciating everything that comes into rivalry with it. Arbela is to him "the most famous fight of antiquity." He shows little intimate acquaintance with the history of the various Greek States outside of Macedon, or of their social, moral, and political condition in the period of which he writes. He is not merely unsafe in his treatment of these, but positively unfair toward Philip's and Alexander's enemies. Philip and Alexander treated Thebes brutally; Hogarth follows their example. His characterization of the Thebans as an invading Eastern race, like the Ottoman Turks, is without scientific support, and his whole tirade against Thebes is what we might expect of a violent partisan of Philip and Alexander. Without adequate knowledge of the condition of Athens in the fourth century, Mr. Hogarth has much to say of Athenian degradation, in justification of Philip's policy toward Athens. This theory of Athenian degradation, to which Hogarth clings, has been successfully assailed by Holm, a calm-tempered historian. The author's view that Philip, in his dealings with Athens, was controlled by a purely sentimental respect for her past glory, is a mere illusion. Philip appreciated Athens's power of resistance, and the importance of her political relations with Greece, more thoroughly than is possible for any one who assumes that at that time her citizens were publicly and privately in the last stage of moral decay.

Especially interesting in the second essay is the author's treatment of the gradual development of Alexander's mind and character under the influence of his Asiatic experiences. But the attempt to justify Alexander's policy of claiming divinity, and demanding worship of Greeks and Asiatics alike, is a failure. It was unwise in Alexander to try to degrade the Greeks to the level of Orientals for the sake of building up a homogeneous empire. As to the place of Philip and Alexander in history, Hogarth has little to say, and that not new. Indeed, the novelty of the work in general is not in its facts and ideas, but rather in its untroubled narrative, its striking phrases, its expressive epithets, and its clear delineation of the great characters of the epoch under treatment.

Travel and Big Game. By Percy Selous and H. A. Bryden. Longmans, Green & Co.

IT is a monotonous fact that the narratives of hunters of large game are mainly records of merciless slaughter. Now and again, however, a sportsman who tells of his adventures in this field, is a valuable contributor in the domain of zoölogy or ornithology, a forcible and entertaining writer, a lover of the picturesque, and endowed with judicious self-restraint when confronted with an abundance of game. The authors of the book under notice, we regret to say, do not belong to this class. To 'Travel and Big Game' Mr. Selous contributes eleven chapters and Mr. Bryden two—not voluntarily, as appears from his protest in the *Athenæum* of April 24. The first-named promptly prejudices his case by stating that, upon arrival at Rio Janeiro, he was "fortunate enough to participate in a genuine slave-hunt." He gives a brief account of the affair, written in a matter-of-course fashion, as if it were a cheerful episode of domestic life. The unfortunate negro was followed by mounted men with bloodhounds. He found refuge in a tree, to escape being torn to pieces by the dogs. He was dislodged and terribly flogged, then, "tottering and bleeding, he was driven back towards the city like a bullock." Mr. Selous explains that, had he not been present, the fugitive would have received much more severe punishment. In the chapter devoted to "Hunting and Trapping in Canada," he describes a deer-trap used by a companion and himself. It is made of slabs of wood, and, when the deer is caught, "the slabs close on its shins and snap them like matchwood. . . . It matters not if the whole concern is dragged out, for the movable frames are studded with short nails, which clutch the firmer the more the animal pulls." One may imagine the sufferings of a deer entangled in such a contrivance.

There is nothing in this book that lifts it above a commonplace record of killing and maiming; nothing to arouse the interest of the general reader, and nothing told the

sportsman that has not been imparted to him long since in a much more lucid and attractive manner.

A Book of Scoundrels. By Charles Whibley. The Macmillan Co. 1897.

If all the world loves a lover, what is its feeling about scoundrels in literature? Certainly, however we may reprobate, not one wholly devoid of sympathy. It is, in fact, the fascination which crime and wickedness possess that makes publications about them dangerous; but Mr. Whibley seems to us to mistake the sources of this feeling. When we find a boy absorbed in the biographies of Sixteen-String Jack, Jack Sheppard, Cartouche, or Vidocq, it does not necessarily prove that the boy is thrilled with criminal emulation. What these stories have in common with better books is adventure; they are full of danger, of combat, of hairbreadth escapes, of love-affairs, of surprises—in other words, of the materials of romance. But Mr. Whibley seems to think that the characters of the scoundrels are interesting, which is exactly the reverse of the fact. Interest is never long compatible with disgust. He gives us not only the old stories, but elaborate parallels, in the manner of Plutarch, between Moll Cutpurse and Jonathan Wild, between Gilderoy and Sixteen-String Jack, between Sheppard and Cartouche. These, of course, are so grotesque as to be laughable. Indeed, the whole book, with its pseudo-humorous mimicry of a serious literary and biographical style, is decidedly queer literature. The account given of the Abbé Bruneau, "the man in the gray suit," is better, as it preserves the record of a very remarkable case which attracted attention a short time ago, and serves to show, if proof is needed, that our age produces types of scoundrelism quite as remarkable as, and no less repulsive than, those which have preceded them.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baker, M. N. Manual of American Water-Works. 1897. "Engineering News" Co.
Baring Gould, S. Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Truslove & Comba.
Barnes, James. A Loyal Traitor: A Story of the War of 1812. Harpers. $1.50.
Birdseye, C. F. The Greater New York Charter. Baker, Voorhis & Co.
Boardman, Rev. G. D. The Problem of Jesus. Philadelphia: A. J. Rowland. 50c.
Booth, Mrs. Ballington. Look Up and Hope. Branded. Randolph. Each 25c.
Branden, D. O'K. Heart-Tones, and Other Poems. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co. $1.25.
Bryant, W. C. The Iliad of Homer. Two volumes in one. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.
Catlin, H. G. Yellow Pine Basin: The Story of a Prospector. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.25.
Connell, F. N. The Fool and His Heart. G. H. Richmond & Co. $1.50.
Craik, Mrs. John Halifax, Gentleman. Harpers.
Creevey, Caroline A. Flowers of Field, Hill, and Swamp. $2.50.
Dana, Francis. Leonora of the Gawmish. A Novel. Harpers. $1.25.
Dawson, A. J. Middle Greyness. John Lane. $1.50.
Dowden, Prof. Edward. The French Revolution and English Literature. Scribners. $1.25.
Farrar, Rev. F. W. The Bible, its Meaning and Supremacy. Longmans, Green & Co.
Ford, P. L. The Writings of Thomas Jefferson. Vol. VIII. 1801-1806. Putnams.
Foster, D. S. Spanish Castles by the Rhine. Henry Holt & Co. 75c.
Freeman, E. A. Sketches of Travel in Normandy and Maine. Macmillan. $2.50.
Gospel of the Stars; or Wonders of Astrology. New York: The Eskdale Press.
Handy, W. M. Banking Systems of the World. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Hay, H. H. Trumpets and Shawms. Philadelphia: Arnold & Co. $1.50.
Johnston, Prof. H. W. Latin Manuscripts: An Elementary Introduction. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. $2.25.
Knauff, C. W. Doctor Tucker, Priest-Musician. Randolph. $1.50.
Koch, T. W. Dante in America: A Historical and Bibliographical Study. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Lüpke, Robert. The Elements of Electro-Chemistry Treated Experimentally. London: H. Grevel & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.50.
Marsh, Prof. A. R. Galdós's Doña Perfecta. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Mason, E. T. Lyrical and Dramatic Poems Selected from Browning. Henry Holt & Co. 60c.
Matthews, Major Washington. Navaho Legends. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
McKean, May F. Ruth the Gleaner. Philadelphia: Baptist Publication Society. 25c.
Moore, F. F. Phyllis and Philistia. Cassell Publishing Co. 50c.
Mountain-Climbing. Athletic Sports. [The Out-of-Door Library.] Scribners. Each $1.50.
Murray, J. A. H. A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Distrustfully.—Doom (Vol. III.). Flexuosity-Foister (Vol IV.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Murray, Prof. Gilbert. A History of Ancient Greek Literature. Appletons. $1.50.
Murray, D. A. Introductory Course in Differential Equations. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.90.
Myrick, Herbert. Sugar: A New and Profitable Industry. New York: Orange Judd Co. 50c.
Neville-Rolfe, E. Naples in the Nineties. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Newman, J. H. The Devotions of Bishop Andrewes. Translated from the Greek. G. H. Richmond & Co. $2.
Nicolls, W. J. The Railway Builder: A Handbook for Estimating the Cost of American Railway Construction and Equipment. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Pages Choisies de Jules Claretie. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Pellico, Silvio. Francesca da Rimini. Cambridge, Mass.; C. W. Sever.
Piatt, J. J. Odes in Ohio, and Other Poems. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.
Picavet, F. Gerbert, un Pape Philosophe. Paris: Ernest Leroux.
Robert, Louis de. The Eternal Enigma: A Page from the Life of Yvette Guilbert. Judge Publishing Co.
Savage, R. H. Prince Schamyl's Wooing. Rand, McNally & Co. 25c.
Siecke, Prof. Ernst. Die Urreligion der Indogermanen. Berlin: Mayer & Müller.
Sloane, Prof. W. M. Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. Vol III. Century Co.
Stebbins, Sarah B. Was it He? G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Thanet, Octave. The Missionary Sheriff. Harpers. $1.25.
Thatcher, O. J. A Short History of Mediæval Europe. Scribners. $1.25.
The Encyclopædia of Sport. Part I. Putnams. $1.
Theiss, J. W. Gepflücht am Wege: Lieder und Gedichte. St. Louis: Louis Lange Publishing Co.
The House of Dreams. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.25.
"The Living Age." Jan.-March, 1897. Boston: "Living Age" Co.
Thomson, A. C. The Outgoing Turk: Impressions of a Journey Through the Western Balkans. London: Heinemann.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations. Vol VI. Quebec: 1633-1634. Cleveland: Burrows Bros.
Twain, Mark. How to Tell a Story, and Other Essays. Harpers. $1.50.
Tyler, Prof. M. C. The Literary History of the American Revolution. 1763-1783. Vol I. 1763-1776. Putnams. $3.
Urtext und Übersetzungen der Bibel in übersichtlicher Darstellung. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs.
Voorhees, J. P. Wissy: A True Tale of Modern Theatrical Bohemia. Washington: Byron S. Adams Press.
Wells, H. G. Thirty Strange Stories. Edward Arnold. $1.50.
Wiedemann, Prof. Alfred. Religion of the Ancient Egyptians. London: H. Grevel & Co.; New York: Putnams. $3.75.
Wilkins, Frances. A Microscopic Hypnotist. G. W. Dillingham. 50c.
Willard, F. B. A Pretty Bandit. New York: The Eskdale Press. $1.
Yonge, Charlotte M. The Pilgrimage of the Ben Beriah. Macmillan. $1.25.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 20, 1897.

The Week.

The short Cuban message sent to the Senate by the President on Monday by no means met the expectations of the Jingoes. It merely says that official information from our consuls in Cuba establishes the fact that a large number of American citizens in the island are in a state of destitution, suffering for want of food and medicines; that the agricultural classes have been forced from their farms into the nearest towns, where they are without work or money; that the local authorities of the several towns, however kindly disposed, are unable to relieve the needs of their own people, and are altogether powerless to help our citizens; that the latest report of Consul-General Lee estimates that 600 to 800 are without means of support. The President adds that he has promised relief, and recommends an immediate appropriation of $50,000 to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of State, and to be used, in part, to bring home American citizens who have no money for the purpose. This purely humane recommendation was at once passed by the Senate without a dissenting vote, though its immediate passage in the House was blocked by Mr. Bailey of Texas, in order to complicate it with the question of belligerency.

The House temporarily resumed its prerogatives as a deliberative body last week, and the results are greatly to the public advantage. The Senate tacked on to the sundry civil appropriation bill an amendment which proposed to nullify the action of President Cleveland during the last days of his administration in establishing great forest reserves in the far West. In taking this step the Senate only illustrated again the readiness of that body to yield to the appeals of those who have private interests to serve by opposing measures in the public interest. The representatives of these interests worked hard to secure the concurrence of the House, but they could carry only 39 votes as against 100 on the other side. A settlement will now be reached by which President McKinley will be granted discretionary powers in the matter, but the main result aimed at by Mr. Cleveland's order will not be seriously affected. The Senate amendment would virtually have defeated the whole movement for the preservation of forests which are essential to the national interests, and the easy surrender of that branch constitutes another count in the popular indictment against it.

Another commendable act by the House was the refusal to concur in the Senate amendment appropriating $50,000 for the improvement of Pearl Harbor, in the Hawaiian islands. Mr. Hitt, chairman of the committee on foreign affairs in the last House, urged the scheme, on the ground that "by this small expenditure we can put our foot down, plant our flag at the entrance of that river, and it will not come down in a thousand years." Mr. Cannon replied very effectively that the proposed appropriation would not suffice to dredge the sand from the harbor, to say nothing of buying a foot of land or beginning a naval station. Mr. Sayers enforced this argument by the declaration, which everybody knew to be well founded, that as soon as Pearl Harbor had been improved, the Government would be called on to spend several millions in fortifying it, and warned the House that the next step in this policy would be annexation of the islands. Two or three spread-eagle speeches in favor of annexation were made, but they evoked little enthusiasm, and when the vote was taken, 85 voted against the proposed appropriation and only 53 for it.

Senator Tillman of South Carolina has written a letter to a business firm in Charleston, Bernard O'Neill & Sons, telling what he thinks about the tariff bill and how he intends to vote on particular items embraced in it. The firm in question had written to him to protest against the increase of duty on salt mackerel. The present duty is three-fourths of a cent per pound. Dingley raised it to 1½ cent, and the Senate committee compromised on 1 cent. O'Neill & Sons held that it was "not wise to increase the price of fish at the dictation of a few vessel-owners of the East, who would, under the contemplated law, have a monopoly of the fish trade at the expense of the people of the interior who consume fish products." Senator Tillman replied that he was in favor of making the bill as odious as possible in order to bring people to their senses on the subject of tariffs, which were framed to foster sectional interests and to benefit corporations and classes. There is a gleam of common sense in this observation. In the task of making the bill odious, Tillman has so much coöperation that he can hardly fail of his aim. The sugar schedule and the wool schedule will prove far more effectual for this purpose than any possible duty on salt fish. One cent per pound on mackerel will be only as dust in the balance compared with the duty on hides. There is more room and ground for fighting over the repeal of the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty for the benefit of the California beet-growers than over the entire fish schedule. And what about the duty of 10 cents per pound on tea? This duty taken by itself, being for revenue only, would be defensible, but when coupled with schemes to add to the profits of people who are already rich, it becomes odious, and it will be heard from as soon as the duty begins to be felt in the increased price of tea. Senator Tillman may labor to make people execrate the bill, but his contributions to that end will be trifling as compared with those of Dingley and Aldrich.

The *Tribune's* Washington correspondent tries to throw a ray of cheer into the tariff gloom by raising the nice point whether the Senate has a constitutional right to upset everything, including the *Tribune*, with such a bill as is now proposed. Of course, the Senate may "amend," but does that imply that it may amend away protection, may actually put revenue taxes into a revenue bill? This correspondent thinks not. A protective tariff is constitutional—everybody will admit that rather than read the treatises proving it. Revenue taxes are constitutional. But mix up the two things in a single bill, and the result is unconstitutional. We hope that is clear? But Senators will only laugh a ribald laugh at all this and go right on. They will say they are proceeding under the "general welfare" clause of the Constitution, and will ask what better way there is to promote the general welfare than by beginning with their own particular welfare.

The statement of this country's foreign trade during April, just published by the Bureau of Statistics, can be described only as marking sudden and violent interference with the legitimate commercial movement. With the season's slack demand for home consumers, and with the slow marketing of goods already held in stock, imports of foreign merchandise have for many months been light. Even in March, with the extra session called and higher tariff duties obviously impending, increase in foreign importations was comparatively slight, and exports still exceeded them by nearly eleven millions. But by the opening of April, the astonishing retroactive clause was threatened; received at first with incredulity, the threat was carried out a few days later, and new duties were sought to be levied on everything not actually engaged for import before the 1st of April. The result was a sudden rush of import orders. Some people bought for speculative purposes; some in order to hold their market; some through no motive but the

fright which under such circumstances drives a body of usually cool-headed business men into a species of unreasoning panic. The results are spread upon the latest Government returns. The record of April importations rises from $76,372,831 in March, and from $58,649,579 in April, 1896, to no less a sum than $101,305,131.

This is the largest import of foreign merchandise for the month ever recorded in our history. No April importations, during the past ten years, have approximated last month's aggregate. In the spring of 1893 the import movement was unprecedentedly great, and the recklessness with which such purchases were made brought its own penalty, later in the season, when the bills had to be met on international exchange. Yet even in April, 1893, merchandise importations rose no higher than $84,991,000, or sixteen millions less than last month's entries. If our present export trade were only at the level of four years ago, the excess of importations during April would have left this country chargeable with forty million dollars on account of the month's transactions. As it is, even with our heavy export movement, the balance, for the first time since October, 1895, has swung against this country; excess of imports during April being $23,579,431. If such a trade balance had been caused by legitimate demand for goods at home, it might easily have been interpreted as a sign of revived prosperity. But forced as it actually has been under the lash of an unheard-of legislative threat, and with no change in domestic markets, it is no wonder that the foreign exchanges have moved rapidly against us, that we have sent abroad nearly $12,000,000 gold since the middle of April, and that some of the old signs of discouragement are once more visible. We wish we could believe that this new lesson in the danger of laying violent hands upon our foreign commerce could be learned by the complacent dogmatists at Washington.

The principal facts in the case of Mr. E. R. Chapman, the broker who is going to jail rather than betray two or three members of the Senate, are as follows: The House, in the revenue-reform tariff bill of 1894, put sugar, raw and refined, on the free list. This did not suit the Sugar Trust, which derives a substantial part of its revenue from the sugar duty, paying in return the usual political subvention. Accordingly it got a suitable duty put on in the Senate, by the aid of three or four Senators who, though Democrats, deserted the Wilson bill and gradually converted it into the present Gorman-Bryce tariff. Curiously enough, it leaked out that Senators were "speculating" in the certificates of the Sugar Trust, and when we say speculating, we mean, not gambling, as the innocent lambs do in Wall Street, and getting sheared by the bears and bulls for their pains, but buying or selling on a market which they raised or depressed by votes, these votes being given in theory according to the dictates of conscience, but in fact cast so as to line their pockets. This caused a scandal, and resulted in an investigation and the summoning to Washington of Mr. Chapman, who refused point-blank to answer any questions as to who his customers were or what their speculations had been. In thus refusing he committed contempt, and also brought himself within the provisions of sections 102-104 of the Revised Statutes, making such a contempt punishable by a fine of not less than $100 and not more than $1,000, and imprisonment of not less than one nor more than twelve months.

Mr. Chapman was thereupon indicted by the United States District Attorney in the District of Columbia, Mr. Davis, tried, and sentenced to a month in jail. This sentence has been confirmed by the Supreme Court, and to jail Mr. Chapman has now gone, an attempt to obtain a pardon for him by some of his speculative friends having broken down. The case was a test case, and Mr. Davis, who appears to be a man of courage, now promises to bring to the bar several other gentlemen who refused to answer the questions, viz.; Messrs. McCartney and Seymour, brokers; Messrs. Edwards and Shriver, correspondents, and last, but not least, Messrs. Havemeyer and Searles of the Sugar Trust. The importance of the case legally lies not so much in the punishment which has overtaken Mr. Chapman as it does in the complete demonstration of the power of the Senate to get at facts touching the corruption of its own members if it desires to do so. As often as any one refuses to testify, to jail he can be sent, and the most resolute broker would rather tell the whole truth than spend many months even in a comfortable jail. But its political importance is far greater, for it comes just at the moment when a new sugar schedule is pending in the Senate, and "speculation" is beginning again, and a new scandal is openly promised. It could not come at a more inconvenient time, for it directs all eyes to the Senate, and to the one great Trust which everybody knows wrings half its swollen substance out of the public by the aid of Senators, through votes obtained under circumstances which those cognizant of them are obliged to conceal, lest the ring be broken up by the courts.

Gov. Black, in his first message to the Legislature, gave notice of his intention to attack and break down the civil-service regulations in this State. That the bill of his preparing which he has just made law is intended to do this, there is not a shadow of a doubt. His own memorandum, one of the most extraordinary state papers of our time, confesses this in every line. Its unconscious admissions are the best evidence of the Governor's intent and that of his bill. Heretofore it has been customary for the spoils politicians to complain because the civil-service examinations gave most of the places in the service to college graduates. As this falsehood has been exposed too many times to be repeated with safety, the Governor says that, "under the old system, the recent graduate of the high school or college would be almost certain to be appointed." He finds even the high-school educational test too high for machine political ability, and sneers at that as well as at the college test. "Under the proposed method," he adds, in describing his own bill, "the chances of the practical man for appointment will be greatly increased." Everybody knows who this "practical man" is. The Governor draws the distinction between him and the high-school and college graduate, and quite properly too. It is useless to waste argument or remonstrance upon an official like this. He is carrying out the work for which he was put in office. He speaks of the desirability of having heads of departments select their own subordinates, adding that such a head will be "steadied by his bond and the responsibilities of a great bureau." He is himself the head of the government of the State, and how did his bond and the responsibilities of his great bureau steady him? The appointments of Lou Payn and Jake Worth are sufficient answer.

"Every head of a department," remarked Gov. Black in his civil-service-law memorandum, "not so cowed by the perennial reproach of the civil-service Pharisee that he is afraid to tell the whole truth, will declare that he could secure better help for his own office than an examining board can select for him." In the face of this bold defiance of the Pharisee by the head of the State government, three heads of departments in this city remain in such a "cowed" condition as to say that they so far prefer to have the examining board select their help for them that they decline to avail themselves of the privileges of the Governor's law. Mr. Scott, Corporation Counsel, and Col. Waring declare that they are such thorough believers in civil-service reform that they have requested the local civil-service examining board to continue to select their employees for them. Gen. Collis of the Public Works Department says also that he is a "great believer in civil-service reform," and that, with the exception of laborers, he prefers to have the examining board select his subordi-

nates. The contempt which our valiant Governor feels for these quaking victims of "Pharisee" wrath must be inexpressible.

The essential feature of the American civil-service system as it has now existed for fifteen years in the federal, State and city services is the vesting of the function of examination and rating in a board totally independent of and separate from the appointing power. Under it, the great body of minor civil offices throughout the country have ceased to be the spoils of party warfare, and in this State the system has been intrenched in the Constitution by a provision that appointments and promotions shall be made according to merit and fitness, "to be ascertained, so far as practicable, by examinations, which, so far as practicable, shall be competitive." The new civil-service law breaks up this system, allows the civil-service examiners to rate candidates up to only 50 per cent., leaving the other 50 per cent. to be rated by the head of the department. To make this constitutional in form, one-half of the rating is to be for "merit" and the other half for "fitness." That is, there is to be a genuine competitive civil-service examination as to "merit," and those who pass this best will go through another examination as to "fitness," which the appointing officer will arrange to suit himself. It is true that the act says that these examinations are to be "competitive so far as practicable," but under the recent decision of the Court of Appeals, it is no doubt hoped that the court will hold the character of the second examination to be very much in the discretion of the appointing officer, and that he will be able to manage it so that in most cases those of his party will turn out to have both merit and fitness; the others only merit.

Success in this scheme would break up the whole civil-service system, and make the constitutional provision a mere form of words, and it is only fair to the Court of Appeals, whose recent civil-service decision has been so much criticised, to say that there is nothing in it which makes it certain that the majority of the court will uphold this statute. The reason why the decision so greatly raised the hopes of those who are making the present attack on the civil service was, that the Republican judges who constituted the majority seemed to go out of their way to declare the "practicability" of competition to be a matter of discretion; but they at the same time declared that the number of non-competitive offices must be very small. The law presents a question which was not then in any way before the court—whether the system provided under it, separating merit and fitness, as if they were two distinct species of qualifications (instead of being, as they were no doubt intended to be, mere general terms), and prescribing a genuine examination for one, and then a second examination for the other, which might easily have the effect of nullifying the first, is anything but a mere sham. In fact, every one knows that this is not competition so far as practicable, but spoils so far as practicable. Can it be in law exactly the opposite? The sooner the question is tested the better.

If the next New York Legislature is made of the same valiant stuff as the last one was, we shall look for an assault upon that section of the Constitution which gives mayors of cities the right to veto municipal legislative measures. The section does not bother the legislators at all so long as it operates while they are in session. They can always "jam through" a measure over a veto, and thus show the obstructive mayors what they think of them; but after adjournment the case is different. The veto of a mayor then kills the bill. No less than fifty bills have been killed in this way since the Legislature adjourned, twenty-four of them relating to this city. Think of Mayor Strong being able to exert a power like that against the will of our Platt Government! He paralyzes the whole system by giving the people of this city a voice in the management of their own affairs. Just imagine the consequences had the new charter been vetoed after adjournment! Something will have to be done about this in the future. The constitutional provision will have to be "got around" in some such way as Gov. Black's civil-service bill has "got around" the civil-service-reform amendment. Platt Government and popular government cannot exist side by side. Either he must rule the cities, together with the State at large, or his power will be undermined and will crumble away. Lexow and Raines should bend their minds upon this subject and solve it by next winter.

Gov. Pingree of Michigan may be a demagogue, but he mixes a good deal of common sense with his bids for popular favor. The Legislature recently passed a bill supplementing the present law forbidding the sale of cigarettes, or, indeed, tobacco in any form, to minors under the age of seventeen, by a provision that the minor to whom such goods are sold or given shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, to be punished by fines of $5 for the first offence, $10 to $25 for the second, and $30 to $50 for the third, while the fourth would involve imprisonment in the county jail or industrial home. The practical result of enforcing such a law would be that any boy found smoking a cigarette would be branded as a criminal, and fined to an amount which neither he nor his parent or guardian might be able to pay, in which case he must go to jail at once, while imprisonment would be inevitable if he should be caught with a cigarette a fourth time. Gov. Pingree very properly refused to approve this bill. He thinks that smoking cigarettes is a bad thing for boys, but that there are worse things, as sending a youth among criminals because he has been foolish enough to form a habit which he should be taught to drop. Moreover, he holds that every child should be taught that law is sacred, and that the statutes of the State are entitled to obedience and respect; and that "to teach this lesson we must avoid making laws which are easily evaded, and which, on account of their severity, are not respected." The astonishing thing is that Legislatures should pass bills which are so absurd that they are dropped the moment a Governor points out their folly.

The news comes from South America that Bolivia is about to adopt the gold standard, although she is reputed to be richer in undeveloped or partly developed silver mines than any other country on the globe. The famous Potosi mine is in Bolivia, and geologists tell us that this is only one of the rich veins with which that country abounds, and is not the richest one. Bolivia is still undeveloped. It needs only railway communication and mining machinery to pour out upon the world stores of the white metal surpassing those of the Comstock lode of Nevada or the Broken Hill of Australia. And yet Bolivia wants the gold standard. It would have been well for the Wolcott-Payne-Stevenson commission to go to South America and stop this fire in the rear before visiting Europe.

Domokos is the latest, and, as we go to press, appears to be the last, Greek defeat that the Powers will tolerate. Turkey's hand has been forced, against the will of the German Emperor, but by the commanding weight of Russia and her allies in this miserable business. The Porte's demands are pronounced extravagant as regards indemnity in money and in territory; Thessaly is not to be restored to Turkey, nor is abolition of the capitulations to be thought of. In short, while Turkey has been allowed to operate up to a certain point as if *in vacuo*, she is now reminded of the artificiality of her "integrity," and that her offensive-defensive is not subject to the laws or chance of war alone. She exists by the grace of Christian fleets for the benefit of non-Moslem bondholders until the convenient hour of partition arrives and the Sick Man is bowed down and out of Europe. For the moment, she stays her victorious arms on the border of what used to be known as Greece proper.

JONES AS TARIFF-MAKER.

Senator Jones of Nevada is just now the most conspicuous figure in Congress as a tariff-maker. He held the casting vote in the finance committee which reported the pending bill, and made it represent his wishes before he would let it go to the Senate. He expects to have his way again when the bill comes to a vote, and Mr. Aldrich, the Eastern Senator in charge of the measure, virtually admits that his confidence is justifiable. This is not the first appearance of Jones as dictator regarding a tariff bill. He played the same rôle almost exactly seven years ago. The public memory is so short that it would not be strange if most people had forgotten this circumstance, even if they had been familiar with it at the time. In point of fact, however, Jones then exercised his power so secretly that the country did not appreciate what was going on, and it was years afterward that the unwritten history of that period was revealed. It is a chapter which merits careful study just now.

The Fifty-first Congress met at the usual time in December, 1889, and Mr. McKinley, as chairman of the ways and means committee, reported the tariff bill to the House on the 16th of April, 1890. It was passed by the lower branch on the 21st of May, and Mr. Morrill, as chairman of the finance committee, reported it to the Senate on the 18th of June. But there it halted. Weeks passed without any progress being made. Meanwhile the silver question had come to the front, and the Republican Senators from the silver States had made plain their purpose to secure some legislation more favorable to their interests than the Bland-Allison act then on the statute-book. Jones was then, as now, a member of the finance committee, and held the balance of power. By his vote the committee on the 25th of February reported a bill authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase $4,500,000 worth of silver bullion each month, and to issue Treasury notes in payment therefor. Before this bill came to a vote in the Senate, the House passed, on the 7th of June, a measure of much the same import, which was accepted as a substitute for the Senate bill in the further discussion of the subject. On the 17th of June the House bill was transformed into a free-coinage bill, pure and simple, by a vote of 42 to 25. The matter then went to a conference committee, of which Sherman was chairman on the part of the Senate and Jones another member. The result was the so-called Sherman silver-purchase act, providing for the purchase of 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month. This compromise was accepted by the Republican party vote in both branches, and signed by President Harrison on the 14th of July.

All this lay on the surface, and is a matter of record. Six years later the significance of the movement was made plain. On the 29th of April, 1896, Mr. Sherman had stated in the Senate that the bill called after his name was passed for the purpose of avoiding free coinage. Mr. Teller of Colorado challenged this statement "in the interest of history and truth and exactness," declaring plainly that "there is no foundation whatever for that statement," and explaining what really had occurred. Mr. Harrison was then President, and had said to many Senators that, if a free-coinage bill were sent to him, he should veto it. The Sherman bill, therefore, was not passed for the purpose of avoiding free coinage, but for this reason, to quote Mr. Teller's words:

> "I will, in the interest of history, state why the Sherman bill passed. If it is a party secret, I will give it out, because the statement of the Senator from Ohio has been repeatedly made that he yielded to that measure. The Senator from Ohio believed when he had that bill passed that it would do two things. He believed, first, that it would secure the passage of a tariff bill, and secondly, he believed at that time (he so stated to the Senate at least) that it would help the finances of the country."

Mr. Teller proceeded to say that those silver Senators "who were in favor of a tariff bill were in favor of a free-coinage bill if we could get it, and if we could not get it, we wanted something that would come near to it." They did not believe that the President would sign a tariff bill if it had a free-coinage measure attached, although it might be a tariff bill that suited him. If they should put the free-coinage bill upon the tariff bill, both would be lost, and nothing would be gained for silver. But they used the threat in order to secure other concessions. Said Mr. Teller:

> "But we determined that we would put the free-coinage bill upon the tariff bill, which we knew we could do with the help of the Democrats, who, of course, would vote with us. That we said we would do, and that is why the Senator from Ohio yielded his judgment. That is why the Republicans on this side who had been opposed to the free coinage of silver yielded, not to free coinage, but to what they thought was a lesser evil, what they thought would answer the purpose of satisfying the silver Republicans and secure their votes. Mr. President, that is the unvarnished fact, which more than one Senator on the floor knows as well as I do. We drove our associates in this chamber who were opposed to free coinage into passing a relief bill, as they call it."

Nobody has ever questioned the truthfulness of this declaration that the silver-purchase act of 1890, which had to be repealed three years later, was the price of the McKinley act. Jones, as the representative of the silver Senators, insisted that the Eastern Republicans should "do something for silver," or they should have no tariff bill—and he "drove" them into yielding to his demands. The party has thus learned by experience that it must pay a heavy price when Jones is the tariff-maker, as he now is again.

Speaker Reed is the one man who "had his say" in the House about the pending bill. It was drawn to suit his ideas, and no change was allowed in those ideas. He made up his mind how long the House should be permitted to consider it, and he insisted that the vote should be taken when this time had expired, although only a small part of the measure had then received examination. The Republicans had elected him Speaker, and the knowledge that he could make or break the legislative fortunes of any man when he came to appoint the committees rendered the party subservient to its master. Some weeks—more likely, months—hence the Senate will transmit the Jones tariff to the House, as some weeks ago the House sent the Senate the Reed tariff. The question then will be whether Reed will accept the Jones tariff. Everything now indicates that the Speaker will have to take that or nothing. Of course, he may say that Jones must back down or have no new tariff. But Jones can afford to have no new tariff. He did not support the Republican party last year upon the platform of restoring prosperity by the passage of a tariff bill. He is not "lying awake nights" worrying over the plight of the party if it should call an extra session to pass a tariff bill, and adjourn leaving the Democratic tariff in force because of its inability to send its President a better one. All that now remains is a tug-of-war between the Representative of the Portland district in Maine and the Senator who in this matter stands for the State of Nevada. The Speaker of the House has the advantage in the size of his constituency, for his district has a population of 153,778, against only 45,761 in all Nevada, and gave him 19,329 votes last fall, against only 10,315 for all the Presidential candidates in Nevada, of which McKinley's share was 1,939. But this is a matter in which such considerations do not count. The man who can swing the Senate has quite as much power as the man who controls the House, and Nevada needs for all practical purposes no more inhabitants than are required to go through the forms of electing United States Senators. It is a pity that Jones has not the power of forcing an early decision in the Senate. As the House tariff was to be merely Reed's, the Speaker saw no use in wasting much time over the old forms of consideration. As the Senate tariff is to be Jones's, it would be a great saving of time if the Nevada Senator could make equally short work of routine in his branch of Congress.

THE KEYSTONE OF THE TARIFF.

As long ago as Mr. Cleveland's first Presidential term, we pointed out the fact that wool was the keystone of the protective-tariff system. It was really such when the tariff of 1883 was enacted. In what way it served that purpose was shown by the late John L. Hayes, who was the representative of the woollen

manufacturers on the tariff commission of the previous year. The crucial question involved at that time was somewhat technical, but it was well understood by the opposing parties, who were then as now the Ohio wool-growers and the New England manufacturers. The latter controlled the Senate at that time and carried their point, but only by the narrowest margin. The final settlement was made in conference committee, where it is said that Senator Morrill, after long debate, took up the ponderous document, held it aloft, and said, as one having authority: "Gentlemen, it is this schedule or no bill; shall I drop it or not?" Thereupon the House members accepted the Senate's wool schedule and the bill became a law.

The Ohio wool-growers, represented by Lawrence, Delano, and Harpster, were intensely dissatisfied with the bill. They at once started a new crusade for tariff changes, and although not many farmers are much interested in wool, they succeeded by diligent effort in identifying themselves with agriculture so that they could threaten New England with complete destruction of the protective system if the farmers were not protected equally with the manufacturers—they being the farmers and the sole judges of what was equality in protection. The latter point was easily settled by the Ohio triumvirate, who said in substance: "Let us make the duties on wool and you may make those on woollens—the public be blanked."

The campaign for new wool duties met with a reverse in the Presidential election of 1884, when the Republican party failed of success for the first time since the war. Mr. Cleveland was chosen, and the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Manning, with rare sagacity, discerned that the true issue before the country was the duty on wool, and with this fact in view made that question the leading topic of his first annual report. Not many persons except those immediately concerned in wool-growing or manufacturing saw the point of Mr. Manning's long dissertation and statistics, yet it all became clear when Mr. Harrison's Presidential term began, for the Ohio triumvirate at once reappeared in Washington and demanded with vehemence a new tariff bill, or rather a new tariff on wool. They cared little about other things. The wool-growers and the woollen manufacturers were then united, or rather chained together, in a single association, in such a way that the former could coerce the latter, by the threat of overthrowing the whole protective system, to join them in taking political action. The tariff of 1883 was satisfactory to the Republican party, and was little likely to be overturned except by those who were commonly classed as its friends. It certainly could not have been disturbed at that time by any other party. It was quite beyond the power of the Democrats to assail it successfully.

Lawrence, Delano, and Harpster—or more properly Lawrence dragging Delano and Harpster after him—first bulldozed the woollen manufacturers, and then the committee of ways and means, and then the whole Republican party in Congress, to increase the duties on wool. Of course this required an increase in the duties on woollens. When the other protected classes saw what was going on they rushed to Washington. Hundreds of men and interests that were doing very well (for the decade of 1880-1890 was one of the boom periods in our industrial history) discovered suddenly that they were doing very ill. Tales of poverty and distress, of pauper labor, British gold, and all the other rusty and musty jargon of protectionism were poured into the ears of Congressmen. The McKinley bill was the result. It all hung on the wool schedule. That was the keystone of the arch.

The arch fell, and the party with it, in the autumn of 1890. They fell again in the election of 1892. The Wilson tariff of 1894 was the inevitable consequence, and here again the wool tariff was the keystone of the arch, but this time wool was made free of duties altogether. A new candidate for the first place in tariff legislation had come to the front, namely, sugar. A certain number of Senators formed a combine to make a tariff which, according to their phraseology, "could get forty-three votes." The curious discovery was made that there would be a shortage of four or five votes unless a certain sugar schedule was adopted, and that this shortage consisted of themselves. Accordingly sugar, for the time being, became the keystone of the arch, but, after the bill had passed the Senate, wool resumed its former place, for, having been made free in the bill, Congressman Wilson and President Cleveland, both of whom were at first inclined to kill the bill on account of the iniquitous sugar schedule, decided to let it become a law because wool was on the free list. They argued that with free wool the protective system was doomed, and must fall sooner or later.

Wool held the chief place in the Dingley bill as long as that measure remained in the House. The retroactive clause was adopted to prevent the bringing in of foreign wool, but the only effect was to augment and hasten such importations, 58,000,000 pounds being imported at Boston alone in the month of March against 18,000,000 in March, 1896. The importations of April are believed to have been still larger, and now the Senate committee has reversed the House provisions regarding the different grades of wool and knocked out the retroactive clause altogether. This brings the keystone question down to the present time. Just now the sugar schedule seems to dispute with the wool schedule for the chief position in the arch. Which of the two shall prove best entitled to the place we shall soon see.

RAILWAY PROPERTY IN THE COURTS.

A case decided by the Supreme Court some months since on the subject of transportation rates would have attracted a larger share of public attention had not the interest aroused by the Trans-Missouri decision for the time obscured it. The case is that of Covington and Lexington Turnpike Road Company vs. Sandford; it is reported in U. S. S. C. Opns. No. 5, p. 199. The Trans-Missouri case related to interstate commerce, and under it Congress has absolute power over interstate rates, and may even prevent railroads from making contracts with one another to maintain reasonable rates. The other case relates to ordinary local business within State boundaries, which, of course, cannot be affected by the power given by the Constitution to regulate commerce between the States. The two together present a pretty good view of the legal theory of property invested in the business of transportation held by the Supreme Court as at present constituted.

The Kentucky Legislature in 1890 fixed maximum rates for the turnpike company. The company announced its intention to disobey the law, and Sandford and other farmers living along the road, and accustomed to use it every day, brought a suit to enjoin the company from charging more than the rates allowed by the law. The State courts granted a perpetual injunction. The Supreme Court on appeal held that the general legislative right over tolls was not impaired or restrained by anything in the charter, or any contract with the State, but that a more serious question was presented by an answer which contended that if the law should be obeyed, the road could not earn any dividends, and the company or its stockholders were thus deprived of property without "due process of law." The company insisted that it was earning only about 4 per cent., while extraordinary anticipated expenses would cut the income down to nothing. It also set out facts relating to competition, grades, etc., all tending to show that, under the act, the road would not be able to pay its ordinary expenses. The facts were admitted by the complainants, and the road demurred. The question thus presented, according to the Supreme Court, was whether an unjust and unreasonable tariff could be legal, or whether it was not forbidden by the provision of the fourteenth amendment declaring that no State shall deprive any one of property without due process of law; and they held that it was illegal.

So far the court merely followed a rule repeatedly announced, perhaps most

tersely in the form, "A power to regulate is not a power to destroy" (Stone vs. Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, 116 U. S. 307), and especially the case of Reagan vs. Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, 154 U. S., 362, in which it was first distinctly laid down, three years ago, that the question whether legislative or commission rates were unjust or unreasonable, was a question for the courts. But the importance of the decision lies in the fact that it undertook to explain elaborately what these principles mean. The court does not decide that the act was unconstitutional merely because the company could not earn more than 4 per cent. It does not say that a corporation operating a public highway is entitled, without reference to the interests of the public, to earn four, or any other given per cent. on its stock. An inquiry must be made as to what is fair and reasonable to both sides. If the establishment of railways, for instance, leads to the disuse of turnpikes, that is not, in itself, a sufficient reason why rates should be put up to an unreasonable point.

"So that the right of the public to use the plaintiffs' turnpike upon payment of such tolls as in view of the nature and value of the service rendered by the company are reasonable, is an element in the general inquiry whether the rates established by law are unjust and unreasonable. That inquiry also involves other considerations—such, for instance, as the reasonable cost of maintaining the road in good condition for public use, and the amount that may have been really and necessarily invested in the enterprise. In short, each case must depend upon its special facts; and when a court, without assuming itself to prescribe rates, is required to determine whether the rates prescribed by the Legislature for a corporation controlling a public highway are, as an entirety, so unjust as to destroy the value of its property for all the purposes for which it was acquired, its duty is to take into consideration the interests both of the public and of the owner of the property, together with all other circumstances that are fairly to be considered in determining whether the Legislature has, under the guise of regulating rates, exceeded its constitutional authority and practically deprived the owner of property without due process of law. What those other circumstances may be it is not necessary now to decide. That can be best done after the parties have made their proofs."

This makes the question whether a State legislative or commission tariff confiscates or does not confiscate depend wholly on the reasonableness of the contracts for transportation made under this tariff. Such a tariff, it was decided by the granger cases, is made under the "police" or general legislative power of the State, and this power must be exercised reasonably. Now contrast this with the Trans-Missouri decision, in which it was held that Congress may, under a constitutional grant of power to "regulate commerce" between the States, make illegal and even criminal any contract between railroads which renders rates stable, even though it be reasonable. That is, Congress, under a limited grant from the States themselves, has a more absolute power over interstate contracts than a State legislature can get over State contracts from the very fountainhead of power in the people themselves, who have conferred upon it locally the whole legislative power of a sovereign. In one case reason is the test to which power has to appeal; in the other, the mere fiat of the law-making power overrides reason itself.

This presents questions of interpretation and construction which will be argued before the Supreme Court next autumn. Meanwhile it is not to be wondered at that the contrast in these decisions should fill the mind of those engaged in the actual business of transportation with wonder. What sort of property is this, they say, which State legislatures must deal with reasonably or not at all, but the reasonable management of which, if it comes within the scope of congressional authority, may be punished by fine and imprisonment as a criminal offence?

THE GREEK CATASTROPHE.

ROME, April 30, 1897.

We have at last the solution of the Greek question, the fitting result of a wanton disturbance of the state of peace, needless in fact and inconsidered in manner beyond all European precedent. Those who, like myself, participated in the demonstration of 1886 on the same frontier by the same caricature of a statesman, Delyannis, and inflated by the same windy temper of an Athenian mob, can better understand the present disaster than they who regard the war which has just collapsed as the outbreak of the righteous indignation of a people. In that year the question was a little more clearly stated, and the pretext for action was less plausible, but *au fond* the case was the same. There was the same demagogue at the head of affairs, and the same necessity for the rehabilitation of him in the favor of the masses, and in both cases there was no real intention, in the outset, of making war, but the hope of alarming the Powers at the prospect of fire being set to the huge mass of inflammable material in the Balkan Peninsula, as the means of extorting advantages for Greece as the price of abstention.

In 1886 I had the privilege of an inside view of the whole affair, and there was then no question that the policy was the childish one of threatening to set fire to the house if the master of it did not come down handsomely. The master, on the contrary, responded by shutting up the child, and the blockade of Peiræus brought the curtain down on the farce. The ministry resigned and Tricoupis came in, after the irregular bands, encouraged by the conviction (industriously spread abroad in the nation) that war was really intended, had been fighting in a desultory way for three days along the frontier, and the regulars had even been involved—all without a declaration of war, and with not even the pretext of the barbarities in Crete so effectively employed to blind the philhellenic public in Europe this time. The Turks had then done nothing to stimulate action, and the whole policy of Delyannis was simple blackmail.

Reading over my letters of that date, I see that, with the change of here and there a word, putting Macedonia for Epirus, etc., they would serve the present crisis perfectly, and the disaster which has now fallen on Greece because the Powers would pay no attention to the Greek threats, was then averted only by the blockade, giving Delyannis the opportunity of evacuating an untenable position under the pretext that he could not make war if the Powers closed the sea to his troops. At that time the Powers received the abuse of the philhellenes because they had prevented Greece from conquering her inheritance; now they will perhaps meet the same condemnation for allowing her to rush into destruction. Then Greece lost ten thousand men, mostly by the exposure and diseases due to the want of preparation for a campaign which was never intended and in no wise prepared, and created a debt of 200,000,000 of drachmæ in sham preparations which were intended only to give color to the threat of setting fire to the Balkans. The present is the third time that the Greek Government had played the same game. The first occasion was after the Russo-Bulgaro-Turkish war, and the Powers made some concession; the second I have already spoken of, when the only reply was the blockade; and now the Greeks were simple-minded enough to suppose that the game could be successfully played for the third time. The policy imposed on the Powers was to remove all the outlying combustibles and let the Greek Government have its way, because in no other manner was the necessary lesson to be taught.

Having had the opportunity of taking an effective part in the efforts to extinguish the conflagration so unscrupulously kindled by Delyannis in 1886, and having, as I thought, so rendered Greece a service, because the orders given to the Turkish commander-in-chief had been to march directly on Athens if the attacks on the frontier continued another day, imagine my feelings—rather of amusement than of annoyance—at being told by the patriots in Athens that I had aided to prevent the Greeks from going to Constantinople, and caused them to lose their great opportunity! It was impossible to convince them that they were utterly unprepared for war—that the Turks would find no serious obstacle to a march on Athens—they were convinced that "any Greek was equal to any ten Turks," that the Greek army would have had only a triumphant march before them, and that the Turkish Empire would have faded away for ever. I had many times said to my Greek friends, "Why do you not send your war-ships to sea to manœuvre and practise with their guns? Why do you not put the army through some practical manœuvres in the field and drill them to marching as other countries do?" The only reply was that it was not necessary—the Greeks were so clever that they would do all these things without study; they would come naturally, and the practice cost too much money. Even Tricoupis, who was by no means ignorant of the deficiencies of the Greeks, was under the same delusion as to the superiority over the Turk. He said, "We could not fight against European troops, but, as we have only to meet the Turks, our soldiers are well enough organized for that."

With this conviction widely spread through the nation, it was easy to anticipate the consequences of Delyannis's efforts to stimu-

late public feeling to the point of making war inevitable, and thus enabling him to say to the Powers that the excitement was such that the Government could no longer control it, and that not only the ministry but the throne would be swept away by the public indignation, if he recoiled without some substantial concession to content Greek patriotism for the sacrifices made. Perhaps he really believed that the Powers were so ill-informed that they mistook the undisciplined Greek masses for an efficient army, and that they could possibly apprehend the contingency of a successful raid of the Greek troops into Macedonia, and a general mêlée, in which they might become entitled to a share in the proceeds. In any case, though he was able to raise the war feeling, he was unable to control it, and, when the movement had escaped him and war became inevitable, he tried another shallow expedient—that of making war unofficially by means of the irregular bands of the Ethnike Hetairia, which were to invade Macedonia, and, having cut the roads and telegraphs everywhere, were to hold the passes for the regulars to follow up their successes. If the positions were taken, and could be held, then war would be declared; if not, and if the Turkish army attempted to punish official Greece for the invasion, then Greece would disclaim responsibility for the war, on the ground that it had not been made by the Government, but by insurgents and volunteers, for whose action the Government did not recognize the responsibility. And, again, Delyannis might have been simple-minded enough to believe that this excuse would weigh with the Powers, whose agents were watching the transparent manœuvres; but no man in the full possession of his reason could have so deluded himself as to suppose that this pretext would not be seen through.

The ultimate consequences of the war are most disastrous to Greece. It is not only as a great defeat that the nation must regard it, but as a defeated trick which puts Greece out of the running for the next fifty years in the race with the other nationalities of the Balkans, leaves her bankrupt in credit, military reputation, and prestige, and gives the front place to the Bulgarians, who have already established their reputation for thrift and the solid qualities which are the true roots of national prosperity, and who are firmly established in European consideration as a progressive people. By it Macedonia is definitively lost to the Greeks, and Turkey has gained a renewal of her character as a military power, not merely as having defeated the Greeks, but as having shown that for mobilization and military administration and as a military power, useful to her friends and not to be neglected as an enemy, she maintains her old distinction. The Greeks have shown that, though they are personally brave enough, they have not the more important and really indispensable qualities of patience, common-sense, and docility; that their national vainglory had eaten up all their civic virtue, and that, though they have not developed in modern times another Themistocles or Leonidas, they have a great abundance of Cleons.

Superficial thinkers have sought to establish a comparison between Greece and Piedmont, the basis of the Italian kingdom; the comparison does not hold. Piedmont made it her first care to find points of agreement and alliance with those of the European Powers whose interests agreed with her own, then to organize her finances and to form a small army which should be able to take place among the soldiers of the great Powers on equal terms, and then, and only then, made her movement for the liberation of Italy. The Greek army, on the occasions prior to the present when it was sent to the frontier, was utterly inefficient. I remember in one instance that half the men fell out, foot-sore, on the first day's march, and that the artillery broke down completely before reaching the frontier, every gun being dismounted. During the Russo-Turkish war of 1878 there was a convention between King George and the Czar that if, by a certain date, the Greek army should pass the frontier, Greece should be considered in the conditions of peace. On the given date not a single battalion was ready to pass the frontier, and the Czar gave the King three months more; at the end of these there was still nothing ready, and, when the Congress assembled, the ministry hurried a few battalions over the frontier, and, after two or three days, these were compelled by hunger to return, having forgotten the commissariat. And all these blunders have taught the Greeks nothing except to increase the severity of the conscription and the numbers of an ill-organized army, where discipline and compactness were the most important requisites. W. J. S.

THE OPENING OF THE PICTURE SEASON.

LONDON, April 25, 1897.

The season of pictures cannot be said to have opened brilliantly. Though I have yet to see the two Salons in Paris, I have heard the French critic's wail over their commonplace—his lament that while so many thousand men and women can paint nowadays, there are so few who ought to be painting: the high average of technical excellence attained, to absolutely no artistic purpose, in the end becomes depressing, dispiriting. Now, in England the same complaint can scarcely be made. The many cannot paint; but, what is worse, they do, so that it is the low level with which the innumerable painters are content that proves so discouraging on our side of the Channel.

This is no very novel state of affairs, to be sure. But, somehow, one seems to feel it more keenly that even at the New Gallery Exhibition, which has just held its private view, the same criticism is applicable. Here is a gallery started a very few years since to succeed the old Grosvenor, which, after all, many as may have been the follies it was popularly supposed to countenance, did have a definite reason for its existence, and, in its rather short career, did develop a definite policy. It was intended to serve as headquarters for the English independents or secessionists who happened, at the time of its founding, to be the followers of pre-Raphaelitism. It was to give shelter, really, to whatever, for one reason or another, could not find favor at the Academy. The New Gallery was thought to have taken over these traditions; otherwise there would have been no need for another big exhibition hall in London, already more than amply stocked, where, besides, so little work worth exhibiting is produced. For a year or two, Sir Edward Burne-Jones and his school made a brave enough showing to lend a special character to the Gallery. Sir Edward Burne-Jones himself has not failed—he is still well in evidence; but the school has dwindled and weakened until any display it may attempt is passed unnoted. There are to-day a few men unrecognized at Burlington House who could bring to the exhibition a greater distinction than it even yet has boasted; but the policy of directors, or management, now seems to be to gather together a collection that will resemble a lesser Academy as closely as possible. Academicians are the prominent contributors, and it stands to reason that Academicians, as a rule, will reserve their principal work for their own walls. If, after the other usual exhibitors at the Academy are provided for, space is left for any notable outsiders, these seem to be selected from the rapidly growing ranks of amateurs—titled by preference.

Artists, unfortunately, are but human, and most of them depend upon art for their daily bread and butter. The Old Master, thanks to the more favorable conditions prevailing in his time, could play the salesman without disguise. But the modern painter, whose work really is not wanted, and who must therefore create the demand for it, simply cannot afford the same independence. His patron is not the church, not the state, not the guild or corporation—though why it should not be is among the mysteries of the civilization of which we are so proud; his hope, rather, lies, on the one hand, in the brand-new millionaire who has had no ancestors to collect his pictures for him, and, on the other, in the amateur whose whims and fancies, in consequence, are not to be disregarded. If it amuses the ambitious amateur to exhibit with professionals, why should the amusement be denied him? The wish is one so easily gratified. As a result, we have the curious spectacle in London of the second of the most important exhibitions of the year amiably yielding itself to the inroads of the dilettante.

I do not think I exaggerate in my description of the present Academical and amateurish aspect of the New Gallery. I have looked carefully and conscientiously for work of merit or note that would not be as apt to claim admission at the Academy—to open only a week later—and I find nothing but Sir Edward Burne-Jones's large "Pilgrim of Love," which, to be honest, is not in itself of sufficient beauty or charm to redeem the exhibition from dulness. Two lines from Swinburne have served as inspiration:

"Love that is first and last of all things made,
The light that moving has man's life for shade."

The meaning is not over-clearly illustrated by a sad winged Love, with the ungainly feet and ankles too many of Sir Edward Burne-Jones's angels and maidens reveal below their draperies, leading a distorted, ill-shapen Pilgrim among symbolic brambles and allegoric flights of birds across a wide, desolate, blue-gray landscape. It is not to be ranked with the finest conceptions of the painter; the details are clumsy and tedious in their symbolism; the weakness of drawing is more than usually apparent in the figures. But the scheme of color is not without effectiveness, not without a poetic melancholy, and the composition, as a whole, has a decorative value that would tell better in more appropriate and congenial surroundings.

Of course, there are other paintings that interest one. It would be tragic, indeed, were the New Gallery entirely barren of good work. But to turn to the portraits is to discover that it is an Academician, Mr. Sargent, who contributes the strongest and most striking. His "Mrs. George Swinton" is a characteristic full-length of a lady, in all the splendor of white evening dress and regal jewels, standing simply, with one hand on a chair, the other resting on her hip, keeping her place well within the frame, superbly drawn and superbly painted; if anything, really, her silken draperies are too well painted, for there are times when one wonders if Mr. Sargent does not run the risk of becoming, like his master, M. Carolus-Duran, unduly preoccupied with the gorgeousness of the gowns worn by his sitters. Personally, I like better a quieter little study he shows of a lady singing by lamplight, since in this he has thought less of the gown, admirably rendered as it is, for sheer delight in the beautiful golden glow thrown upon the animated face by the lamp and the elegant poise of the uplifted head. Another portrait that would hold its own anywhere is by Mr. Arthur Melville, the strongest of the little group known as the Glasgow men. I should say that study of Velasquez and Whistler had suggested the dignified arrangement and quiet color—the man in brown knickerbockers facing one from the long narrow canvas, the brownish gray background but vaguely indicated. However, to say this is not to find fault; under what better masters could he have studied? Portraits there are, too, by Mr. Watts and Mr. Boughton and Mr. Shannon; the first two Academicians, the third an associate; and by Mr. Tuke, who, it is generally believed, will not have to wait much longer for admission into the fold. Probably all four will be represented to greater advantage at the Academy.

However, it is in landscape that English painters at present are most proficient. In a curious, roundabout fashion they seem at last to have arrived at a knowledge of their own distinguished predecessors, whom for so long they had forgotten, and, by way of the French and Dutch Romanticists, to have endeavored to return to the traditions of Constable and Bonington, Crome and Cotman. The garish would-be realism that for years prevailed is gradually giving way to a nobler convention, and if many of the attempts made to realize it are scarcely crowned with success, at least the failures are not so offensive as the landscape recently in vogue in all English galleries and still to a large extent at the Academy and the Institute. Such men as Mr. Leslie Thomson, Mr. Wither, Mr. Edward Stott, Mr. Bernard Priestman, Mr. Lemon, Mr. Tomson, Mr. Peppercorn have had their eyes opened to the romance that is everywhere lurking in nature, and they are doing what they can to open the eyes of others. They are not very original, perhaps, in either their attitude or their method. But for Corot and Mauve, Courbet and Pointelin, they might never have concerned themselves with just the same motives or resolved upon just the same mode of expression. Mr. Stott alone, so far, gives signs of a distinct personality. But the work of all is usually pleasant and promising, often uncommonly good, and forms one of the most agreeable features at the New Gallery.

For the rest, the visitor may find what consolation he can in the names of titled contributors sprinkled gayly through the catalogue, in the last brave efforts to keep alive the gospel of pre-Raphaelitism, in the smug prettiness dear to the British sentimentalist in paint. Humors the exhibition might be found to have, but for its elements of pathos, even tragedy—not peculiar to the New Gallery alone, however—of which one cannot remain unconscious. One remembers what painters, and those not always the greatest, could accomplish when they had the churches of Italy or the guild-halls of Holland to decorate with their pictures of saints or portraits of men. In the modern gallery one sees to what straits they are reduced when they manufacture the masterpiece for no better end than to send it to an exhibition in pursuit of purchasers.

N. N.

Correspondence.

A NEW PARTY AND A NEW NAME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As you have well shown in recent issues of the *Nation*, the most prominent feature in the present political aspect of this country is the loosening of old party ties and a marked tendency towards the disintegration of existing political parties. The great mass of conservative business people of the country, who have been for some years harassed by political disquietude, and are eagerly yearning for peace, stand bewildered between the wild fantasies of Bryanism and Populism on the one hand and the crazy infatuation of protection on the other. The people who placed the Republican party in control of the government last November were promised bread and are getting stones. The only explanation that a plain citizen can imagine for the strangely suicidal policy being pursued by the Republican leaders is the assumption that they are paying, under compulsion, political debts by making a show of passing a Dingley bill and by sending a futile free-silver commission to Europe.

But what is the promise for the future? What will be the political situation four years hence? Will the country again be forced to choose between two wild and destructive extremes of governmental policy, with the same pitiable resort of choosing what appears to be the lesser of two desperate evils? That would be unendurable. Mr. Cleveland's suggestion of the opportuneness for making the Palmer-Buckner platform a common rallying-ground for all the more conservative elements in both the old parties appears to be most timely. But there is reason for fear that the name Democrat, in any connection, will be distasteful to most Republicans, as would the latter to many Democrats. It would seem to be a proper time for a new party name and a new rallying cry. I modestly suggest "the National Conservative Party" for a name, and "Reform—currency, tariff, and civil service," as the motto.—Respectfully,

T. G. Dabney.

Clarksdale, Miss., May 10, 1897.

FEDERAL INCORPORATIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: If we are to have a new party, of a kind to impress itself upon the future history of our country, as some of your correspondents say we should, we must have an issue, or issues, of wider scope than the tariff or the reformation of our finances, supremely important as these are. There must be something more aggressive around which the people can rally. We can hardly say, "Down with bossism," because it is questionable if that principle can be eliminated (Goldwin Smith, in the current issue of the *North American Review*, says it cannot) from our present system of government. It would be appropriate for Congress, with a power over interstate commerce that has been exercised only in a limited degree, to require corporations doing an interstate commerce business to act under federal charters. Chief Justice Marshall, in 1819, in McCulloch vs. Maryland, laid down the rule that Congress has power to create a corporation whenever to do so is an appropriate measure to carry into execution its enumerated powers. Congress, so far, with its indirect relations to corporations that do an interstate business, those of transportation and trade, has failed to regulate interstate commerce in a way that satisfies either corporations themselves or the public. If it should demand, in the execution of this one of its enumerated powers, that such corporations should act under charters issued by itself, or according to its statute, it would, besides making easier of accomplishment its direct object, cleanse our national life of its greatest source of political corruption—namely, the blackmail of the largest corporations by State Legislatures, through the State bosses.

J. C. Welch.

Brooklyn, May 15, 1897.

PENNSYLVANIA AGAIN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Mr. Wanamaker's recent letter to the Business Men's League, declining its request that he be a candidate for the nomination for State Treasurer, is now a part of the ancient political literature of this commonwealth, but it cannot be without interest to all who are watching the workings of events as they tend towards the contest for Congress next year. He says the State Treasury carries a constant balance of many millions of idle money on deposit in selected banks—in August, 1893, it reached over $9,000,000—while public schools and State charities are suffering for unpaid appropriations, and that this has been going on ever since the war and ought to be stopped. And he might have said the same thing of the city of Philadelphia, if he had thought it worth while to be critical. And he might also have ventured the remark that he and his associates in the Republican League of Business Men have known it all the time, and that some of them have seats in some of the boards of the banks where the deposits are kept. But the letter is directed at Senator Quay's control of the State Government and not at David Martin's control of the city of Philadelphia, and herein lies its significance. The chance of chances will come next year when a Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and Secretary of Internal Affairs are to be elected, besides the Congressmen and the Legislature which will elect Quay's successor to the United States Senate. There are great possibilities in that situation, far beyond anything offered by the

present conditions. So Quay will get his Treasurer and Auditor-General into office for their respective terms, and will get his "reform" bills through the present Legislature if he wants to; and next year he will turn Sunday-school superintendent himself.

This, then, is the situation. The people of this great commonwealth are expected to continue the operation of the State Treasury as an adjunct of the Republican State executive committee under Senator Quay's control until next year's elections open the way to "harmony" by bringing all the important offices into the deal. And it is a situation of which the sound-money Democrats alone can take any advantage. The silverites, under Black and Sibley and Kerr and Garman, can offer nothing, for they have nothing to offer. They cannot deliver anything if they do offer it. They haven't even the wind which last year raised a little dust and obscured their meagre numbers and weak position. Their leaders are nondescript, and their followers are the disappointed rank and file of a once splendid party whose principles they supported with honest zeal. If the sound-money Democracy will put into the present canvass such a ticket as it alone can nominate, proclaim its determination to abolish the outrageous corruption fund which is the subject of Mr. Wanamaker's pretended anxiety, reaffirm the Allentown and Indianapolis platforms, and make a vigorous campaign during this year and next, it will draw to its support all of the good elements in all the parties—and these are a majority.

B. C. P.

MEDIA, May 18, 1897.

THE COST OF WITHDRAWING THE GREENBACKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your article on "Delay of Currency Reform," you make what seems to me the dangerous admission that the withdrawal of the greenbacks would put upon the country an interest charge of $12,000,000 a year. The charge would be much less.

I speak of the greenbacks only; for the Sherman notes will be gradually withdrawn out of the silver already on hand. The former amount at face to $346,600,000. Of this sum at least $16,600,000 must, by this time, be lost or destroyed, leaving $330,000,000. The cash now in the Treasury, over and above all demand liabilities, is at least $180,000,000, and as no one is in favor of further deficits, it is not going to fall below this figure. Hence, withdrawing the greenbacks involves only $150,000,000 of additional bond issue, or a yearly charge of $4,500,000 a year at the outside. The Secretary of the Treasury might make such an issue under existing laws, and, having then as many gold dollars in the Treasury as there are greenbacks outstanding, the latter would be as harmless as the silver certificates, of which each is represented by one or more coins in the vaults.

At any rate, if the people are made to understand clearly that it is a question of less than $4,500,000 a year, and not of $12,000,000, they will be much more open to approach the problem calmly.

Truly yours, L. N. D.

LOUISVILLE, KY., May 9, 1897.

[We took the figures ($12,000,000 per year) from Prof. Dunbar, who did not pretend to accuracy, but rather overstated the fact by way of abundant caution. His argument was that, even if the saving in interest were as much as $12,000,000, that would be trivial in comparison with the losses which the people suffer in their business from the alternate chills and fever of a disordered currency.—ED. NATION.]

THE POPE OF 'THE RING AND THE BOOK.'

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A writer in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica' says of Innocent XI.: "The fine moral character of Innocent has been sketched with much artistic power, as well as *with historical fidelity*, by Mr. Robert Browning in 'The Ring and the Book.'" Now this is in direct contradiction to every statement in the poem. In the first book, lines 1221-2, the poet says:

> "Pope Innocent, the Twelfth,
> Simple, sagacious, mild, yet resolute."

The story of the poem is included in the pontificate of Innocent XII., 1691-1700, while Innocent XI. died in 1689. The Pope who is represented as speaking in "The Pope" in 'The Ring and the Book,' says (lines 24, 25):

> "Eight hundred years exact, before the year
> I was made Pope, men made Formosus Pope."

Now Formosus was made Pope in 891. Eight hundred years added would bring us to 1691, the year when history states that Innocent XII. became Pope. Innocent XI. became Pope in 1676.

Again, the Pope, in the poem ("The Pope," 10, 11) says:

> "And so I have the papacy complete
> From Peter first to Alexander last."

Innocent XI. could not have said that, because he succeeded Clement X., and was himself succeeded by Alexander VIII. But this Alexander VIII. was the immediate predecessor of Innocent XII.

Again, Innocent XI. died at the age of seventy-eight, but the Pope of the poem speaks of himself (317, 318) as one

> "weighed now
> By twice eight years beyond the seven times ten."

Innocent XII. was born in 1615, so his age at the time he speaks (viz., 1698) was actually eighty-three, almost the age given in the poem.

The name of Innocent XI., before he was Pope, was Odeschalchi, while the name of the Pope in the poem is Pignatelli—Innocent XII. had borne that name.

These are only a few facts out of many to show that Robert Browning, in 'The Ring and the Book,' meant to describe Innocent XII., and nobody else. Mr. Berdoe, in his 'Browning Encyclopædia,' accepts the statement of the writer in the 'Britannica' as if somehow it must be correct, whether it seemed so or not to a reader of the poem. He makes the assertion that the character of Innocent XI. "certainly agrees better with the story told by the poet than does the latter." But if one will read the account of Innocent XII. in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' he will find that that Pope was equal if not superior in character to Innocent XI. In it Innocent XII. is described as "this benevolent, self-abnegating, and pious Pope." Nothing better is said of Innocent XI. Mr. Browning was not required to confound the character of the one Pope with the time and circumstances of the other. But, even if he had done so, the writer of the 'Britannica' article is as much mistaken as ever. He speaks of the "historical fidelity" of the poet's description, when, in fact, it is all wrong if the poet is speaking of Innocent XI.

FRANCIS B. HORNBROOKE.

NEWTON, MASS.

"LIFTING" EXTRAORDINARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Interest in a certain subject has been the occasion of my receiving, within the last couple of years, three books, each of which purports to be a different work, written by a different author; but, on examination, save for the difference in language, they prove to be substantially identical, not only in treatment but in wording.

In 1680, "À Paris," was published a little book entitled, 'Traitte historique des plus belles bibliotheques de l'Europe. . . . Avec une Methode pour dresser une bibliotheque. Par le Sieur Le Gallois.' (12°, pp. xii + 210.) Beginning with Adam, the author treats of the libraries of the Hebrews, Chaldeans, Egyptians, Greeks, and Romans, and of the countries of the Europe of his own day. In the preface ("Avis au lecteur") the author says: "J'avouë que j'ay esté aydé de quelques personnes intelligentes dans ces matieres là, et de quelques Memoires qui m'ont esté communiquez; mais il vous doit peu importer, mon cher Lecteur d'où j'aye pris tout ce que j'ay dit dans mon Livre, . . ." Nevertheless it may interest some who are not readers of Le Sieur Le Gallois to know that his book is in reality a translation, somewhat abridged, of Johannes Lomeier's 'De Bibliothecis' (Zutphen, 1669). The following extracts will serve to illustrate the extent of the indebtedness:

Lomeier, p. 9 (ed. 1705):

"Sethus Adami filius primus fuisse legitur, qui voluerit *Mansuras rudibus voces signare figuris.* Cum enim ex patre audivisset, universalem instare rerum interitum, alterum ex aqua, alterum vero ex igni; ne artium principia perirent, ea duabus columnis, uni lapideae, quae ab aquis, lateritiae alteri, quae ab incendio tuta esset, incidere voluit. Neque vanam hanc esse traditionem facit Josephi tum auctoritas, tum ἀνατολία quippe unam harum columnarum, suo adhuc tempore, in Syria extitisse testatur *Antiq. lib. I., Cap. 3.*"

Le Gallois, p. 6:

"Il est vray que Joseph en ses Antiquitez rapporte que parce que Seth Fils d'Adam avoit appris de son Pere que le monde devoit perir deux fois, l'une par eau, et l'autre par le feu, il fit faire deux Colonnes, sur chacune desquelles il grava tout ce qu'il sçavoit, de peur que le monde n'en fût privé après ces deux destructions universelles. Et cet Historien ajoûte que ce fût pourquoy Seth voulut que l'une de ces deux Colonnes fût de pierre, afin qu'elle resistât à l'eau, et que l'autre fût de brique, afin que le violence du feu ne pouvant rien contre une matiere si dure et si solide les choses qui y étoient gravées se conservassent eternallement."

Le Gallois had put this volume of library mythology before French readers with such success that in 1739 there appeared in London an *exact translation* of his work under the title: 'A Critical and Historical Account of all the Celebrated Libraries in Foreign Countries, as well Ancient as Modern. With General Reflections upon the Choice of Books, and the Method of Furnishing Li-

braries. . . . By a Gentleman of the Temple." (12° pp. x + 206.) Second edition, 1740. A reprint (in a limited edition of twenty copies only) of the first edition was made by Sir Thomas Phillipps, in 1826. The English work is supplied with a preface and a dedication: "To the Right Honorable Richard, Earl of Anglesey"—not to be found in its original. It also omits the page (118) which the latter has "Des Bibliotheques d'Angleterre," the preface stating that "should it [the book] meet with the Approbation of the Publick, the Author will proceed with the Libraries of these Kingdoms." As the French "Avis au lecteur" is omitted, no mention is made of the "quelques Memoires," or any other source of information. Compare, however, the following extracts from each:

Le Gallois, p. 141:

"L'Histoire rapporte qu' Antoine Brieus et Laurens de Cremone allerent par ordre de Gregoire treizième en ce Royaume, pour y voir cette fameuse Bibliotheque [du Monastere de Ste. Croix sur le Mont d'Amara en Ethiopie] divisée en trois parties, qui toutes trois, à ce qu'on dit, contiennent dix millions cent mille volumes tous écrits en beau parchemin, et conservés des estuits de soye. On dit de plus que cette Bibliotheque doit son commencement à la Reine de Saba qui alla voir Salomon, dont elle receut en present une quantité de Livres, particulierement ceux d'Enoch touchant les Elemens, et autres matieres Philosophiques."

'A Critical and Historical Account,' p. 177:

"History informs us, that Anthony Brieus and Lawrence of Cremona were sent by Gregory XIII. into that Kingdom, to see that famous Collection, which is divided into three Parts, containing together ten Millions and an hundred Thousand Volumes, all wrote upon fine Parchment, and kept in silk Cases. We are told besides, that it owes its Original to the Queen of Sheba, who visited Solomon, from whom she received a Present of a great many Books, particularly those of Enoch upon the Elements, and other Philosophical Subjects. . . . "

"A la verité tout cela parroist incroyable," but that a similar case of "wholesale absorption" should happen in the year of grace 1890, seems still more incredible. In that year appeared 'A Manual of Bibliography, . . . By Walter Thomas Rodgers, F.R.S., Lit. London: H. Grevel & Co.,' of which the preface states, "The following work compiled from various sources, English and foreign, is offered," etc. The exact state of the case is that the work is a *literal translation* of the 'Bibliografia di Giuseppe Ottino' (Milan: Hoepli, 1885, second edition, 1892). The compiler has, however, rejected Ottino's illustrations for those of Bouchot's 'Le Livre.' From page 1 to 38 the English work is a good translation of the Italian, with the occasional omission or amplification of a sentence. Then there is an addition introduced as follows: "The abbreviations given are by no means half of those used, but have been selected from booksellers' catalogues which have passed through the compiler's hands within the last six months." The abbreviations are the four lists (Ital., French, Ger., Eng.) given by Ottino arranged as one alphabet! After this the translation proceeds as before to the end of the book. The preface, however, is original! "The following work, compiled from various sources, English and foreign, is offered as an introductory guide to the knowledge of books. It does not pretend to be a complete summary of that vast subject, but merely a key to open other works. Should it awaken in the reader a desire to know more of those friends of man, the aim of the compiler will have been accomplished."

Can we suppose the person who has so attempted to deceive the public to be ignorant of the fact that, with the facilities of to-day for intercommunication, no great length of time could elapse without the origin of the work becoming known?

FREDERICK J. TEGGART.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY P. O., CALIFORNIA, May 5, 1897.

Notes.

BESIDES Edward Bellamy's 'Equality,' D. Appleton & Co.'s May announcements include 'Woman and the Republic: A Survey of the Woman Suffrage Movement in the United States,' by Helen Kendrick Johnson; 'The Private Life of the Queen,' by a member of the royal household; 'The Outgoing Turk,' by H. C. Thomson; 'Some Unrecognized Laws of Nature,' an inquiry into the causes of physical phenomena, by Ignatius Singer and Lewis H. Berens; 'The Story of Germ Life,' by Prof. H. W. Conn; 'Familiar Features of the Wayside,' by F. Schuyler Mathews; 'Beauty and Art,' by Adam Heaton; and a new story, 'Wayside Courtships,' by Hamlin Garland, whose publishers in a special sense Messrs. Appleton now become.

The Macmillan Co. is about to publish 'The Boston Browning Society Papers, 1886-1897,' from the pens of T. W. Higginson, Prof. Royce, Rev. Charles G. Ames, W. J. Rolfe, and other well-known writers.

Henry Holt & Co. have nearly ready 'Svengali's Diary'; also, 'Sketches in Lavender, Blue, and Green,' by Jerome K. Jerome.

'Medical Climatology,' by Dr. S. Edwin Solly, late President of the American Climatological Association, is in the press of Lea Brothers & Co., Philadelphia.

George Routledge & Sons anticipate the diamond jubilee with a 'Life of Her Majesty, Queen Victoria, 1819-1897,' by G. Barnett Smith, who also supplies 'Principal Events in the Queen's Reign, Arranged in Chronological Order'; and with 'National Progress during the Queen's Reign, 1837-1897,' by Michael J. Mulhall. They announce, further, 'Nansen and the Frozen North,' by John Black, and 'The Romance of War, or the Highlanders in Spain,' by James Grant.

Speaker Reed furnishes an introduction, and President McKinley a history of tariff legislation 1812-1896, to the works of Henry Clay just about to be issued by the Henry Clay Publishing Co., 35 Nassau Street, New York, in seven octavo volumes, illustrated.

The Century Co. have in preparation a new edition, with an additional chapter, of 'The Autobiography of Joseph Jefferson,' and 'The Scholar and the State,' essays by Bishop Potter.

'Wild Norway,' by Abel Chapman, and 'The Sportsman in Ireland,' by "Cosmopolite" (Vol. III. of "The Sportsman's Library"), are in the press of Edward Arnold.

The next publication of the Caxton Club of Chicago will be Derby's 'Phœnixiana,' edited by John Vance Cheney, in two volumes, 12mo, with an etched portrait of Captain Derby on India paper, by W. H. M. Bicknell after the painting by F. B. Carpenter, and an appendix of several pieces, together with ten humorous pen-and-ink sketches by the author, never before published. Advance subscriptions to the 150 copies for sale should be made to the club's Treasurer, Mr. George Higginson, jr.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press 'First Spanish Readings,' by Prof. J. E. Matzke, of Stanford University.

J. Mesinas of Lima, Peru, has just issued the "parte preliminar" of a work entitled 'Geografia Comercial de la América del Sur,' by Carlos B. Cisneros, Secretary of the Geographical Society of Lima, and Rómulo E. Garcia. The work will consist of twelve volumes, to issue at regular intervals, the price being one *sol* each volume, or £1 for the entire set. It is intended to serve as a guide to the importer, merchant, and commercial traveller, giving statistics as to trade and commerce, leading productions, routes of communication, etc., respecting all points of any considerable importance in South America. Separate maps of all the South American states will accompany the work.

The first instalment of a new illustrated history of the French Revolution, by the Danish scholar Bering-Liisberg, is announced in the Copenhagen papers. While this work will probably not pretend to contribute new material, its numerous illustrations, many of them reproductions of contemporary paintings, will give it an interest beyond the rather narrow limits of the Danish reading public.

The hundredth anniversary of the birth of the Danish poet Henrik Hertz is to be celebrated in Copenhagen by the publication of a selection of his dramas, to consist of twenty-one of the comedies and tragedies that have retained their popularity to the present day. Although in this country Hertz is known almost exclusively by his charming romantic play "King René's Daughter," which has twice been translated into English, in Denmark his tragedy "Svend Dyrings Huus," and his comedy "Sparekassen" (The Savings-Bank)—the latter revived at the Royal Theatre three years ago—are regarded inferior in interest only to his romance. Hertz was above all a Copenhagener. In Copenhagen he was born and lived and died, for Copenhagen he wrote, and by Copenhagen he is remembered and loved as few writers of a past generation. In spite of his importance for the Danish drama, no biography of Hertz exists; the most satisfactory substitute being the selection of letters published two years ago. It would be a fitting further celebration of his centennial were some admirer among the half-dozen Danish critics to present us with an outline of his life and works, some portions of which at least would undoubtedly find interested readers on this side of the Atlantic.

'Madagascar before the Conquest,' by the Rev. James Sibree (Macmillan), is not likely to tempt the general public, if for no other reason because it is far too full of hopelessly long Malagasy names to be easy or pleasant reading. The different chapters, of varying interest, are loosely strung together, furnishing a mass of miscellaneous information rather than a complete picture of any sort. The volume must be meant for those only who, knowing a good deal about Madagascar already, wish to pick up some additional crumbs of solid fact, which the author is entirely competent to offer, as he is a missionary of more than thirty years' standing who has already written two books about the island.

One of the most striking tributes to Wagner's poetic genius lies in the fact that every year adds a book or two to the list of those which are concerned with the dramatic and poetic side of his operas alone. Miss Constance Maud, who a year or two ago wrote a book entitled 'Wagner's Heroes,' has now followed this up with a companion volume entitled 'Wagner's Heroines' (Edward Arnold). It is concerned, however, only with *Brunhilda*, *Senta*, and *Isolda*, the others—*Elsa*, *Eva*, *Elizabeth*, and *Kundry*—having been sufficiently dwelt on in the earlier volume. It is not quite obvious why the author changes Brünnhilde and Isolde to Brunhilda and Isolda, since newspaper critics and lovers of Wagner, in speaking of his heroines, always use the names as he wrote them. Apart from this peculiarity there is little fault to find with Miss Maud's book, which is written in a way that will make it entertaining to those to whom it is dedicated—"all children, big and little, who liked 'Wagner's Heroes.' "

When the two volumes of Hans von Bülow's 'Early Correspondence' appeared in Germany, a few years ago, they were noticed in these columns at considerable length. Brief mention will therefore suffice of the English version by Miss Constance Bache, which the Appletons have issued in one volume. Miss Bache, who is a most proficient and idiomatic translator, has wisely omitted those of the 240 letters which were likely to interest Bülow's countrymen only, or which his widow might as well have omitted altogether. The Bülow literature is not extensive, and nowhere else is that remarkable pianist, pedagogue, and conductor so interestingly depicted as in these letters. Miss Bache thinks that Bülow has been, with the exception of Wagner, the "best-abused" musician of our time, but this is hardly correct, as that amiable and persuasive missionary for Wagner, Franz Liszt, came in for much harder blows. Nor is it correct to speak of "the *Schimpfwörterbücher* that Wagner's enemies published about him," since these collections of abusive epithets were gathered by his friends with humorous intent and as warning examples.

Thomas Tapper, author of 'Chats with Music Students' and 'The Music Life and How to Succeed in It,' has issued a third volume of short essays entitled 'Music Talks with Children' (Philadelphia: Theodore Presser). Mr. Tapper holds that "our failure to present music to the young in a manner that interests and holds them is due not so much to the fact that music is too difficult for children, but because the children themselves are too difficult for us." He believes that "the teacher's knowledge is not a hammer, it is a light." A good deal of light is shed by these chats, which may be cordially commended to all teachers, especially those who wonder why they do not succeed in interesting their pupils in their lessons. The papers entitled "Listening" and "Thinking in Tones" will open up to them new ways of approaching the minds of children and making them comprehend and therefore love good music. Of the other twenty-three "chats" special mention is due to 'Music in School,' which shows in a novel way that music is far from being a mere pastime, but has as great value as any other study in training the intellectual faculties.

A pamphlet of thirty-seven pages, without name of author or publisher (though that of the former, a native Christian, is well known), comes to us from Tokio, entitled 'How the "Social Evil" is Regulated in Japan.' The little brochure is packed full of historical, legal, and social information, and throws a peculiar tint of light upon "the real Japan." The author, who handles statistics with care, thinks there are 500,000 known prostitutes in the empire, but, counting those whose "favors are only a question of money," he reckons a total of "10 per cent. of the female population of all ages" in the repulsive category. The author demonstrates that, in new Japan, law is far ahead of custom. "There is *legally* in Japan no such thing as the sale of women; but custom in the East is far, far stronger than law, and, having been brought up in an atmosphere of unreasoning obedience, the Japanese woman simply submits to everything. . . . Even Confucius is called in to aid and abet the atrocity."

An interesting attempt to teach local history in the public schools is being made in Brookline, Mass. A pamphlet, prepared under the direction of the Education Society of the town, has lately been issued, treating in a clear and simple style the geography and geology of the region, the history of the early settlement of the town and its separation from Boston, old buildings of historical importance, transportation and routes of travel, slavery, Brookline in the Revolution and the Civil War, and, finally, the local government and the relation of the town to the State. The form is chiefly that of question and answer, but useful suggestions to teachers are interspersed, with numerous references to accessible books, and a good bibliography. The pamphlet will repay examination by teachers other than those for whose use it is primarily designed.

Those who deplore the rapid disappearance of our forests will find some ground for encouragement in the annual report of the Forest Commissioner of Maine for 1896, lately issued, in which the results of the first scientific examination of the forests of the State are given. A careful and detailed study of the great timber-producing regions leads Mr. Austin Carey, the expert employed for this purpose, to the conclusion that the yearly production of spruce is not yet overcut, and that, even with the continuance of present conditions and methods of cutting, the volume, estimated at 600 million feet annually, can be maintained for many years. What is to be apprehended is a decrease in the supply of certain kinds of spruce timber, and the depletion of certain limited areas. The pine growth has, of course, largely disappeared, and industrial conditions are not yet such as to render available the enormous hard-wood wealth of the State. Mr. Carey is none too early, however, in urging the need of scientific treatment of the forests, not alone for the prevention of needless waste, but for the actual increase of the value of the timber. The present cut, he points out, amounts to but thirty feet per acre on the gross area of the State, and to but sixty feet per acre on what is now actually spruce-bearing land—an insignificant amount in comparison with what could easily be assured under scientific forestry.

The death is announced of Dr. Johan Peter Julius Hoffory. Hoffory was born in Aarhus, Jutland, Denmark, the native town of his intimate friend the late Karl Verner, February 9, 1855. After graduating from the University of Copenhagen in 1878, he continued his studies at Berlin and Strassburg, and in 1883 was given his doctor's degree by his alma mater. In the same year he was appointed docent in Norse Philology at the University of Berlin, and four years later he was made the first incumbent of the chair in that subject. Hoffory's principal publication is his 'Eddastudien,' Berlin, 1889, only the first part of which has appeared. He also published articles and reviews in technical journals on Germanic mythology. His chief service, however, consisted in the interest that he aroused in Germany in Scandinavian studies. During the last eight years of his life he was prevented by sickness from engaging in severe mental labor.

The dropping of an entire line in the *Nation's* make-up last week quite perverted the sense of the reviewer of Thatcher's 'Short History of Mediæval Europe.' On p. 359, column 1, line 3, read "an avoidance of all *picturesqueness and an emphasis on the* personal element in the movement of events."

—Mr. William H. Goodyear continues, in the current *Architectural Record* (Vol. vi., No. 4), his remarkable series of papers on his "Discovery of Horizontal Curves in Medieval Italian Architecture," with an abundance of ocular demonstration, by photograph and plan, of such curves, as well as curves of elevation. They are not deflections of careless or ill-constructed building, and have no necessary relation to thrust, nor are they the result of displacement by earth-movement. For example, in the nave of S. Apollinare Nuovo in Ravenna, the "columns supporting the clerestory are arranged in parallel curves in plan, of about six inches deflection"; in the Fiesole Cathedral the piers of the nave show parallel returning curves; many cloisters, as that of the Celestins in Bologna, show the four sides convex to the court. The fact that the Parthenon, the temples at Pæstum, and the Maison Carrée at Nismes, along with Egyptian temples, exhibit these curvatures, points to a tradition which the archæologist has still further to explore and to account for on grounds of subtler optical effects than are nowadays considered by architects. Mr. Goodyear says of the undulating pavement of St. Mark's at Venice that "the ceiling of the crypt argues that the main and prominent wave-line (across the church) of the pavement is intentionally constructed."

—Under the title of 'Southern Statesmen of the Old Régime' (Crowell), Prof. W. P. Trent, of the University of the South, has published six lectures delivered at the University of Wisconsin in 1896 as part of a course on the general history of the Southern States. The statesmen selected are Washington, Jefferson, John Randolph, Calhoun, Alexander H. Stephens, Robert Toombs (the last two being treated in one lecture), and Jefferson Davis. The lectures are written in a popular style, and make pleasant reading; and although they offer little that is new in the way of either fact or judgment, they give, with the exception of the lecture on Washington, interesting and effective pictures of the personal characteristics and temper of the men discussed. Prof. Trent has considerable skill in forming striking phrases, although in the use of it he sometimes sacrifices completeness to brilliancy; stripped of their rhetorical dress, however, his judgments do not appear to differ greatly from those of most impartial writers of recent years. The most interest-

ing thing about the book, after all, is the fact that it is written by a Southerner. Prof. Trent belongs to the present generation; he tells us that he cannot remember ever having seen a slave, and he knows of the war and ante-bellum days as historical facts, not as personal experiences. His book is a serious and praiseworthy attempt to estimate at their true worth the characters, political principles, and work of men very dear to the hearts of Southerners of an earlier time. In emphasizing, as candor compels him to do, his frequent dissent from the traditional view taken in the South, it is, perhaps, not unnatural that he should go a little to the other extreme, and give to limitations and defects, rather than to excellences, the benefit of the doubt. There can be little question that the work was worth doing, or that it will need to be done again; for so long as Southern schoolboys use textbooks in American history written under the shadow of the "old régime," so long, probably, will Southern scholars feel it their duty to set the crooked straight. It is much to be hoped, however, that, with the marked intellectual advancement which the South is now making, and of which the volume before us is by no means the least considerable evidence, the necessity for just this kind of historical work may, before long, disappear. Prof. Trent is not always conciliatory, and his book is not likely to be received with favor in certain quarters; but we venture the opinion that he has done something to hasten the day when the dead past will be left to bury its dead.

—The first four volumes of Mr. Thwaites's 'Jesuit Relations' have been filled with narratives which find no place in Cramoisy. The fifth brings us to the threshold of that famous series. It is devoted altogether to Father Paul le Jeune, whose 'Brieve Relation' of 1632 ushered in a set of forty annual reports from the Canadian missionaries. Even among the writings of the Jesuits we shall encounter few more profitable or interesting contributions to the history of the aborigines than his letters to Jacquinot, the French provincial of the order. Those of 1632 and 1633 are both largely anecdotal and full of truthful dramatic touches. Let any one who doubts the authenticity of these documents read what Le Jeune has to say about the Laurentian mosquitoes: "On ne sçauroit travailler notamment à l'air pendant leur regne, si on n'a de la fumée auprès soy pour les chasser." Besides going about with his eyes open, Le Jeune shows skill in presenting his observations. A large proportion of modern travellers publish undigested journals of each day's progress. We believe that the Jesuits were not less exact in describing what they saw, but they studiously culled and arranged with reference to style and rhetorical emphasis. Le Jeune's enthusiasm for the field of his new labor recalls the sentiments of New Englanders who went beyond the Mississippi and threw themselves into the task of developing the Far West. He maintains that the winter sun is warmer in Canada than in many parts of France. He reminds his correspondent that Quebec is on the same parallel with La Rochelle. He believes that when once the country has been cleared and cultivated it will equal Lombardy in fertility and pleasantness. We can best express the enjoyment we have derived from Le Jeune's lively stories and comments by stating that they are well worth reading aloud. The exhilaration of clear frosty weather breathes in his pages. The sober earnest of his cause inspired without oppressing him. What could be more charming in its way than this description of a glissade on snowshoes? "Combien de fois trouvant quelque colline ou montagne a descendre, me suis-je laissé rouler a bas sur la neige, sans en recevoir autre incommodité, sinon de changer pour un peu de temps mon habit noir en un habit blanc, et encore cela se fait-il en riant; car si on ne se soustient bien assis sur ses raquettes, on se blanchit aussi bien la teste, que les pieds." Fortunately there is yet more of the 1633 Relation to be published in vol. vi. The publishers have generously presented to subscribers an extra map of New France, in a paper case, to save them the trouble of always consulting the map attached to the first volume.

—A few months ago, in noticing in these columns Prof. Gerini's book, we alluded to the comparative neglect, at the hands of writers on educational history, of the early Italian humanists, little expecting that we should soon have occasion to welcome a meritorious work on that very subject in the vernacular. 'Vittorino da Feltre and Other Humanist Educators: Essays and Versions—An Introduction to the History of Classical Education,' by W. H. Woodward (Cambridge, England: The University Press; New York: Macmillan), is an attractive volume, superior to the Italian work, as far as it covers the same ground, in composition as well as in accuracy of scholarship and abundance of reference to original sources. In the first part, "A Study of the Life and Work of V. da Feltre," the author unrolls a fascinating picture of humanistic learning in Italy soon after its beginnings. Vittorino was born four years after the death of Petrarch, and entered the University of Padua when there was as yet no chair of either Greek or mathematics. This was in the same year (1396) in which the Studium of Florence invited Manuel Chrysoloras, of Constantinople, to accept the first professorship of Greek in the West. Thus, though he died seven years before the fall of Constantinople, Vittorino witnessed, enjoyed, and helped to promote the new study during the first half century after its introduction. He himself commenced Greek at the age of thirty-seven under Guarini, one of the three scholars able to speak and write the language of whom Italy could boast at the time. Vittorino's best work was done at Mantua, where he stayed in the service of the Gonzaga family from 1423 till his death, in 1446, and where he "established and perfected the first great school of the Renaissance—a school whose spirit, curriculum, and method justify us in regarding it as a landmark of critical importance in the history of classical education." Classical education, we are repeatedly reminded in Mr. Woodward's pages, had, in the judgment of the first humanists, very practical aims, and their humanist enthusiasm was permeated and controlled by the Christian spirit. This was especially the case in the Mantuan school. Vittorino was unquestionably an ideal teacher, whose authority, extending even to the princely family, was due to his genius. One of the greatest scholars of his age, he shrank from every display of erudition; he never published anything; but the influence exerted by his example and teaching was far-reaching and beneficent. The essay on Vittorino is followed by excellent translations of the most important educational essays of Vergerius, Lionardo Bruni, Aeneas Sylvius, and Battista Guarini, and, finally, by a discussion of the "Aims and Methods of the Humanist Educator." We close the book with the conviction that it will be read with delight by many a teacher of the classics and many a student of the history of education.

—In these days, when many eyes have been turned to India as the scene of the recent famine, it may interest the more scholarly public to know that a new translation of a portion of the ancient sacred hymns of the Hindus has appeared. This rendering comes from the pen of a recognized German authority on the Veda, Hermann Oldenberg, of the University of Kiel. The volume itself is entitled 'Vedic Hymns, Part Two' (Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan), and it forms the forty-sixth in the series of "Sacred Books of the East," edited by Max Müller, the preceding part having been translated by the editor himself. Other parts are to follow. Prof. Oldenberg's previous contributions in the field of the literature and religion of the 'Veda,' his 'Prolegomena' and 'Religion,' as well as his works on Buddhism, have won for his name an honorable place among specialists in the Sanskrit field and among those who are generally interested in the ancient lore of India. His present volume is confined to the Agni hymns, or those addressed to the God of Fire; and there is space for translating only the first half of the fire-hymns which the 'Rig-Veda' contains. Critical notes are appended to each hymn. The volume will prove of value to students of mythology, religion, and anthropology, and it is a boon to have so good an index of important words, passages, and explanations as is the index with which the book concludes.

POLITICAL MACHINERY ON THE CONTINENT.

Governments and Parties in Continental Europe. By A. Lawrence Lowell. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 2 vols. 1896.

MR. LOWELL has made a valuable contribution, in these two handsome volumes, to our popular sources of information concerning the governments and parties of Continental countries. The work consists of five essays on the political institutions and parties of France, Italy, Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Switzerland respectively. Each essay consists of two parts—the first, devoted to the exposition of the machinery of government in each country, general and local; the second, to an explanation of how this machinery is worked.

When one considers that this large field is covered in little more than 700 pages of large print and generous margins, it is plain that the work must be very general in character; but, unlike many such general works, it is not on this account superficial. Mr. Lowell makes the impression of a writer who not only has intended to be fair and objective in his presentation, but has on the whole succeeded in his attempt. It must be said, however, that there is just a little of what the Germans call "Tendenz" in the work—that is, a little trace of ulterior ends in the exposition. If the author has not exactly

been looking for evidence in the working of governmental institutions on the Continent in favor of the correctness of certain views of his own formed prior to this investigation, he cannot at any rate conceal his satisfaction when he comes upon what he considers valuable support in foreign experience of his own ideas on American politics.

It is true that the fundamental thesis of the work (if it is proper to use such a term of an exposition which lays down no general propositions) is that one must be very chary of drawing lessons for one's home politics from the institutions and politics of foreign countries. The author calls attention to the fact that most Continental countries on their road towards free government followed in the first instance English example more or less, and adopted a scheme of parliamentary government which, as it lacked the historic basis of English parliamentarism, to use a German phrase, has turned out to be a very different thing in its actual workings from what one expected. The author then attempts to show in what way it became different, and why; leaving us to infer, perhaps, that some other way would have been better. It is easy, of course, to carry this point of view too far. If it is true that we cannot always argue that a certain political device which has proved itself of use in a foreign country will on that account work well with us, we are certainly not justified in going to the other extreme, and arguing that because it has served other countries well, therefore, it cannot be of use to us. As a matter of fact to-day, with the growing tendency towards democracy, and with the increasing similarity of industrial and social conditions, it is probable that every passing decade will show the adoption or invention in some one country of political devices which will prove valuable to many others. The Australian ballot system is a case in point. We ought to keep open mind, therefore, for every new experiment and for every successful institution, with a possible view of utilizing, if not the devices themselves, at least the lessons which may be drawn from their history. It would be difficult after all to prove that the Continental nations, in their attempt to introduce free government, could have done a better thing than to imitate the English system of parliamentary government, in spite of the fact that it has turned out to be such a different thing under their hands.

The declared object of this work, as set forth in the preface, is to investigate in the actual politics of Continental States the workings of the party system in modern political life. Parties are a fact, and as such their manifestations ought to be studied, and the conclusions of the book on this point are summed up as follows:

> "In Venice the absence of parties or factions prevented the State from falling into anarchy and despotism like the other Italian republics. In England the existence of two strong parties enabled the people to control the crown and made parliamentary government possible. In France the subdivision of parties has prevented the parliamentary system from being a success, and both there and in Germany it has been a constant obstacle to popular government, while in Switzerland the subdivision and low development of parties has enabled the people to maintain one of the most perfect democracies the world has ever seen."

The book, in fact, undertakes, however, to deal with only a small portion of the great subject of political parties. It is simply an attempt to study the relation between the development of parties and the mechanism of modern government, and other questions are referred to only so far as they have a bearing on the main theme. From this point of view the work must be pronounced a success and a valuable contribution to current political literature.

The most difficult country to discuss from this point of view is, perhaps, Austria-Hungary, and, next to it, Germany, owing to the complicated system of federal government characteristic of both countries. In each case the author has done his work unusually well. The historical portion, though brief, is to the point; while the present relations are set forth with a fulness and correctness not often found in English writers on German and Austrian affairs. A good instance is Mr. Lowell's discussion of the place of Prussia in the German Empire. One may say that, if the student understands fully the position of Prussia in its relation to its sister States, and to the federal Government of the Empire, he will have grasped the key to the understanding of federal politics. This position cannot be understood, however, merely from a study of the Constitution itself and of the federal laws. Under the German system the various States may enter into agreements with each other in regard to a great variety of matters which are excluded from such treatment in this country. Prussia has, in fact, concluded agreements with many of the smaller States by which they have practically handed over to the Prussian crown some of the most important branches of public administration, thus becoming for all practical purposes a part of Prussia. Prussia contains in its own territory about three-fifths of the population of the Empire, but administers government for more than four-fifths of the population. It is easy to understand that a federal system under which one State embraces practically more than four-fifths of the population and a still larger proportion of the governing and military ability of the country, is bound, in its working, to be so different from such a system as our own, for example, as to be hardly recognizable as belonging to the same class of political institutions.

The author has also given an excellent, if brief, account of local government in Prussia, in which the distinctive differences between American and German methods of treating such subjects come out very distinctly. If any criticism were to be offered on this part of the book, it would be that the space allotted to the smaller German States would have yielded better results for the general reader if it had been devoted to a somewhat fuller account of Prussian institutions.

Exception may be taken to some of the less important statements; as, for instance, that the entrance of Bavaria into the Empire was due to the personal conviction of King Louis, and that if the ministers had been responsible to the Deputies, it is doubtful whether Bavaria would ever have taken that step. It seems pretty clear, on the contrary, that the entrance of Bavaria into the Empire was instigated by Bismarck, who practically offered the King the chance to propose what he must in any case have accepted within a short time, and Bismarck would have regarded ministers as little as he did King. It is not quite true, again, to say that the influence of the Landtag (p. 300) over the administration is confined to expressing an opinion which is not likely to have any great effect. On the contrary, things are taking much the same course in Prussia in this respect as previously in other countries. The power of the Landtag over money grants is steadily growing. Appropriations which were formerly made in lump are now made in a very detailed form, and each item may give rise to debate which affects very profoundly the course of the Government. The author is also inclined, it seems to us, to underrate the actual power of the Reichstag in federal matters, though in doing so he is following most English and French commentators. The power of the Reichstag is, it is true, much smaller than one might suppose from merely reading the provisions of the Constitution relating to this subject, but it is, on the contrary, more effective than one would infer from the statement (p. 256) that its activity is rather negative than positive. The distribution of the seats in the Reichstag has not been revised, the author tells us, for more than a score of years, and was originally based on single-member districts containing a population of 100,000 souls. This is an understatement, as the distribution was practically made for most of the Empire in 1867, and has never been changed, and was at that time based largely on a scheme used in electing members to the Frankfort Convention in 1848—that is, it is in some parts fifty years old.

The chapters on Switzerland are among the most interesting in the book, and the part devoted to the referendum is one of the most lucid and valuable expositions of that much-vaunted institution which have been thus far written in any language. The detailed study of the history of its actual application throws a flood of light on political tendencies in democracies. As in our own country on many occasions, so in Switzerland, public indifference seems to be the most striking characteristic; popular conservatism the next. Nearly all attempts at what one may call radical social legislation have been thwarted when submitted to popular vote. The law limiting the duration of labor in factories to twelve hours a day, and which proposed to protect the women who work in them and to forbid the employment of children during the years when they are required to go to school, was voted down in Zurich, evidently by the working classes themselves. Nearly all attempts to improve the condition of the working classes by legislation, such as compulsory insurance, increased liability of employers, increased school facilities, have met with a like experience.

The chapters devoted to France are of special interest to Americans, explain more fully than any other essay of equal length in English the peculiar conditions of French politics, and enable us to understand the variable temper of the French Chambers. A careful reader of Mr. Lowell's chapters would find plain what seems to so many Americans an inexplicable riddle, viz., how it comes that cabinet after cabinet may fall without any perceptible change in the policy of the Government. He would come to realize that there is a certain method in what seems on the surface to be pure madness. He would soon find in the powers and policy of the committee on the budget an example of committee rule run mad, with the usual result of such an organization of government—inefficiency and extravagance. The

French Senate in this exposition does not seem so far below our own as it might have done before our recent experiences with that honorable body.

The peculiar difficulties with which Italy has had to struggle as well as those which make the problem of government in Austria-Hungary so difficult, are picked out with rare skill by the author and set forth in an unusually intelligent manner. Indeed, one may say that one of the most valuable results arising from a general study of these volumes would be a far more sympathetic attitude on the part of the average American toward the political difficulties and struggles of European countries. He would learn to appreciate the immense opportunities and advantages which have been opened to us for a fair trial of the problem of popular government as compared with our fellow-men across the sea.

There are many other interesting topics on which one would like to dwell, but we may take leave of the work with a suggestion that all persons interested in current political movements and discussions in this country and on the Continent would do well to study it with care. One feature of it is especially to be commended. The author has given full references to the sources of his information, which heightens very much the value of the work for students. In an appendix, he has printed in the original the constitutional documents for the five countries whose institutions and politics are discussed. He would surely have done better to translate them into English. The special student of Continental politics can get the originals in a more convenient form, and the general reader will not be likely to have the technical knowledge necessary to make the documents intelligible.

HOLIDAY'S STAINED GLASS.

Stained Glass as an Art. By Henry Holiday. With a colored reproduction of the drawing for "The Creation," twenty collotypes, and many illustrations in the text from designs by Sir Edward Burne-Jones, W. B. Richmond, R.A., and the Author. Macmillan. 1896.

MR. HOLIDAY'S book is really an anachronism. It is an elaborate treatise on the art of stained glass in which the inventions and methods that will surely revolutionize the practice of that art, are given only brief mention in an appendix on "American Glass." In that appendix he says: "I felt that a treatise on stained glass would be incomplete which did not deal with this important new departure, and the principles to which I strongly adhere rendered it impossible for me to assent to it as a method." Mr. Holiday is himself a designer of glass after the English method, and it is natural that he should consider this method the only proper one. Even in England, however, American glass and American methods are beginning to be used, and it is as certain as anything can be that the older style of work in glass is doomed. In this country we have made many experiments with the new material, and some of them have been far from happy. We have often used it to wrong ends and in wrong ways, but the material itself is so infinitely superior to anything heretofore known that its use is bound to prevail, and the best methods of using it will gradually assert themselves.

To us it seems that the very "principles" which have led Mr. Holiday to the rejection of American methods—principles which he has stated at length in the volume before us, and which are eminently sound—should, if logically developed, lead him to exactly the opposite conclusion. All that he says about the nature of the material, the limitations of the art, its proper aims and its proper technic, seems to us to point to the direction the art is taking in this country as the natural and inevitable course of its evolution. His book is the first systematic attempt we have seen to describe the processes and formulate the principles of the art of stained glass, and we shall try to show in this review that his arguments really prove the conclusion he rejects.

After a brief introduction the book is divided into three parts, under the headings "Material and Technique," "Artistic Possibilities inherent in Stained Glass from the point of view of Technique," and "The Artistic Possibilities of Stained Glass, considered in relation to the Situation and Purpose of the Work." Part I. opens with a definition which, barring the insistence on painting, is admirable: "A stained-glass window consists of pieces of white and colored glass, on which lines and shadows have been painted and burnt in, joined together with grooved leads." On p. 11, certain windows in the Cathedral of Pisa are mentioned, "which consist of little more than a mosaic of pieces of colored glass leaded together without shadows and almost without lines, . . . in some of which even the heads are without features." These windows are considered "unsatisfactory" by Mr. Holiday, but their existence alone would warrant the dropping of the "lines and shadows" from our definition and the reduction of it to the form: "A stained-glass window consists of pieces of white and colored glass joined together with grooved leads." It will be observed that the glass and the leads are the two elements, and that they are of equal importance.

Of the glass, Mr. Holiday says: "The color is in the glass itself, being introduced while it is in a state of fusion." "The color, as a rule, equally pervades the whole of a sheet of glass," but in "flashed glass" it is in a superficial layer, which is "often very unequal in thickness and streaky in character, qualities *which are useful to the artist.*" Occasionally, also, " 'spoiled' glass is to be had where a little of one color has remained at the bottom of a pot in which another colored glass is melted, in which case the old color gets streaked into the lowest part of the new, sometimes with very charming results." Mr. Holiday expressly approves of the use of this "spoiled" glass, though he would not have the artist rely upon it. As such glass is rarely used by the adherents of the older methods, light and shade is supplied by the adding of pigment, which is "a monochrome of a black or blackish-brown color." The leads separate the pieces of colored glass with necessarily prominent black lines, which are "as invaluable for decorative as for structural purposes." The preservation of "the distinctive character and beauty of the material" is the first condition of good work in all the technical arts, and the materials here are colored glass and lead. "As the distinctive character of glass is unquestionably its transparency, the preservation of this is the first duty of the glass-painter." "Splendor of color" is as characteristic of stained glass as transparency, and painting the glass not only dims its transparency, but discolors it, so that glass is unfit for the representation of natural effects or powerful light and shade, and the painted shadows, if used, should be light. Also, the nature of the window is to be flat, and, like other decorations, its flatness should be accentuated in its design. Form is, however, as important as color, for "the glass can be just as readily cut to one shape as another," and "in no other material is form as prominent as in this. The sharp opposition of the colors, the brilliancy of the lights and depth of the darks, and the vigorous outlines given by the leads, all combine to emphasize every form" in a supreme degree.

All these points are dwelt upon by Mr. Holiday, and developed further than we have space for. They are the points essential for the understanding of the art of stained glass and of its newer developments. In spite of the magnificence of the best mediæval glass, part of which, we have always suspected, is the result of the crust of age formed upon old windows, something remained to be done. All modern attempts at producing stained glass seemed thin and feeble in comparison, and attained only brilliancy and glitter, not splendor and glow. Then came the experiments of some American artists, of whom the greatest is Mr. John LaFarge, to obtain a finer result by a change in the manufacture of the glass itself. We can do no better than to quote Mr. Holiday's account of the experiments, merely premising that there was more than one experimenter on these lines, and that there has been some dispute as to the priority of the conception.

The idea was to make greater and deliberate use of those accidents of manufacture which had caused the "spoiled glass" or "streaky-pot," the occasional use of which Mr. Holiday permits.

"By the introduction of opalescent qualities, by letting the colors run into one another, and by twisting and flattening the glass while still soft, he obtained a great many varied and graduated colors. The twisting of the glass gave also creases and ridges somewhat resembling drapery. With these qualities of material at his disposal, Mr. La Farge conceived the idea of eliminating altogether painting on the glass . . . with the view of preserving in its greatest purity the transparency and brilliancy of the colors, and at the same time not sacrificing the light and shade which is wanting in the glass at Pisa."

Such is "American glass," and its use seems the logical outcome of all that has gone before. It certainly conforms to Mr. Holiday's cardinal rule for the technical arts, that their aim should be the preservation of the distinctive character and beauty of the material. The preservation of the transparency and purity of color of the glass itself was the main aim, but the new way of working gives, as we shall see, new importance to that other necessary element of the window, the leads.

Let us take up now Mr. Holiday's objections to the American system and examine them. The first and most important is that "*it substitutes accident for design*" (the italics are his), and accident "is a useful servant, but is the worst possible master." "The only part of the design which it leaves completely under the control of the artist," he says, "is the shape of the separate pieces of glass, and therefore the leads which unite these and form the chief

outlines. . . . Any lines . . . within these, and all shadows, depend absolutely on what the artist can find in the accidents of his materials." If accident were indeed substituted for design in the making of American glass, the fact would be deplorable, but it is not. Mr. Holiday himself points out the necessity of having a large stock of glass, "not for the sake of getting many colors into one window, but to get as much play as possible into each color," and shows how a piece of blue drapery may be made of eight or ten different blues. Now the difference in these blues is the result of accident, but the use of them is the result of design. The American designer has simply vastly increased the number of these utilizable accidents, has an immensely larger stock of glass than the English artist, and has found by experience that, with a sufficiently large stock, he can always find what he wants. The difference is that, in the English manner, the man who paints the glass is the important artist (after the original designer), while in America it is the man who selects the glass. In the most successful work this man is the designer himself.

But, Mr. Holiday goes on, the artist's servitude to accident would not stop with the internal markings or shades; it would extend to the outer contours and lead lines. "The impossibility of making his forms intelligible within the leads will compel him to treat these outer lines . . . so as to make their meaning clear." And why not? We have seen that the lead is an essential part of the window, and that its firm black line is of the greatest decorative as well as structural value. Why should not this inevitable black line become the natural unit of the design? In English work the facility of painting has led to the most capricious and unreasonable treatment of the lead line, which now cuts square across an important part of a figure and now skirts around a great mass in which the essential forms are indicated only by the painter. It is in this direction that we believe the greatest improvement is yet to be made in the art of stained glass. It is too true, as Mr. Holiday observes, that in much American work form has become a secondary matter, and effects of color only are aimed at, but this need not and should not be so. If we will clearly recognize the fact that the two elements of color and form are represented in a window by the glass and the leads, and that the *lead lines alone* ought to make the design as clear as would the outline of a picture, we shall be on the right road. It has so happened that our artists in glass have been greater as colorists than as linear designers, but in designing the leading of a great window there is room and to spare for the highest mastery of linear design.

Mr. Holiday also makes some objections to the color of the American windows as color. The first of these is that the painted flesh is out of key with the unpainted drapery glass, and the second is that, in spite of the transparency of the glass, it fails to glitter. Only painting, he thinks, will give the glitter he so highly prizes. The first of these objections is, in a measure, true, and various efforts have been made to overcome it. One method is to get the light and shade by biting the glass with acid. Another would be to attempt none, and to get what form is necessary with the lead-lines and a few painted outlines, as the early glass-workers did. But as a matter of fact the thin-looking, white flesh of English windows is infinitely more out of harmony with the full color about it than is the most heavily painted head in a window by La Farge. As to the second objection, it is simply a question whether we prefer the sharp glitter of English glass to the wonderful glow of Mr. La Farge's work, and we think that any one with a love of color may be safely left to make the choice for himself.

On the third part of Mr. Holiday's book, which he considers much the most important, and which is much the longest, we have little criticism to offer. His observations on the designing of glass "in relation to its situation and purpose" seem to us usually sound, though it is perhaps regrettable that he should have thought it necessary to mingle them with expressions at great length of his opinions on philosophy, religion, socialism, commercialism, and other things having litle connection with the matter in hand. On these matters, however, he has no claim to authority, and no one need pay any attention to what he says of them; as a designer of glass, his opinions on the technique of his art are entitled to serious consideration and confutation.

JEVONS'S HISTORY OF RELIGION.

An Introduction to the History of Religion. By Frank Byron Jevons, M.A., Litt.D., Classical Tutor in the University of Durham. London: Methuen & Co.

Dr. Jevons's aim is to "prepare the student for the History of Religion," and for this purpose he works in his own way upon the lines of Dr. Tylor's well-known 'Primitive Culture.' Most of Dr. Tylor's book is devoted to "animism," but he does not exclude such non-religious phases of savage and barbarian culture as it is at all possible to grasp, given the uncertainty of available data. Dr. Jevons, however, strictly confines himself to the concerns of primitive religion, and accordingly conveys, in spite of all he can do, the impression that savages were even more completely engrossed by their religious and superstitious practices than we have reason to believe they actually were. This somewhat misleading impression is given because we know so little, and understand so ill the little we know, of primitive culture that any partial account of it must mislead. Another exclusion of Dr. Jevons's is misleading in a different way. He takes advantage of Robertson Smith's now familiar distinction between positive religions — Christianity, Mohammedanism, and Buddhism—and religions of unconscious tradition, such as the various savage religions and all forms of polytheism, in order to exclude from his survey those points of contact between superstitions surviving in Christianity and the practices of primitive worship. Such allusions to Christianity as he makes represent it as the more or less completely expurgated creed of the higher classes and of the Reformation. He contrasts with this the whole-hearted superstitions of savages and the popular and illiterate phases of polytheism. In a word, Dr. Jevons's savage is too exclusively religious, his polytheist is too scrupulously unintelligent, while his Christian is always a Protestant, and an enlightened one at that.

This being noted, we may look on while our author constructs out of the vast accumulations of recorded facts, which he has plainly studied with great diligence, a consecutive, if not a coherent, account of the development of "natural" religion. Out of animism, viewed by him as a hypothetical and non-religious first stage, proceeded "totemism," "the earliest form of religion known to science," which, however, "may be a relapse from an earlier and purer form," and yet (because the idea of animal sacrifice "can hardly be regarded as innate") presupposes a stage where man had not identified his inner consciousness of the divine with an animal species by a process of vain reasoning." Surely Dr. Jevons is bound to mean everywhere what he often says, that this preliminary stage is "animism," a non-religious phase of the primitive mind, and this obliges him as an evolutionist to give up the thought that totemism may be derived by degeneration from a previous and higher form of religion. But, to proceed with the second stage, out of totemism came, everywhere save among the Jews, polytheism. Totemism, however, was potentially monotheistic, according to our author, and among the Jews it developed into monotheism. Finally, out of Jewish monotheism sprang Christianity, "which is so far heir to all the ages as to fulfil all the dumb, dim expectation of mankind: in it alone the sacramental meal commemorates by ordinance of its founder the divine sacrifice which is a propitiation for the sins of all mankind." To derive monotheism from totemism, passing by as irrelevant all the higher ideas and ideals of Semitic and Hellenic polytheism, and attaching Christianity directly to monotheism so derived, is a difficult task, nor has Dr. Jevons been successful in accomplishing it. The connection between totemism and polytheism he makes quite plain, but how totemism could be the germ of Jewish monotheism, with no intermediate stage of polytheism, is nowhere sufficiently explained.

"Evolution is universal," says our author, "but progress is rare." This is so often repeated that we cannot but pause and consider what is meant by such insistence. Magic—which Mr. Frazer and Dr. Tylor apparently agree with Mr. Andrew Lang in placing at the very beginning—is declared by our author to be a phase of deterioration, though he by no means clearly says what preceded it. Totemism also "may be" a degeneration. Fetishism he does not recognize, in spite of Dr. Tylor's constant use of the term. Polytheism, like totemism, is a degeneration. Only monotheism and Christianity are allowed as phases in the evolution of religion which contain that rare thing—especially unprocurable in religion, it would seem—progress. Rather than attempt to fit together three initial phases of degeneration and two closing ones of progress, it would seem better to abandon the notion of evolution entirely. But Dr. Jevons has a view of evolution which, in his opinion, suits just such a case. On page 8 he says: "If evolution takes place, something will be evolved; and that something, as being continuously present in all the different stages, may be called the *continuum* of religion. . . . Now the existence of this *continuum* the historian of religion, if he is an evolutionist, has to accept." We are rather in the dark as to what this *continuum* may be until our author says, on p. 393, "that the law of con-

tinuity must prevail throughout the history of religion," and, after rejecting Dr. Tylor's broad conception of "animism," he adds that the *continuum* is "the belief that all things which act, all agents, are personal agents."

But how, we may ask, does the primitive mind achieve this all-important *continuum*, this primeval conviction that all things animate and inanimate are personal agents? Apparently our author makes man derive this from that "gift by the power of which mankind has conquered the material universe, . . . the belief that what has once happened will in similar circumstances happen again" (p. 17). After all, then, Dr. Jevons's famous *continuum* in religion is a belief in the uniformity of nature. If this strikes us as having little to do with the religious consciousness, we cannot say the same of the innate consciousness of a distinction between "natural spirits" and "supernatural spirits." This most incomprehensible of innate ideas is much dwelt upon in the early chapters, on the supernatural and on sympathetic magic, where it seems to be a yoke-fellow of the innate idea of the uniformity of nature; but at the close of the book (p. 409) Dr. Jevons declares that man derived the "sentiment of the supernatural" not from "external facts of which he was conscious, but from his own heart; the sense of his dependence upon a supernatural will not his own, though personal like his own, was found by him in his inner consciousness —a fact of which he had no more doubt than he doubted that fire burns." Here, then, we find nothing new under the sun, but that extremely old-fashioned "innate idea of God." By the side of it, in order to have something quite new, we may place Dr. Jevons's account of taboo, which is a "primitive sentiment," a "tendency inherent in the mind of man." Having found so many innate ideas, we are reassured by remembering that Dr. Jevons declares that the idea of animal sacrifice can hardly be regarded as innate.

Our author's whimsical combination of a number of arbitrarily chosen and obscurely defined "primitive sentiments and tendencies inherent in the mind of man," in order to portray the history of religion as an evolution which is a succession of more or less complete "degenerations," sounds and seems very odd, and we cannot help noting that he speaks more than once with exceptional admiration and delight of Bishop Butler, and seems to court some sort of association with that learned divine. We may accordingly remember that the ingenious Bishop of Durham has been especially criticised for pursuing his analysis only to a certain point, and then accepting as ultimate what was more or less obviously derivative. However, Butler had little or nothing to say which directly bears upon what the new school of anthropological study calls religious psychology. Dr. Jevons only exhibits in a rather glaring form a modern frailty which is leading some of the younger students of comparative religion to substitute for tentative generalizations, based on known and observed facts, a more or less complicated and conventionalized theory of human nature which is hardly justified by the unprejudiced consideration of recorded facts. It is this conventionalized analysis of human nature which finds its counterpart in Bishop Butler's work.

Looking at Dr. Jevons's book in detail, we find evidence of the most careful study, and his two chapters on the mysteries are remarkably convincing and clear. The defect in what he says of Greek polytheism has to do with his exclusion of mythology from the field of the history of religion. It is of course far easier, as Dr. Tylor long since said, to obtain accurate accounts of ceremonies by eye-witnesses, than anything like trustworthy and intelligible statements of doctrine or detailed recitals of myths. Have not anthropologists been influenced by this in declaring so definitely that mythology does not concern religion? Certainly the omission of Hellenic mythology from an account of Hellenic religion involves the exclusion of what the poets have contributed to the record of Greek polytheism, and results in a meagre and most unprepossessing picture, such as that suggested by our author in the present book.

In closing, we are bound to say that Dr. Jevons has failed to make good a statement in his "Introductory" chapter, where he urges that "to say that the only evolution in religion—except that which is on the lines of the Bible—is an evolution of error, may be quite true, and yet not show that the idea of evolution is inapplicable to heathen religions." It is apparent that Dr. Jevons has succeeded in applying the category of evolution to the facts as he understands them, only by attaching a most strained and unnatural sense to that much used word. The most obvious inconvenience of this will be felt by those students who may seriously accept our author's guidance, and regard themselves as prepared for the study of the history of religion by the present book. It cannot fail to restrict their range of vision and of interest, and they will unquestionably be influenced by it to neglect a large portion of the field of comparative study, and to confine themselves, more or less exclusively, to totemism, Judaism, and Christianity.

An Essay on Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit. By George Meredith. Scribners. 1897.

It is now twenty years since Mr. Meredith delivered his famous lecture at the London Institution on "Comedy and the Uses of the Comic Spirit." The shades of the *New Quarterly Magazine* for April, 1877, received it, and thenceforward it was lost to the general public, though Meredithians like Mr. Le Gallienne would now and again allude to it reverently as to a thing dead to all but themselves. Mr. Meredith has at last exhumed it for our entertainment, as he revived the "Modern Love" Sonnet Series when it was beginning to pass from hand to hand in manuscript copies of the old hoarded first edition. The general reader who reads Meredith will find it agreeable to observe that, through all the novelist's later work, from the 'Egotist,' which immediately followed it, down to 'Jump to Glory Jane,' the echoes of this little essay reverberate still, so that Mr. Meredith's meditations on the Comic Spirit in 1877 have at any rate profoundly influenced himself.

"C'est une étrange entreprise que celle de faire rire les honnêtes gens," says Molière, and Mr. Meredith does not depreciate the difficulties of the adventure. The genius of Comedy demands certain conditions for its development—a society of cultivated men and women to supply the comic poet with matter and an audience; for his subtle delicacy and power of penetration will be wasted unless a corresponding acuteness exist in his hearers. It is this subtle hearer that is so hard to find, at any rate out of France. The man who has a Puritanic scruple against laughing at all, and the man who laughs at everything, will be equally unappreciative of "Tartuffe." If there were more standing at middle distance between these two, the genius of Comedy might flourish; as it is, no wonder the comic poet is so shy an apparition; no wonder that Mr. Meredith, in illustration of the principles laid down in 1877, published in 1879 not such a comedy as perhaps only Mr. Meredith could write, but the 'Egotist: A Comedy in Narrative,' where the "humanely malign" light of the Comic Spirit illumines the figures of *Sir Willoughby Patterne* and *Dr. Middleton*, and hunts them down with "volleys of silvery laughter." Mr. Meredith's appeal to the British public to welcome the Comic Spirit is pathetic in its earnestness and futility. "We have plenty of common-sense," he cries, "and of common-sense the Vigilant Comic Spirit is the first-born. No one would presume to say that we are deficient in jokers; we have a rich laugh" (though not the Frenchman's mentally digestive laugh, the "slim-feasting smile" that comes from the brain). He even recommends themes for the comic treatment, themes which the Comic Spirit would "illumine like very lightning," and sighs for an Aristophanes to throw a sharp light on the affairs of the modern Englishman. Mr. Meredith pulls himself together with the reflection that, were Englishmen confronted with the Comic Idea, and the pessimist and optimist lit up by its oblique beams, it might be more than they could bear.

All this has a familiar ring. The author of 'Friendship's Garland' might have drawn Mr. Meredith's picture of the English middle class to which he appeals with the same persistency and the same despair.

> "They live in a hazy atmosphere that they suppose an ideal one. . . . Of comedy they have a shivering dread, for comedy enfolds them with the wretched host of the world, huddles them . . . in an ignoble assimilation. . . . You may distinguish them by a favorite phrase, 'Surely we are not so bad!' and the remark, 'If that is human nature, save us from it,' as if it could be done; but in the peculiar Paradise of the wilful people who will not see, the exclamation assumes the saving grace."

Is not this the type that Matthew Arnold used to meet "travelling on the Woodford branch in large numbers"? Compare with them the French middle class with Molière for its poet! Here Mr. Meredith might have given us as a commentary the immortal remark of Sir Roger de Coverley on coming from the play, "which I should not have gone to, neither, had I not been told beforehand that it was a good Church of England comedy."

The realistic English comedy of manners —"manners of South Sea Islanders under city veneer"—whose extinction Lamb lamented, is wittily reviewed; in it the true Comic Spirit, the *vis comica* of Aristophanes, had no part; all was *remuage*—agitation; "no calm, merely bustling figures, and no thought, . . . neither salt nor soul." Mr. Meredith excepts Congreve's "Way of the World"—which failed on the stage. The English school has not clearly imagined society, or the mind hovering above it; but the French are better off with their models of comedy to turn to.

Mr. Meredith makes the position of women in society the test of the presence or absence of the genuine Comic Spirit. "There has been fun in Bagdad. But there never will be civilization where comedy is not possible; and that comes of some degree of social equality of the sexes. . . . The higher the comedy, the more prominent part women enjoy in it." Mr. Meredith accordingly decides that "the poor voice allowed to women in German domestic life will account for the absence of comic dialogues reflecting upon life in that land. . . . The German literary laugh is never a laugh of men and women in concert." When we turn to Spanish comedy it is the same tale. The more the sexes are separated, the less chance for the play of the Comic Genius, the more room for tragedy in life and on the stage. A dozen times does Mr. Meredith apply this test and point triumphantly to his conclusions.

He tells us that writing for the stage is an admirable and neglected exercise which "keeps writers to a definite plan and to English." More than ever do we regret Mr. Meredith's abstention from the chastening art. It is only fair, however, to say that this attractive essay is written in perfectly clear English, and though its pages are as thickly starred with metaphors as 'The Amazing Marriage,' there are fewer of the images that stun, more that illumine. The true lover of Meredithyrambic will find his portion in the description of a heroine of the typical English comedy, whose wit is likened to a pistol-shot at a burglar, to steam in an engine, to good wine, to the sword of a cavalier in the mall, to the smack of harlequin's wand upon the clown. We meet again our old friend, the "laugh that flung up the brows like a fortress lifted by gunpowder." But there is a marked absence of the plethoric manner, and one need not be a Meredithian to welcome back this one of the "lost works of George Meredith," whose disappearance Mr. Barrie deplored ten years ago.

Letters from the Scenes of the Recent Massacres in Armenia. By J. Rendel Harris and Helen B. Harris. With map and other illustrations. Fleming H. Revell Co.

In themselves considered, these letters are charming specimens of epistolary correspondence, affording on the one side glimpses into the hearts of two very sweet and lovely personalities, and, on the other side, drawing many gracious pictures of those with whom the writers came in contact — Americans, Europeans, Armenians, and Turks. The incidents of travel are interesting, and the descriptions of life and scenery captivating, while here and there an archæological episode adds still a different zest to the narrative; but above all else there is the tragic interest of the massacre and persecution of the Armenians because of their prosperity and their religion.

Professor and Mrs. Harris went out from England to carry relief from the Friends to the afflicted districts. The report of their work was made in the shape of circular letters, and these letters seemed to those who received them so interesting and valuable that they were circulated somewhat further than was originally designed, which led ultimately to their publication in book form. There are in all thirty-seven letter-chapters. The first letter is dated from Constantinople, March 28, 1896, and the last letter from Samsoon, on the Black Sea, November 22, in the same year.

Professor and Mrs. Harris have made the most terrible arraignment of the Sultan and the European Powers yet made, because they have not arraigned them at all, but simply told what they saw. Their effort seems to be to find everything good that can be said, and to avoid horrors, so far as possible. Over and over again we meet with Turks who show sympathy with their work, or who protected Christians in the massacres; and these pictures of kind-hearted Turks only make clearer the fact, of which incidentally abundant proof is given, that the massacres were, throughout, the result of orders from above, namely, from the Sultan. The Harrises even came across some villages of Kurds who had refused to participate in the outrages, and had been themselves pillaged and impoverished under Government orders in consequence.

The massacre of Eghin took place while Mrs. Harris, who stayed somewhat longer than her husband, was still in the country and close to that town. For a time it seemed likely that the horrors of the winter of 1895-'96 would be repeated through the whole district, and the excitement and alarm were intense. Eghin was the richest town relatively in Armenia. It had escaped massacre earlier by payment of a heavy bribe, but this excited the cupidity of the officials, who made such representations to Constantinople that orders came to massacre the Eghinese also. Mrs. Harris visited the place as soon after the massacre as the Turkish authorities would allow her to do so, and two of her letters were written there.

Everywhere the Harrises found that the men, and particularly the prominent men, had been killed off, leaving great numbers of helpless widows and orphans to be provided for. The men who remained were demoralized. Their houses had been destroyed and their property stolen. They feared to endeavor to rebuild, lest they should be again attacked, or to plant their fields when they had the means to do it, lest those should be devastated once more. In the cities the tools of the artisans had been stolen, and they had no means of earning a livelihood. The social fabric, as Prof. Harris puts it, had been shattered, and it was necessary to try to put together the machinery again, as one would reconstruct a clock. The difficulty of this work was vastly increased by the obstructiveness of the Turkish Government.

The description of the method of distributing relief pursued, so as to help and encourage the people to help themselves, is most interesting and instructive. Everywhere the Harrises found themselves working hand in hand with the American missionaries; and eulogies on the devotion, the heroism, and the sound, practical commonsense of these missionaries occur with a frequency very gratifying to American ears. On the other hand, when we read their story of the attack on the mission buildings and the American missionaries at Harpoot by the Turkish troops and officials, accompanying our admiration of the heroism of the missionaries there is a feeling of shame that our Government practically left them to their fate, and that to this day no one has been punished for the outrage and no indemnity exacted.

The Harrises give a most interesting and hopeful picture of the moral effect of these horrible massacres upon the Armenians in deepening religious feeling, uniting Gregorians and Protestants in one, and calling out unselfishness and brotherly kindness. Some of the acts of devotion and self-sacrifice described are extremely pathetic, and some equally inspiring. Prof. Harris was profoundly impressed with the resemblance between the problems which the Armenians now have to face and those which confronted the early Christians, and uses the former to throw light on early Church history in a most suggestive way.

We cordially recommend this book as very interesting reading, and as at the same time one of the most reliable accounts of the massacres, their causes and consequences, which have yet appeared.

The Mystic Flowery Land. By Charles J. H. Halcombe. London: Luzac & Co.; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1897.

Whether it be the awakening of sympathy with China because of her recent reverses in war, or because she herself seems yielding to reason and nobler councils than heretofore, it is certain that in their recent books Western writers have dealt less patronizingly with her, and evidently with more desire to do justice to a great nation, than was the custom a generation ago. Unless we mistake, there is even something like rivalry in the effort of Occidental writers to show appreciation of the better side of the Chinese. In the present instance, the author, who has been connected with the Imperial Maritime Customs of China, writes from an inside point of view, with appreciation and without exaggeration.

Seven years in China and an acquaintance with all kinds of people have enabled him to see many phases of life in the interior and in the open ports. His touch is light, but his insight is deep. He not only notices the Chinese dress and food, avocations, and amusements; he has studied also that world of imagination and fancy which has ever so powerful an influence on this world of toil and reality. He sees that men are influenced as much by what they think as by what exists. Consequently, we have in these thirty chapters sketches of mythical zoölogy, fairy stories, phantom ships and beings, wind and water influences, and local tales of pathos and of helpful example. Mr. Halcombe gives also glimpses of the dogmas and mysteries of Chinese religion, both as they influence daily life, and as they shape themselves in material forms of pictorial art, sculpture, and architecture. Not a little space is devoted also to the poetry and literature of the Chinese, though these are shown in hints and suggestions rather than in formal specimens. The element of personal adventure is not lacking, and there are some lively sketches of the author's travels, which were especially along the coast and by water. He is poetical, too, and adds seven or eight poems which will touch the hearts of those who remember the lovely scenery of Formosa —now no longer Chinese, but Japanese—of Amoy and of Hongkong. Few books that we remember have so many pretty pictures, both in words and by the reproduction of photographs, of the rocks of China, which help to correct the general impression that the landscape is mostly alluvial and flat. The book is liberally illustrated in both color and half-tone pictures; and in the selection of his illustrative matter the author has manifested great taste and skill.

The timeliness of the work is shown in a very interesting chapter on the great plague of Hongkong in 1894; in which, however, nothing is said about the discovery of the bacillus by the Japanese bacteriologist, Dr. Kitasato. Another chapter is on match-label collecting, which gives in pretty reproduction the richly colored labels used on the tiny boxes. In most cases the themes, both historical and contemporaneous, are Chinese; but the English legend "made in Japan" shows the place of origin of these fire and light-bearing necessities which now penetrate the remotest regions of the Chinese Empire. We notice that this book is printed in Amsterdam, Holland. Both in print, pictures, and binding, it is a good specimen of a moderate-priced book.

A History of Canada. By Charles G. D. Roberts. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. 1897.

THE summer tourist in Nova Scotia is impressed by the height of the tides in the Bay of Fundy, the prevalence of salmon at *table d'hôte*, and the sentimental associations of Grand Pré. One other thing will strike him if he enters into conversation with the natives: they seem to hold aloof from the rest of the Dominion. The local elections give particularist results, and when a "Bluenose" is on the point of visiting Montreal or Toronto, he will tell you that he is "going up to Canada"—doubtless recalling the union of Quebec and Ontario which existed from 1842 to 1867. Still, there are strong federalists in the province, witness Sir Charles Tupper, Dr. Bourinot, and the present writer, Prof. Roberts, formerly of King's College, Windsor. The latter does not look upon the British North America Act as a final solution, but thinks that it is a step in the right direction. "On this day [July 1, 1867] Canada became a nation free within itself, and bound to the British Empire by a bond of authority so silken that in a quarter of a century it has not been felt to gall." Prof. Roberts's goal is Imperial Federation in some form or other, and he gives Downing Street to understand that Canada, having taught "feeble provinces . . . how to form a mighty commonwealth while remaining within the empire," is fitted "to lead the way toward the realization of the vaster and more glorious dream." We accentuate his political spirit, for it animates his entire work. He sees in the early struggles between France and England the embryonic process by which a great state is being created. Poets are always subject to the influence of national ideals, and Prof. Roberts is by instinct a poet much more than an archæologist. He holds an even balance between the two races in the past, that he may allot each its share in unifying "the Empire of Greater Britain." A single sentence reflects the disposition of even-handed justice with which he approaches Louisburg and Quebec. "Now, in these imperial dominions which Wolfe's triumph secured to British sway, a people is taking shape which bids fair to combine the power and genius of the two great races from which it springs."

Prof. Roberts is more than a patriot; he is a rhetorical patriot. Herein lie elements of both strength and weakness. Restricted space invites intensity of utterance, and yet strong language, too frequently employed, loses its effect. The venial sin of gorgeous phrasing becomes heinous at times, especially in its connection with an account of Canada's resources. Prof. Roberts's section, 109, on "Material Progress," reads like an immigration tract. It is not to the immediate purpose that Canada's "fisheries are the most extensive in the world," or that "she may reasonably look to become the chief of all wheat countries." There is a proper place for stating these facts, but a note of weakness is surely sounded when they are elaborated in such a context. Canada's history is rich enough to save its writers from falling back on lobsters and grain to produce their effect. Judge Prowse, in his 'History of Newfoundland,' had an intelligible excuse for cataloguing the industrial resources of that island, since, when he wrote, its credit was in the last stage of decrepitude. Canada is solvent and fairly prosperous. We consider "tall talk" of this sort in bad taste wherever we find it in works that make literary pretensions. We cannot but deem it a fault in Prof. Roberts's text, otherwise very good and interesting.

This book is intended for the general reader. Footnotes are scarce and there are practically no references to authorities. The narrative is brisk; the treatment almost always adequate to the purpose, though we could well have spared to the Quebec Act a page or two from the later chapters. A few slips of the author and his printer need to be rectified. We are told that Brébeuf's courage failed on hearing the news of Viel's death, and that he turned back. This is far from being the case. "The whole Huron nation presently bowed to their [Jesuit] guidance," is also a statement which must be challenged. Prof. Roberts's description of the 1663 earthquakes follows legend rather than geological testimony. It was not "the weak Louis XVI." who attacked Frederick the Great in the Seven Years' War. "*Russia* and Austria," p. 163, is a misprint for Prussia; and "1674" on p. 208, for 1774. One would gather from p. 195 that the United Empire Loyalists left a mere rabble behind them. Prof. Roberts overlooks the part which economic causes played in the settlement of the Eastern Townships. Dr. Selwyn is not the present Director of the Geological Survey, nor should the *Eozoön Canadense* be authoritatively styled "the first of creatures." We pass rapidly over these slight errors to observe that the main outlines are firmly and skilfully drawn. Prof. Roberts compresses within the dimensions of a manual more than a little of the zest of history.

National Epics. By Kate Milner Rabb. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 1896.

THIS volume, which proceeds from a lady in Indianapolis, "is intended for an introduction to the study of the Epics." It aspires to give the general character of each of the world's great epic poems, and, where possible, of the author; a list of authorities; an analytic summary of contents, and select passages, which, in every case except Milton's two epics, are translated. The title is certainly open to criticism when we find the 'Pharsalia' and the 'Araucana' omitted—epics which are certainly national—while 'Paradise Lost' and 'Paradise Regained' are included, which as surely are not. It seems, also, as if some better idea of proportion might be devised whereby the dreary wastes of the 'Kalevala' should be traversed more rapidly, and the least attractive book of the 'Æneid' not expanded beyond the space given to the most so.

The author, of course, cannot be expected to have mastered the immense mass of epic literature at first hand; but where she may fairly be expected to have done so, she shows evidence of very superficial knowledge. Pope's 'Homer' and Fairfax's 'Tasso' are referred to as if recent works, and their chronological place is wholly obscured. In the very beginning of the 'Æneid' we are favored with the eternal high-school blunder, "opposite Italy, and far off from the Tiberine mouths." And what possible object can there be in recasting the finest speeches in 'Paradise Lost' into prose more artificial than verse? The work undertakes too much—and breaks down.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Altsheler, J. A. The Sun of Saratoga: A Romance of Burgoyne's Surrender. Appletons. $1.
Baker, Miss C. Alice. True Stories of New England Captives. Cambridge: The Author.
Balzac, H. de. The Lily of the Valley. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Bastable, Prof. C. F. The Theory of International Trade. Macmillan. $1.25.
Brown, D. W. The Factors of Shorthand Speed. New York Shorthand Publication Bureau.
Buckham, James. The Heart of Life. Boston: Copeland & Day. 75c.
Bullock, C. J. Introduction to the Study of Economics. Silver, Burdett & Co.
Cameron, Prof. A. G. Selections from Pierre Loti. Henry Holt & Co.
Carpenter, F. G. Carpenter's Geographical Reader. Asia. American Book Co. 60c.
Chapman, F. M. Bird-Life: A Guide to the Study of our Common Birds. Appletons. $1.75.
Coubertin, Pierre de. Souvenirs d'Amérique et de Grèce. Paris: Hachette.
Crane, Stephen. The Third Violet. Appletons. $1.
Dalton, Edith L. A Slight Romance. 2d ed. Boston: Damrell & Upham. 50c.
Day, Sarah F. Helpful Thoughts for Quiet Hours. Boston: Pilgrim Press. $1.75.
Drumont, Edouard. Mon Vieux Paris. Deuxième Série. Paris: Flammarion; New York: Brentanos.
Emerson, Sarah H. Life of Abby Hopper Gibbons; Told chiefly through her Correspondence. 2 vols. Putnams. $3.
Florio's Montaigne. Vol 2. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Goodell, Abner C. An Address in Commemoration of the Six Hundredth Anniversary of the First Summoning of Citizens and Burgesses to the Parliament of England. Boston: Rockwell & Churchill Press.
Greene, T. L. Corporation Finance. Putnams.
Guiney, Louise I. James Clarence Mangan: His Selected Poems, with a Study. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.50.
Hammond, Mrs. John Hays. A Woman's Part in a Revolution. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Handbook to Christian and Ecclesiastical Rome. Part I. Christian Monuments. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $2.50.
Hinde, Capt. S. L. The Fall of the Congo Arabs. Whittaker. $2.50.
Hommel, Prof. Fritz. The Ancient Hebrew Tradition. E. & J. B. Young & Co. $1.75.
Hort, Rev. F. J. A. The Christian Ecclesia. Macmillan. $1.75.
Hurst, Rev. J. F. History of the Christian Church. Vol I. Eaton & Mains. $5.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Phantom 'Rickshaw, and Other Stories. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Kirk, Ella B. The Story of Oliver Twist Condensed. Appletons. 60c.
Knapp, Adeline. Upland Pastures: Out-Door Essays. East Aurora, N. Y.: Roycroft Printing Shop.
Logan, J. A., Jr. In Joyful Russia. Illustrated. Appletons. $3.50.
Morgan, Prof. T. H. The Development of the Frog's Egg: An Introduction to Experimental Embryology. Macmillan. $1.60.
Myer, E. J. Position and Action in Singing. E. S. Werner. $1.75.
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The Nation.

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The Week.

The resolution passed by the Senate on Thursday by a vote of 41 to 14, recognizing Cuban belligerency, is a joint resolution; that is, if passed by the House of Representatives, it must go to the President, and, if vetoed by him, may be passed over his veto. In other words, it is treated exactly like a law under article i., section 7 of the Constitution, providing that a resolution to which the concurrence of both houses is necessary (except one for adjournment) shall be treated "according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill." The resolution of last year was, on the other hand, a "concurrent" resolution, which President Cleveland felt himself at liberty to ignore. That is to say, the resolution of last year was a mere pious expression of opinion, as to which the President was not required to express himself one way or the other. The resolution this year, identical in substance and language with the other, is to all intents and purposes a law, which, if it reaches him, Mr. McKinley must sign or veto.

This is one reason why some of those who voted for the resolution last year voted against it on Thursday. They are frightened, and well they may be. The proceedings in the House, by which the Republicans almost solidly voted to prevent the belligerency question from coming up, while passing the relief resolution authorizing $50,000 to be sent to Cuba, show that every effort will be made, probably with success, to prevent the belligerency question coming to a vote; but it is a great triumph for the Cuban plotters to have got their resolution into its present position. On a direct vote there is said to be a majority in the House in favor of it (though this, like many other facts in the case, is, in part at least, a "Cuba Libre" estimate), and during the remainder of the session it will be a menace to the peace of the country. There is only one way in which the matter could be effectually disposed of, and that is by a direct vote of the House, killing it, or a veto. If the House is in favor of it, the former is impossible; and unfortunately there are reasons for thinking that Mr. Reed, who decides what the House may or may not do, rather enjoys the pendency of a resolution which he may " let loose" on the President whenever he likes. It is unfortunate, also, for the country that it does not know whether Mr. McKinley has the nerve to veto a belligerency resolution. Last year the "fat man in the White House" was known to be ready to veto forty. Mr. McKinley is therefore only at the beginning of his Cuban troubles, and if he has the sense, courage, coolness, and decision which he needs, he will have plenty of opportunity of showing them. His behavior with respect to filibustering has certainly been encouraging. Among other lies which the Cubans and Jingoes are circulating is one that the Republican platform makes it necessary to introduce some new Cuban policy. The party was called upon to "actively use its influence and good offices to restore peace and give independence to the island." There is nothing new about this. To recognize belligerency when none exists would be something new, and that is and always has been the plan of Morgan, who is not a Republican.

The condition of things in the House produced by Mr. Reed's continued refusal to appoint the committees is a reproach to a legislative body. Mr. Bailey, the Democratic leader, insists that a resolution recognizing the belligerency of the Cubans shall be considered before a vote is taken on the resolution granting relief to American sufferers. This is a foolish stand to take, but it is one which any Representative has a right to take, and upon it demand the judgment of the House. Well-informed observers report that Mr. Bailey's position is really endorsed by a large number of the Republican Representatives, and that, if the committees had been appointed, it is not at all improbable that his resolution would command a majority. But so long as the committees are not named, Republicans who oppose Mr. Reed's policy of suppressing the Bailey resolution do not dare to open their mouths, and the Speaker is sustained in declaring it out of order by dozens of men who believe that it is in order and ought to be adopted. It is an extraordinary spectacle which the House of Representatives now presents, consenting that one man shall rule it unchecked because everybody knows that he holds the power of reward or punishment, and will use it remorselessly.

Madrid is just now a more strategic point to watch, as respects Cuban affairs, than Washington. In the latter capital it seems to be agreed that President McKinley is not to be raided with belligerency resolutions, or other madcap action by Congress, and will be allowed to develop his own Cuban policy. What that policy is can be best inferred, in the absence of explicit announcement here, from the agitations in the Spanish political world. Already it is clear from the guarded allusions of the Prime Minister of Spain that Mr. McKinley has made very serious representations of some kind to the Spanish Government. It is also clear that these approaches, whether they look simply to our good offices to end the insurrection, or to active intervention in some form or other, have been repulsed by the Spanish authorities. This it is which gives so much significance to Sagasta's present attitude and utterances, and the talk of his returning to power. He has admitted, or, rather, charged, that the Cuban policy of Cánovas has proved a failure; that the island is not "pacified"; that the troops have indeed made a desolation in Cuba, but that even that cannot be called a peace. The Liberals have patriotically kept their hands off for two years, and refrained from so much as criticising the Conservative policy. Now, says Sagasta, that line of action has ceased to be a virtue or patriotic; the time for opposition and for taking office, if necessary, has come. Sagasta, of course, promises nothing, hints nothing, as to his own Cuban policy. But if Cánovas falls for adhering to blood and iron, it is safe to say that Sagasta, if he comes in, will have to vary the programme. All parties in Spain are, of course, professedly at one in determining to hold Cuba with the last man and last peseta; but a change of government in this crisis would certainly improve the chances of a peaceful settlement.

Senator Hoar may deny indignantly in the *Forum* that the Senate has degenerated, but when he speaks in the Senate he is his own refutation. "Is this a circus?" he asked angrily last week, when the prize clown Mason was going through some of his most taking antics. The Massachusetts Senator had to listen to the galleries and an undegenerate Senate applauding Mason's reference to international law and the Constitution of the United States as an "ancient barnacle"; his assertion that he cared nothing for the form of the Cuban Government or the location of its capital, for "if it had nothing but the heavens for a shelter, then I am for that just the same"; and his cheap braggadocio about Bunker Hill and Valley Forge, with his "glowing tribute" to lying newspaper correspondents, and his final hoight of foine language intirely:

> Mr. President, if we did not have a ship in the world and every gun was melted into a ploughshare, if every bayonet was buried, if every ship we ever had was sunk in the middle of the sea, there is no nation in the world, much less Spain, that would ever dare strike our colors or invade American soil.

But the Senate has not degenerated. Senator Mason is the fine fruit of the great moral victory over the machine in Illi-

nois and the illiterate Madden. He imports into the Senate the manners of a bar-room jester, the language and convictions of a swearing Jack of the prairies—but the Senate has not degenerated. Senator Hoar says so, and we infer that he rather likes Mason.

Laws, even when they are tariff laws, are silent in the midst of arms, and the "magnificent" war-ships and the big guns were too much for wool and sugar last week in Washington. Yet the economists cannot observe the warriors' without serious concern. Both Dingley and Aldrich wish to get a thumping revenue from imported sugar and tobacco; but here is the Senate proposing to cut that all off by annexing Cuba. Of course, we all know that the protective theory is always ready to show that imports, which are little short of criminal when they come from an island owned by another country, are the greatest of blessings when they come from one that we own; but this does not touch the practical embarrassment of losing, perhaps, $30,000,000 in revenue. Then there is the danger of still further loss of revenue through having the tariff further delayed. On this subject of delay, however, the *Tribune* strikes a cheering note. It argues that the delay which has allowed the Sugar Trust and wool speculators to make such vast anticipatory imports, will make them very anxious to have the bill pass. If the bill pass, the Sugar Trust will, says the *Tribune*, secure "profits of many millions," whereas if the bill were finally to fail, it might incur "some actual loss." Similarly of the importers of wool and woollen goods; their "anticipated profits" may vanish if "too much stubbornness about details of the new tariff be manifested." Ergo, the Trust and the speculators are bound to make that dangerous stubbornness disappear. What a powerful argument for passing the new tariff the *Tribune* has found. Pass it, or the Sugar Trust and speculators will lose many millions! That will sound well on the Western stump.

The pending tariff bill is entitled "An act to (1) provide revenue for the Government, and (2) encourage the industries of the United States." The rates on rice proposed by the House and Senate are these:

	House. cents.	Senate. cents.
Cleaned	2	1¼
Uncleaned	1¼	8-10
Paddy	¾	¾

Rice associations in Georgia, South Carolina, and Louisiana have sent to the Senate remonstrances against the Senate reductions of the House rates on cleaned and uncleaned rice. Seven reasons are assigned for retaining the protection given by the House. The fourth reason is this:

(4.) With steady and reasonably protective duties on rice, all the markets of the United States will soon be supplied by the American product, and prices will be regulated by home competition.

What will happen to this theory if a "Trust" shall take control of rice production as of sugar-refining? Apart from that danger, how much of the rates in the House and Senate bill was agreed upon for revenue, and how much for protection till foreign rice has been completely excluded? Will the Senate finance committee disclose? The majority of the committee should know, also, how the rates were fixed. On cleaned rice the Senate committee has reported 1¼ cents a pound. What would have been the rate if only revenue had been sought? We ask a similar question regarding the Dingley rate of 2 cents. Of course, a rate was added to a revenue rate, in order to encourage rice industry. What was that rate? And where will the revenue be found when foreign rice is no longer imported?

The sundry civil bill, as agreed upon by the conferees of the two houses, carries an appropriation of $53,622,651. This is practically the same as the bill which Mr. Cleveland vetoed during the last hours of his administration, and regarding which Mr. Cannon, the chairman of the House committee on appropriations, said that its provisions were "in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service." Such is the response of his party to President McKinley's appeal in his inaugural address for "the severest economy in all public expenditures." As the tariff bill will not be passed before the Ohio Republican convention meets next month, the only achievement to which the party can "point with pride" will be some grossly extravagant appropriation bills.

The proposal of three silver Senators —Cannon, Pettigrew, and Dubois—"to sail for China and Japan to study the financial question from the Oriental standpoint," is an excellent one. Japan especially is in position to give them a large amount of valuable information, having just abandoned silver and returned to the gold standard. She moved away from the gold standard in 1878, when the silver yen of 416 grains was made legal tender for all payments. She made several efforts to get back again, but without success until the payment of the Chinese war indemnity in gold gave her an exceptional opportunity. A coinage bill was introduced in the Legislature which provided a new currency system, in which the existing ratio of 16.7 to 1 was changed to the ratio of 32.34 to 1. This was passed with slight opposition, and is to become law on October 1, the silver yen being in the meantime gradually withdrawn from circulation, and gold coins becoming the standard in its place.

The silverite students of Oriental finance will find a great deal to interest and enlighten them in the reasons which the Japanese statesmen gave for deserting silver. Four of these were dwelt upon as having had decisive influence. The first was, that silver caused constant fluctuations in the price of commodities, and that gold would prevent these. The second was, that gold would increase exports by securing convenience of trade with foreign countries, the depreciation of silver having created such obstacles that Japan's export trade had been greatly crippled. The third was, that gold would prevent the fluctuations in exchange which silver caused. The fourth was, that the gold standard, by giving assurance of soundness and stability, would attract foreign capital. These reasons will undoubtedly prove very offensive to the Western visiting statesmen, for they have been irritated repeatedly by hearing them advanced at Washington and at other points in this country. Whether they will prove any more acceptable when presented to them in the Orient, is doubtful. It will naturally be somewhat irritating to travel many thousands of miles to the other side of the globe only to be confronted with the same old "gold-bug heresies" which have become so tiresome at home. But China may give the pilgrims comfort which Japan denies, for silver is having full sway there.

The law signed by Gov. Black providing the death penalty for train-wreckers who cause any loss of life, is only one of several statutes on this subject in different States which have been brought forward during the past year or two. The frequency of this crime throughout the country has become a reproach to the United States, and it has repeatedly been found that no proper provision had been made for its punishment. The truth is, that a new danger has been added to the old perils of the rail by the comparative immunity which the perpetrators of such horrible outrages have enjoyed. One can hardly conceive a more atrocious crime than the deliberate wrecking of a passenger train in Alabama, a few months ago, by so tampering with a bridge that the cars would be dashed into a river far below; and yet it was discovered that there was no law under which the ringleader could be executed. The same state of things has been found to exist in New York, and the law just signed by the Governor is the result.

There have been suggestions that Congress should pass a law under which federal officials could take cognizance of

train robberies and train wreckings when committed upon roads engaged in interstate commerce. Many such crimes are perpetrated on the great through lines in the Territories and the thinly settled States of the Far West, and the local authorities often lack the energy to follow up the offenders. Indeed, it is not in the thinly settled States alone that the administration of justice is found to be more rigorous in the federal courts than in the local tribunals. This is conceded to be the fact almost everywhere, and nothing is more common in the press of all parts of the country than contrasts between the national and State authorities, to the disadvantage of the latter. While there are faults in the methods of federal courts, there is no doubt that, as a rule, prosecutions are more vigorously conducted and penalties more generally imposed than in the State courts. One consequence is a growing readiness on the part of the people to put more and more responsibility upon the national Government in this respect.

The veto of Mr. Roberts's inheritance-tax bill by the Governor had been anticipated by the press and public, because Mr. Black's "personal organ" had been for some time filling its columns with extracts from other papers criticising the measure, and explaining why it could not be signed. The memorandum points out that "the State is not in need of money," which is really a conclusive reason for not raising a tax; shows that there is no reason for it in the fact that some personal property now evades taxation, because the proposed law, "in order to reach those who have evaded, would punish those who have already paid"; that the measure is unfair and unequal, because the "last million" of a man's estate is taxed at a totally different rate from the first, while "every dollar ought under the same conditions to pay the same tax"; and finally, that "the operation of the proposed law might impose the most serious hardships in taxing the same estate several times in a short period of time, on account of a rapid succession of deaths in one family." These are the reasons not only of a statesman but of an honest man; and if this veto had been Mr. Black's first act, people would have applauded him to the echo. He will get little applause now, because he is known, and we regret very much to say that it would take a great deal more than this veto to blot out what is known.

A significant and hopeful incident was the action of the State Diocesan Council of South Carolina a few days ago upon a subject altogether out of the ordinary line of church assemblies. Mr. Edward McCrady, one of the most prominent men in the State, introduced a series of resolutions declaring that "the growing disregard of human life has caused the crime of homicide to become more and more prevalent in our land, until the blood-guiltiness of our people has become an offence and crying shame to the sensibilities of the Church and State"; affirming that "public opinion should be greatly influenced and can be most safely formed upon the principle of Christian morality"; declaring that the council expressed its "solemn condemnation of this terrible evil"; and, in order to arouse a wholesome public sentiment upon the subject, requesting the Bishop to call upon the clergy of the diocese to preach upon some Sunday to be appointed by him against the awful crime, and also to issue an address praying the co-operation of the clergy of all churches and religious denominations in this effort, requesting them to join in preaching upon the subject on the day set, and "appealing to the people of the State to put away the curse of blood-guiltiness which cries out, alas, from the land against us." Some slight opposition was made by one or two speakers, on the ground that the matter in question was the concern of the State rather than the Church, but Mr. McCrady and others urged that it was one of the highest duties of the Church to promote the Christian civilization of communities; and, after an intimation from the Bishop that he favored the movement, the resolutions were adopted almost unanimously.

The report now comes from Honolulu that the Dole Government is about to grant permission to Great Britain to land a telegraph cable there, *en route* from British Columbia to the Fiji Islands and Australia. This news would have thrown the Jingoes into fits six months ago. Why are they not up in arms now? Partly because their eyes are fixed on Spain as a *bête noire;* partly because the beet-growers of California have ordered them to drop the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty, and *a fortiori* drop the islands themselves. Under such circumstances the Jingo mind can see no great harm in allowing a telegraph station to be opened there. A year or two ago it seemed quite certain that the landing of the proposed Australian cable would be equivalent to the annexation of the islands by Great Britain. Now it appears to be a fairly convenient method of sending news and commercial information to and fro, in which we may participate if we choose on condition of paying the usual tolls. At all events we cannot prevent the landing of the cable there except by fighting the Dole Government, which we are not likely to do.

One instructive aspect of the working of the referendum in Switzerland is presented by M. Vilfredo Pareto in the *Journal des Économistes.* He sets forth the action of the voters on laws more or less socialistic submitted to them during the past score of years. Seven such laws have been approved—relating to State control of factories, the State monopoly of alcohol, insurance against accident and sickness, etc. But many more laws, going to much greater extremes, though passed by large majorities of the Deputies, have been decisively rejected by the people. Thus a proposal that the State take over the Central Railroad was voted down, 289,000 to 130,000. An insidious law to give the State power to make "uniform regulations" in the various trades, was disapproved—158,000 votes to 135,000. The assertion of "the right to work" was denied—308,000 to 75,000. The creation of a monopolistic State bank was refused —255,000 to 195,000. Other instances are given by M. Pareto, his conclusion from the whole being that the Swiss popular voting has been, all told, favorable to economic liberty. He also infers that the people have sounder and more conservative views than their representatives. There are some curious sides to this. Deputies are elected from certain cantons time after time, seeming thus to have the full confidence of the electors. Yet the laws which they propose are as regularly voted down. This throws a strange light on the theory of the representative system; but we could show in our own country anomalies as great.

The Tory plan for the relief of Irish agriculture, announced in general terms by Mr. Balfour on Friday, is primarily a precipitate retreat from what was the Government's position two weeks before. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, in explaining the budget, flatly refused to extend to Ireland the grants proposed in relief of English landlords. Such a furious storm at once beat upon the Government for this manifest unfairness—this treatment of Ireland as a separate nation, when it was a question of bestowing favors—that Mr. Balfour was forced to promise a Royal Commission to look into the whole matter. But royal commissions are pretty playthings of which the Irish have become very tired, and Irish members of all parties and factions were so united and determined in demanding equal privileges with Englishmen that Mr. Balfour has given way again. His scheme of local Irish government cannot, of course, be criticised until it is put on paper, but it is safe to say that if, as the London *Times* asserts, it will "demolish some plausible arguments for home rule," it will do the demolishing by acknowledging their force and acting upon them. In fact, the historic process of "dishing the Whigs" by adopting an Irish policy more radical than theirs now seems among the possibilities.

THE BELLIGERENCY QUESTION.

The effort of the Jingoes at Washington to make it appear that the Administration is in possession of new and important facts bearing on the belligerency question, have thus far not been very successful. In the whole debate last week one solitary official was quoted as saying that the Cubans had some 40,000 men under arms, under regular military organizations; but until we know where these troops are, who commands them, and what territory they hold, the report is as valueless as that of any newspaper correspondent. Concentrated, such an army must be in possession of a definite territory; if so, where is it? Dissipated, as it no doubt in fact is, all over the island, its having a paper organization of regiments, brigades, and divisions counts for little.

Mr. Cleveland, in his last message, now five months old, gave an authoritative statement of the condition of Cuba, which must be substantially unchanged, except that, owing to the rainy season, military operations cease altogether for some months. Spain, he said, "still holds Havana and the seaports and all the considerable towns; the insurgents still roam at will over at least two-thirds of the inland country":

> "If the determination of Spain to put down the insurrection seems but to strengthen with the lapse of time, and is evinced by her unhesitating devotion of largely increased military and naval forces to the task, there is much reason to believe that the insurgents have gained in point of numbers and character and resources, and are none the less inflexible in their resolve not to succumb without practically securing the great objects for which they took up arms. If Spain has not yet reëstablished her authority, neither have the insurgents yet made good their title to be regarded as an independent state. Indeed, as the contest has gone on, the pretence that civil government exists on the island, except so far as Spain is able to maintain it, has been practically abandoned. Spain does keep on foot such a government, more or less imperfectly, in the large towns and their immediate suburbs. But, that exception being made, the entire country is either given over to anarchy or is subject to the military occupation of one or the other party. It is reported, indeed, on reliable authority, that, at the demand of the commander-in-chief of the insurgent army, the putative Cuban Government has now given up all attempt to exercise its functions, leaving that Government confessedly (what there is the best reason for supposing it always to have been in fact) a government merely on paper."

President Cleveland also pointed out that the war, being a guerilla war in a wilderness, and consisting in great measure of marauding descents on private property, was wasting the island, and might go on for ever; that the concentration of the rural population in towns under military government would ruin the industrial value of the island. No prophet was needed to foretell this. The latest Foreign Office report on the trade of the consular district of Havana shows that in 1896 the total production of sugar fell off from 1,004,264 tons in 1895 to 225,221; the exports diminished 71 per cent.; the tobacco crop fell from 560,000 bales to 85,000.

Mr. Cleveland went further; he stated the policy of his Administration with regard to Cuba. He said that Spain had been warned that, in the interest of humanity, peace, and our commerce with Cuba, this state of things could not go on for ever; that Spain had thus far refused all mediation, but that the time must soon come when, unless the island was really pacified, we must take steps to secure arrangements which would prevent a state of recurrent insurrection and anarchy in a colony so near to us in every sense. This is nothing more than a restatement of the policy which this Government has pursued for thirty years. It was pursued by Mr. Fish under Grant, and at that time the rebellion was finally put down, and peace restored—so thoroughly restored that trade between this country and Cuba revived, until it amounted to $64,000,000 in 1889 and $103,000,000 in 1893. There is every reason to suppose that the policy of the present Administration is the same, and that, assuming the insurrection is to go on, there will be intervention or mediation of some sort.

This is, moreover, the only intelligible policy which our Government can adopt, but it is not what the Jingoes want at all. Their plan is to pass a resolution, and compel the President to sign it, declaring that Cuba is a belligerent state, which the President knows it is not; that there is a Cuban army, occupying a definite territory, which all the facts thus far published show to be false; that there is a Cuban navy, when, as a matter of fact, Cuba has neither port, flag, nor ship. Having declared this farrago of lies to be true, they propose that we shall be "neutral" between Spain and this imaginary Power, that we shall give this fictitious state the right to coal its imaginary vessels in our ports, and that we shall give Spain the right to search our ships for contraband. Of course this might at once result in a war in which our position would be utterly indefensible. Poor Foraker, who has evidently never read the neutrality acts, thinks that it is no more than fair that we should not interfere with the Cubans getting war-ships here. With this resolution passed, their first war-ship would undoubtedly be treated as a pirate by the Spaniards, and, as she would be manned and officered at least in part by Americans, there would be a *casus belli* at once.

The belligerency resolution is therefore an attempt to reverse the whole policy of the Government, to compel Mr. McKinley to put his name to a statement which he, of all men, knows to be false, and almost to force Spain to go to war with us, at a time of terrible business depression, with a revenue insufficient to meet ordinary expenditure, with an utterly inadequately defended seacoast, but few troops, and with a disordered currency, the condition of which brought us within eighteen months to the verge of bankruptcy.

LONG SPEECHES.

The House of Commons spent a couple of hours last week discussing a motion —"That the duration of speeches in this House has increased, is increasing, and should be abated." This parody of the famous motion of last century regarding the power of the Crown was offered by Major Rasch (ominous name!), who maintained that if right honorable gentlemen could not liberate their souls in an hour, and if private members could not say all they had to say in fifteen minutes, then "they did not know their trade and were not fit to occupy a seat in this House." What was the state of the case? Speeches of from two to four hours in length were not uncommon. One honorable member had spoken on sub-head B of the estimates for half an hour on each separate estimate. Members should take historical warning from Julius Cæsar, who is said to have locked up too exuberantly verbose Senators. Statistics were offered by Mr. Radcliffe Cook to show that an hour apiece per session was the fair allotment of a member. If a speaker exceeded proper limits, the House should " intimate the fact" to him. At this point the House intimated the fact to Mr. Radcliffe Cook, with loud cries of "Divide!" and he hastily sat down. The motion finally prevailed by a vote of 85 to 24—a very light vote, and, of course, without practical effect.

Major Rasch recalled the fact that fifty years ago Lord John Russell proposed a motion limiting speeches to one hour. It failed by twenty-six votes, in a full House, though among those supporting it were Bright and Cobden. Still later a resolution shortening the duration of speeches in the House obtained a majority of seventy on a division, though nothing came of it. The general conviction seems thus to be that parliamentary speeches are getting longer as they grow less effective. This means, of course, the average speech. Those of Burke and Sheridan and Brougham were at times of portentous length; but the ordinary member in their day was either mute or monosyllabic. Nowadays a two hours' speech may be inflicted on the House from any obscure corner. Indeed, the tendency is said distinctly to be for the uninformed, who have not thoroughly considered the matter, to make the longest speeches. Mr. Gladstone's budget speeches were famous for their length as well as their fascination—he would speak anywhere from three to five hours. Disraeli cut his Chancellor's speech short, grimly remarking that he would leave something for "future statements of this nature." Sir William Harcourt and Mr. Goschen and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach scarcely ever exceed two hours

with the budget. Still, the average speech of the average Commoner is undoubtedly lengthening.

Our own sufferings from Morgan and Jones and Allen are too recent for us to be able to remark on American practice with critical impartiality. We may observe, in passing, that Major Rasch was under the pleasing illusion that nobody in the House of Representatives at Washington is allowed to speak more than five minutes. No such luck! But speech-making with us has no doubt tended to become long-winded in the proportion that it has become empty and clamorous and ineffective. This is a curious thing; speeches never had so little influence, yet they were never so long. Even in England, oratory that changes votes is almost a lost art. The old member was near a universal truth when he said, in a reminiscential vein, that he had heard a great many speeches in the course of his parliamentary career, some of which had changed his convictions, but none of which, thank God, had changed his vote. In our Senate, things have come to such a pass that able constitutional lawyers like Messrs. Gray and Spooner speak not because they expect to be listened to respectfully, much less to affect the vote, but simply that the country may not think they assent to the folly about to be enacted. As for a senatorial speech having any influence on those to whom it is addressed, that is too absurd.

Aside from this growing nullity of political speeches, long or short, the interminable discourses so much in vogue seem singularly out of place in this hurrying and short-hand age. Letter-writing has become a sort of cryptic art; many people would have to say with cynical Cecil Rhodes, "I never write letters." We do not write; we telegraph. It is the day of the short story, the condensed masterpiece, literature and learning in compact and portable forms, of short-cuts in business, of abbreviations and codes and ciphers. Even sermons have had to yield and conform to the Judge's opinion as to the proper length of pulpit efforts—"twenty minutes, with a leaning to the side of mercy." With all things in literature and life thus tending to reduce themselves to their lowest terms, why should political and parliamentary speeches drag their slow length along more deliberately than ever?

Leaving out of account length for mere filibustering or time-killing purposes, it would appear that modern orators are led to spin out the thread of their verbosity for two reasons. One is of the nature of a political superstition, or confusion of ideas. Oratory has been one of the great arts of statesmanship; therefore Senator Nincompoop will prove that he is a great statesman by speaking for three hours whether men will hear or forbear. Burke spoke for the better part of nine days; Burke was a great man; I will speak for the better part of two weeks; therefore I am a greater man. This forcible reasoning, on a par with much that appears in their speeches, seems really to move vaguely the minds of many of our tedious public orators. But the chief cause of their prolixity is undoubtedly their laziness and feeble mental grip. They have not the concentration or the energy to fling themselves upon a mass of documents and tear the heart out in fifteen minutes of lucid exposition. They flounder hopelessly in their own material. They amass authorities and pamphlets, and get their private secretaries to deluge them with precedents and opinions, and then call their vain struggles to extricate themselves from the chaos of their own creating, a speech! Their gestures are really the wild reaching out of drowning men for help, their shouts only cries for rescue. They and all their weariful kind in either continent should take to heart what was said of Washington and Franklin, by Jefferson, we believe, that they were the most effective speakers of their generation, though neither was ever heard to speak more than half an hour.

THE UITLANDERS AT CAMBRIDGE.

The crushing defeat of a progressive party is a thing that must always furnish food for gloomy reflection to the victors. For, if we have read our modern political history aright, recovery and reaction are the portion of the minority; it is your sweeping majority which straightway goes and loses prestige. In the Senate of Cambridge University, last Friday, the votes were cast three to one against the acceptance of the resolutions offered by the syndicate appointed to consider the question of further University recognition of the students of Girton and Newnham. Those resolutions, which were discussed in the *Nation* for March 25, were made by a body of Cambridge dignitaries, including the Vice-Chancellor and the Downing Professors of Laws, whose age and standing were a security against hot-headed legislation. Since our notice of their proposals, a debate has taken place in the Senate, which the brilliant and persuasive oratory of Prof. Maitland could not save from rancor and bad taste. The syndicate were invited to reconsider their report and the arguments used in the discussion, and on May 4 they presented a second report, in which they adhered to their recommendations. They were convinced that their plan of giving "titles of degrees" to women could be adopted without detriment to the University; they added a proviso expressly excluding women from membership of the University.

Meanwhile, the undergraduates, in order to emphasize their informal vote of last year, prepared a memorial expressing "the conviction that the giving of titles of degrees to women would prove injurious to the position and efficiency of this University as a University for men"; of 2,856 in residence, 2,130 signed this memorial. This unequivocal expression of opinion, combined with the open threat of secession to Oxford, had undoubtedly great weight with the wavering members of the Senate. In regard to members in residence, the balance was tolerably even, but the ultra-Conservative party at Cambridge has always a strong provincial reserve to be called out in such emergencies, and the majority on Friday was secured by the flocking of large numbers of graduates, chiefly country parsons. For, owing to the curiously democratic government of the University, any curate who has scraped through a pass degree—that is to say, has never aspired to the Tripos, or honors degree, the only examination for which women have the wish or the right to enter—has as good a vote in the Senate as the oldest resident Don or the Vice-Chancellor himself. It is thus that the careful considerations of a syndicate can be overthrown, and the work of months stultified by a mob of men whose only reflections on education have been due to anxieties as to a possible "plough."

It does not at all follow that this is an outbreak of old-fogyism. It is astonishing how quickly the native crust of British prejudice will harden in the atmosphere of an English village. Moreover, your Cambridge young man of to-day does not see visions; or, at any rate, that of a woman in bloomers on a bicycle—a combination which he has certainly never beheld out of a nightmare—is a convincing enough vision for him. So it happens that, while even Vienna has this year granted women degrees for the first time, and the German universities are, one by one, admitting them to full privileges, Russia and England are now the only countries that refuse to make concessions.

Cambridge has sunk in the estimation of the outside world rather by the spirit and manner than by the fact of its refusal; one wonders whether women will hereafter be so eager to enter a university that conducts its voting with rotten eggs and fire-crackers; just as, in the political world, one marvels that any one not born a Boer should wish to be a full-fledged citizen of the Transvaal. Cambridge is in a critical condition financially, and has been making appeals to the public. Now, the British public loves fair play, and we believe that the Senate would have won pretty general approval by the granting to women of the "titles of degrees"—not as a right, but as a *quid pro quo* from a university that has received more than half its endowments from women. Whether English women will take a hint from this

side of the water and buy their way in—it is a good moment for buying Cambridge—or whether they will wait for time to right all, remains to be seen. Against them are the sympathies of the Boers, the Russians, and 1,700 English Mrs. Partingtons. With them go the good wishes of the civilized world, and especially of all Uitlanders. After all, who can doubt with whom the future lies, in the Transvaal or at Cambridge?

THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

LONDON, May 3, 1897.

If this year's pictures are proving even more depressing than usual, there may be some comfort in the reminder that sixty years ago, at the period to which we look back as a golden era of art, critics were almost as hopeless. By chance, I opened my Heine the other day at his Letters on the Paris Salon, to find that in 1831, when the Romantic movement was in full swing, he was regretting, as we regret now, the loss of the old patrons of art, and the consequent dependence of the painter in search of subjects upon the caprices of the day, the whims of the wealthy, or his own idle heart. "A badly understood romanticism flourishes among French painters," Heine explains, "and, according to its chief rule, every artist strives to paint as differently as possible from all others; or, as the current phrase has it, to develop his own individuality." But, at least, there was a rule, there was a standard, there was a distinct doctrine; and, impossible as it might have seemed to Heine at the moment, when those same pictures—the bad kindly weeded out by time—are hung together now, we are struck by that very unity of motive for which he thought one must turn to the early Italians. To us the Romanticists seem, as the Italians seemed to him, to speak the same language, though each may not utter the same words. But I cannot imagine that, after the lapse of any number of years, after the most careful process of selection, Royal Academy pictures could produce the same harmonious effect. For the men who paint them are not united even by the desire of each to be as unlike the others as possible. Under the circumstances it was surely a sly jest on the part of Lord Salisbury, in his speech at the Royal Academy banquet, to suggest that, for all he knew, there might be unsuspected Raphaels and undeveloped Rubenses in the artistic society which is supposed to be composed of all the greatest artists in England who have achieved fame and position for themselves.

When all is said, two contributions have given me a genuine thrill of pleasure, and as many as a dozen more are unquestionably interesting and delightful, though in a lesser degree. The two were Mr. Gilbert's silver rose-water dish and ewer, designed, as most great examples of the sculptor-goldsmith's art have been, for presentation to royalty; and Mr. Sargent's portrait of Mrs. Carl Meyer. I have before now had to call attention to the exquisiteness of Mr. Gilbert's designs as a jeweller and worker in metals. Fine sculptor as he is, it is in the daintier, more delicate branch of his art that he excels. He is the modern Cellini who has been able to carry the craft of the Italian master to still greater perfection, and this without a touch of the affectation, the pose, which irritates in the average English craftsman, always conscious of the part he is playing in the so-called modern decorative revival. Mr. Gilbert is no faddist, is identified with no group or school, and is therefore without the prejudices which have stood in the way of Arts-and-Crafts Societies and Guilds. He has no mission but to create the beautiful. Harmony of proportion, loveliness of design, these are the qualities by which he charms. The deep bowl of his dish is filled with a simple design that gives it bigness and dignity; the ewer depends for effect largely upon the grace of its form, the curving lines of its handles, while more minute detail is reserved for the marvellous little St. George and the Dragon set on top, a gem in itself, with its delicate modelling, its action so well expresed within the conventional limits imposed by the medium, and its dainty suggestion of color in the iridescent scales of the dragon. This, really, is a masterpiece.

Mr. Sargent has seldom been more brilliant and daring and gay than in the larger of his two Academy portraits. I think it is the unmistakable gayety of his mood when he painted it that impresses me above all else. The lady, who wears a rose-colored gown, and is established in state on a sumptuous couch, is as richly and as gorgeously arrayed as the Mrs. Swinton in the New Gallery portrait, but Mr. Sargent apparently was struck less with this richness and gorgeousness than with the amusing quality of her costume. He has delighted in it as the old Dutchmen revelled in the big hats of the solemn officials who sat to them, and he has rendered it, from the touch of rose ribbon on the high coiffure to the little satin slipper peeping from under the silk and chiffon draperies, with irresistible vivacity and vigor. Nor in this picture has there been any sacrifice of character. It is no mere fashion plate. You cannot mistake the race, the type to which the lady sitting there in all her elegance belongs; while the stamp of Israel is still more strongly set upon the face of the boy who leans over the sofa to clasp her hand, and upon that of the little girl standing there with him.

I know nothing of Mr. Sargent's at once so brilliant and so convincing. How it would stand the test were it hung among the portraits of Dutch or Spanish masters one would be curious to see. It may be that in such surroundings the very animation one now admires might seem but restlessness; there is really more of the old serenity, the old dignity, the old feeling of completeness in Mr. Whistler's work. But at the Royal Academy the "Mrs. Carl Meyer" is supreme, beyond comparison the most accomplished painting on the walls. Even Mr. Sargent's other contribution, "The Hon. Laura Lister," cannot compete with it, charming as is the quaint black-and-white costume of the child, and the simple pose, for which I fancy Velasquez supplied the model. Mr. Orchardson's portraits, too, not so good this year as usual, are thin and colorless by contrast; while Mr. Greiffenhagen, who can be so distinguished at times, has apparently allowed himself to be depressed by the prospect of sending his canvases to the Academy. M. Benjamin Constant and M. Comerre bring with them from Paris the more scholarly commonplace of the Champs-Élysées Salon. But I have come upon only one other portrait that gives evidence of some individuality, some painter-like qualities, and this is by Mr. Robert Brough, quite a young man, I believe, and certainly as yet unknown, but from whom one will hope for much in the future. "Fantasie en folie" he calls his picture of a lady in quiet brown, who turns her profile towards you and stretches out a graceful arm to wind one end of her long necklace about a little Japanese god set upon the table in front of her. Drawing is not Mr. Brough's strong point; you cannot but be conscious of feebleness and indecision, in his rendering of the face above all; but the figure is placed delightfully upon the canvas, and the color is rich and harmonious. An English Aman-Jean one might almost call the artist, for he has much of the French painter's feeling for decorative unity and effect, though none of his mystical vagueness.

The few good landscapes reveal themselves only to those who look for them carefully. The quiet, restrained work of Mr. Clausen, Mr. Edward Stott, Mr. Arthur Lemon, is overshadowed by the loud, screaming, garish canvases hung on every side. Mr. La Thangue is not so easily effaced; his canvases are larger, the effects for which he tries more emphatic, and it is refreshing to come upon his gleaners and his tramps, for they are painted with such competence that, at the Academy at least, one can forgive his persistence in showing the laborers taken for his models in all their native ugliness, unrelieved by a touch of the poetry which Millet never failed to see in his peasants.

For Mr. Abbey's large subject-picture as well one is distinctly grateful. It is serious, honest work, infinitely removed from the tawdry sentiment and cheap anecdote which the average Academician so dearly loves. "Hamlet" this year has furnished him his motive — the play-actors' scene. And though I think the composition savors unduly of the stage, though the central group is the weakest, the *Hamlet* ill-drawn, the *Ophelia* needlessly wooden, and, in her white gown, a discordant note in the sombre color scheme; still, but for this sudden space of white, the arrangement of rich browns and reds is fine, and there is excellent drawing in the figures of the King and Queen and their attendants. Not a great picture, perhaps, but one not wanting in merit, and more than noteworthy in an Academy which is, without question, the worst I have ever seen.

N. N.

GIUSEPPE BELLI.

ALASSIO, April, 1897.

Fortune would have it a short time ago that I should fall ill at Rome, and that a Roman lady, prompted by her noble heart, should nurse me till my cure was complete. This, however, would scarcely be the place to record her gentle charity, were it not that it included one act of unexpected import. My kind friend, to beguile the weary hours, one morning brought me a thin volume containing two hundred sonnets in the dialect of the people of Rome by a poet of whom I had never heard—Giuseppe Gioachino Belli. Before I had spent a quarter of an hour over the book, I was aware that it was supplying a hitherto unsuspected want. The dialect, with the aid of copious notes, proved easy enough of understanding, and the matter embodied in it, full of humor, was graced by those gifts of expression dearest to my soul

—an incomparable lightness, clearness, simplicity, naturalness. No Trasteverine wit could ever have wished to express otherwise his satirical notion of the way things were managed in this world.

Were managed. The sonnets were written between the years 1831 and 1847—that is to say, during the pontificate of Gregory XVI. They give of that prelate a portrait so grotesque, and of his government a picture so lamentable, that they could never have been openly printed in Rome. They were, indeed, communicated in manuscript or orally. The thin volume was published by Barbèra of Florence in 1870, and, whether intentionally or not, must have been something in the nature of a "campaign document"—it must have suggested to the furtherers of Italian unity that there was need of a new régime in the Eternal City. At the same time it does not appear that the intentions of the poet were revolutionary. Such aid and comfort as he gave to the followers of the Piedmontese King were not of his seeking. The criticism of a family from its members may be very sharp without the remotest wish to abolish the family, and Belli was merely of the brotherhood of Pasquino that for centuries had laughingly applied the lash to people and Government in Rome. And now that Gregory XVI. has long since gone the way of all flesh, and the manifold abuses of his rule have given place to others, the light, keen satire of the poet still stimulates and delights like a sparkling wine; and if it conveys a political lesson—well, that is not precisely what it may have been in 1870.

It was impossible not to wish further acquaintance with a humorist so gay, so easy to live with. His latest rhymes are half a century old, but his name, new to me (and I suspect to most of the readers of the *Nation*, since I find that my ignorance was shared by certain highly cultivated foreigners long familiar with Rome), is still remembered by those who understand by birthright the dialect of the Trastevere.

Our ignorance, let me remark by the way, is, to say the least of it, uncalled for. Not only have several editions of the poet been given to the world, but in 1871 the illustrious Schuchardt published a full account of Belli and his work, and, so long ago as 1845, Sainte-Beuve, in his *premiers Lundis*, after having been informed by the Russian novelist Gogol, wrote:

"M. Gogol me dit avoir trouvé à Rome un véritable poëte populaire, appelé Belli, qui écrit des sonnets dans le langage transtévérin, mais des sonnets faisant suite et formant poëme. Il m'en parla à fond et de manière à me convaincre du talent original et supérieur de ce Belli, qui est resté si parfaitement inconnu à tous les voyageurs."

Half a century later this ignorance is still to be dissipated. Even in Rome, in the quarter stretching behind Castel Sant' Angelo, where street after street of ignoble ruins bears each the name of some great man, that called in honor of Belli assigns to him the Christian name of Gioachino, instead of Giuseppe, by which he was known in life.

"Thrice happy he whose name has been well spelt
In the despatch."

Moreover, those who have read something of Belli's work, as a rule know it only in a fragmentary way. The kind friend who had introduced him to me had known some members of Belli's family, and said that the two hundred sonnets published by Barbèra were but a small part of those left behind by the poet. There were reasons why some of them had been kept carefully shut up in the case where they were preserved. One reason suggested itself at once. The sonnets published were in the language of the people, which, as the initiated know, does not hesitate to call a spade a spade—when no ruder name suggests itself—and one might say of them what, if I may trust my memory, Sainte-Beuve somewhere said of the Duchess of Orleans, mother of the Regent, that they are of a virtuous indecency. After some of the published ones, one could not help wondering what was left to conceal. And yet there was nothing unwholesome, nothing "immoral" in the volume; the worst is merely a grossness of speech that our literature has, since the days of Fielding and Smollett, been forgetting.

At last the desire to have the sonnets for myself led me to send them to Loescher's book-shop with request that I might be furnished with a copy, if such were still to be found. This brought out the fact that there was published last year at Città di Castello a complete edition in six volumes, at a price so low that there was no excuse for not ordering it. The new edition proved to be well printed and excellently edited by Luigi Morandi, who as editor of the edition of 1870, of that of 1886-8, and of other works relative to Belli, would appear to have special qualifications for the task. The first volume has, moreover, an index of persons and subjects touched on in all the sonnets, a glossary-index referring the reader to the place or places where each dialect word is explained, a long and very interesting preface on Roman Satire in general, including pasquinades and the followers of Belli, and an equally interesting preface by Belli himself, showing how the whole series of sonnets (there are over 2,000, instead of the 200 of the first edition) was written in fulfilment of a preconceived plan. This answers so admirably to the contents of the volumes that it is worth while to speak of it in detail.

It was written in 1831, when as yet the author had made only a beginning of his sonnets, but, just the same, it traced a programme to which he remained faithful to the end. This was no less than to leave a monument of the Roman people as it was in his day, being persuaded that it had a pronounced character of its own different from that of any other people. The monument was to be a picture of the world of Rome as seen by the lower classes of its population. The Pope, the cardinals, the Church, beliefs, superstitions, daily life and affairs, current events—everything, in fact, which engaged the attention in those times—recounted or commented by persons ignorant, but with a certain freedom of mind and a turn for satire.

"Set forth the phrases of the Roman as they issue every day from the Roman mouth, void of ornament, without any alteration, without even inversions of syntax or the abbreviations *(troncamenti)* of poetical license except those used by the Romanesque speaker himself. In short, to draw a rule from the fact and a grammar from usage—that is my aim."

And in fact the author has accomplished the difficult feat of making his people live, move freely, and speak naturally within the artificial framework of the sonnet. It has been said that nobody would ever think of expressing what the personages of Goldoni have to say otherwise than as they do. The same is true of Belli—at least for the classes whom he makes to speak; and these have recognized their own image and their own mind. Certain of these sonnets passed from mouth to mouth, repeated everywhere in Rome, and in some cases, it is said, are so preserved to this day. The portrait of Pope Gregory XVI., painted in numerous sonnets with a touch of the greatest lightness and certainty, reveals his gluttony and sensuality, the improvidence, injustice, cruelty of his government—it is an historical picture of extraordinary force. It was on the political side that Belli was the brother of Pasquino, a satirical voice; but without the slightest exaggeration, and so light, so easy, so good-tempered, with the gayety of the long-suffering poor, that it is only little by little that you recognize how serious—how grim, even—the picture is in reality. Alongside of this, the image these same poor give of themselves is not altogether flattering. As Belli says of them in his preface: "Not chaste, often not pious, although devout and superstitious." With no end of frailties, in fact, but good fellows at bottom, they show themselves in their every-day guise, not posing as models, but merely living. And each personage is distinct by himself. You can open the volumes anywhere: "Each page is the beginning of the book; each page is the end." Taking the sonnets in any order that he will, the reader goes on from one to another until he feels that he is actually living in the Rome of the Popes, and taking part in events along with its people. There is a wholesome lesson in this reading for those *laudatores temporis acti* who are for ever grumbling at the new Italian Government for having spoiled Rome. The present Government has committed sins and follies enough—there is unfortunately no denying it; but in this moving panorama of the life from day to day under Gregory XVI. one finds no reason for wishing the "good old times" back again. Perhaps in balancing the ills we suffer against those we have left behind, our gains may seem problematical; but just the same we would no more return to that past than we would exchange our bicycle suit for the disgracious costume of 1830. It has been said, too, that the more opulent proportions of the man of to-day cannot be squeezed into the armor of his mediæval ancestor.

It is not for me to distribute crowns of immortality, but I doubt if many will take up these volumes without being brought, finally, if not at first, to the persuasion of the editor—who evidently cherishes the cultus of his poet—that Belli is one of the chosen few who merit a niche in the temple of fame quite apart from the vulgar crowd of "great men." Before his death he was the founder of a school, among whose names are two at least, those of Ferretti and Fucini, only less than that of the master. They worked on his lines, and certain of their sonnets might by the foreigner easily be mistaken for his; but, as says Signor Morandi, "The work of Belli is an ocean, while those of his disciples are rivers, when they are not mere torrents or brooks." The conviction of Morandi has not always been shared by all critics, and in his admirable preface he valiantly attacks and puts to rout De Amicis, who offered to maintain that Fucini was an original poet, and was not indebted to Belli or to any one else for his

standing in the world of letters. The fight is not ours, nor is the award of victory; it is enough for us to have found a poet whom we can heartily admire, and who opens for us the spectacle of, or, better, the intimate acquaintance with, an obsolete régime.

S. K.

HALLAYS'S BEAUMARCHAIS.

PARIS, May 6, 1897.

Beaumarchais was the subject of a very important work of M. de Loménie, who had at his disposition many original documents on the famous author of the "Barber of Seville" and the "Marriage of Figaro." When the work of M. de Loménie appeared in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, Carlyle wrote to mile Montégut: "After all, Beaumarchais was a fine and valiant sort of a man, and, in his way, a brilliant specimen of the French genius." Since the publication of 'Beaumarchais et son Temps,' documents have been found in the Austrian Archives, by M. Bettelheim, who has used them and composed a somewhat heavy and very severe biography of Beaumarchais. We have now before us another 'Beaumarchais,' by M. André Hallays, which has just been published, and which is well worth reading. M. Hallays finds M. de Loménie too indulgent, M. Bettelheim too severe, and seeks the rare merit of perfect impartiality. He gives, on the whole, a portrait of Beaumarchais which is very much alive, and analyzes with no little care the extraordinary complexities of Beaumarchais's character.

Pierre-Augustin Caron was born in Paris on the 24th of January, 1732. His father was a watchmaker in the Rue Saint-Denis, a Protestant by birth, who had turned Catholic. Pierre-Augustin had nine brothers and sisters. He received the technical education proper to fit him to become his father's successor, and became very expert in his art. But he was ambitious, and married for her money a widow who was ten years older than himself. She died, he quarrelled with her family about her inheritance, and from that time called himself Beaumarchais, the name of an estate which no geographer has yet discovered. He had appeared first at Versailles as a watchmaker, he reappeared there as a musician; he played on the harp, and owed to this talent his admission into the intimate circle of the daughters of Louis XV. Little did these severe ladies suspect that they were receiving the most profligate man, and one of the artisans, of a great future social revolution. Paris-Duverney had insinuated himself into the confidence of Mme. de Pompadour "in all that concerned war," says Mme. du Hausset; and Duverney, the great financier of the time, had made the acquaintance of Beaumarchais. He employed him in his financial enterprises. Beaumarchais made money rapidly, and immediately bought for himself a brevet of Secretary of the King. He was now a nobleman, and, when afterwards his nobility was put in question by his enemies, he said that he could show the receipt. Paris-Duverney sent him to Spain on a secret mission, and there we see Beaumarchais developing himself into the character of a living *Figaro*. His Spanish adventures are well known, and one of them furnished Goethe the subject of the drama of "Clavigo."

Beaumarchais was a little of everything: an adventurer, a man of pleasure, a diplomat, a business man, a jobber; he was also a littérateur. His love of popularity marked him for the stage. His first essay was "Eugène," represented in 1767, a drama—a child, he says, of his sensibility—which had but a limited success. His second drama, "Les Deux Amis, ou le Négociant de Lyon," was also mediocre, and had no success. Paris-Duverney died in 1770. He had settled all his accounts with Beaumarchais, but his heir, the Count de la Blache, who detested Beaumarchais, began a law-suit against him; and this case led to the publication of the famous Memoirs, which were read by all France, and which became the most dangerous weapon of public opinion against the Parlement Maupeou. In this dramatic struggle of a man of letters against the Parlement which a royal *coup d'état* had substituted for the old Parlement, Beaumarchais, though he suffered a condemnation and was deprived of his civil rights for an attempt to corrupt a judge, was really triumphant. He ridiculed the new Parlement and its supporters. Voltaire wrote to the Marquis of Florian: "I have read the fourth memoir of Beaumarchais; nothing ever made a greater impression on me."

Beaumarchais appealed against the judgment; he offered at the same time his services to the King, who accepted them, and this was the origin of his numerous and various missions abroad—secret missions, naturally, as Beaumarchais could have no diplomatic character. London was, at the time, a great manufacturer of libels and pamphlets, as Holland had been under Louis XIV. Beaumarchais had to deal first with a French adventurer who was preparing a pamphlet against Mme. du Barry—'Mémoires secrets d'une fille publique.' The edition was burned after having been paid for. Beaumarchais had to hunt up afterwards the author of a pamphlet directed against Marie Antoinette, and entitled 'Avis à la branche espagnole sur ses droits à la couronne de France, à défaut d'héritiers.' The author of the pamphlet received 1,400 pounds sterling for burning his work, but Beaumarchais, hearing that he had taken a copy to Nuremberg, followed him to Germany, had a hand-to-hand fight with him in a forest, got possession of the copy, was attacked by two brigands, wounded, went to Vienna to obtain from Maria Theresa an order for the arrest of the pamphleteer, and had a secret audience with her. This was Beaumarchais's version. Kaunitz was not as imaginative as Beaumarchais; he had him arrested and kept him thirty days in prison; he even went so far as to deny the existence of the pamphleteer whom Beaumarchais was supposed to be tracking in Germany, and to suppose that Beaumarchais was himself the author of the pamphlet which his mission was to destroy. The French Government, however, thought it best to shield Beaumarchais, who in consequence was set free.

No sooner was he in Paris than he put on the stage "The Barber of Seville." It had been composed in 1772, as a comic opera, then transformed into a comedy. The first representation was not a success, but a few changes were made, and the second representation was successful. Beaumarchais continued at the same time his part in the secret diplomacy. He had to deal this time with the famous Chevalier d'Éon, formerly in the secret diplomatic service of Louis XV. D'Éon had kept all the correspondence of the Count de Broglie relative to a plan for invading England devised after the peace of 1763; D'Éon asked a high price for this correspondence; Beaumarchais entered into a transaction with him which imposed on d'Éon the obligation not to quarrel any more with the French Ambassador, M. de Guerchy, and to wear women's clothes. Why did Beaumarchais and the French Government insist on this clause? It is one of the riddles of the history of the 18th century.

Beaumarchais's mind began to work, while he was in England, on the affairs of America; he followed the debates in Parliament, and understood the import of the situation. "All sensible people," he wrote to the King, "are convinced that the English colonies are lost to the mother country, and this is also my opinion." He wrote memoir after memoir on the question. Finally, as France and England were not at war, he was merely allowed to found a company under the name of Rodrique Hortalez & Co., which entered into relations with Silas Deane. He received a million from M. de Vergennes and a million from the Spanish Government, which was then in accord with France. On the 13th of March, 1778, France notified England of her recognition of the independence of the United States. The operations of Beaumarchais thus became easier; the *Fier Rodrigue*, which had been detained in port at Bordeaux and had escaped, became a regular warship, and took part in a battle between the squadron of Admiral d'Estaing and some English ships. After the defeat of Comte de Grasse, Beaumarchais, full of enthusiasm for the cause of what he called the Bostonians, opened a national subscription for replacing the lost ships. M. Hallays does not give many details on the money transactions which took place between Beaumarchais, Silas Deane, Barclay, Arthur Lee, Hamilton. These were of a complicated character, and the first settlement took place only in 1835, when the family of Beaumarchais received a sum of 800,000 francs.

While he was working for the independence of the United States, Beaumarchais was conducting a hundred other affairs. Among them, we find him engaged in a campaign in favor of dramatic authors against the actors. The result was, after a long struggle, a more equitable division of profits between the authors and the actors. He makes himself, at the same epoch, the editor of Voltaire's complete works; he buys his manuscripts, procures type in England, and establishes a printing-office in the old citadel of Kehl. It was impossible to edit the works of Voltaire in France, where they were interdicted. The Kehl edition, in seventy volumes, has remained to this day the edition preferred by the bibliophiles, but I must add that this preference is in great part due to the illustrations, which are the work of Moreau le Jeune. The minister Maurepas favored this publication, because Beaumarchais told him that the great Catherine of Russia proposed to get out an edition of the complete works of Voltaire, and that it would be a shame to leave this honor to foreigners. After the death of Maurepas, Beaumarchais encountered many difficulties in his enterprise, and as a speculation the affair was not a success; 15,000 copies had been printed, and only 2,000 were sold.

Beaumarchais was living in a sort of whirlwind; his head was as full of business

as a terrier of rabbits. But the great event was the representation of the "Folle Journée" (Marriage of Figaro). The piece had been accepted at the Comédie Française in 1781; it was publicly played only in 1784; for three years Beaumarchais had to fight against the censorship. The manuscript had been taken to Versailles and read before Louis XVI. and Marie-Antoinette. The King merely said: "This is detestable; it shall never be played." Beaumarchais was not discouraged by this veto; he knew how much forbidden fruit is desired, and he worked incessantly upon public opinion. The words of *Figaro* were repeated; fragments were read here and there; the comedy was played in private houses. The King gave in at the solicitation of many people, and the first representation of the "Folle Journée" took place on the 27th of April, 1784. From early morning the theatre was besieged. Bachaumont writes that "the *cordons bleus* were mixed up in the crowd and elbowed by the *Savoyards;* the guard was dispersed, the iron grilles were broken by the pressure of the crowd." Great ladies took their meals in the actresses' boxes so as to be the first to enter the theatre. The success was extraordinary. Beaumarchais was in a box, between two priests.

The Archbishop of Paris thought it necessary to condemn the new piece in his mandement for Lent. The pamphleteers attacked it on all sides; Beaumarchais wrote in answer his "Preface to the Marriage," one of the most brilliant pages of his writings. He was imprudent enough, in a letter to the *Journal de Paris*, to write, "After having struggled successfully with lions and tigers to have my comedy played, do you think that I will, like a Dutch servant, hunt every morning the vile insect of the night?" The vile insect was a certain Suard; but who were the lions and tigers? The Count de Provence charitably explained to Louis XVI. that Beaumarchais alluded to the King and to the Queen. "Without leaving the table where he was playing, the King wrote with a pencil, on a seven-of-spades, an order to arrest Beaumarchais, and to send him to Saint-Lazare, the prison where depraved young people were taken at that time." M. Hallays is justly surprised at this harsh decision coming from a king who was naturally very weak, and had, perhaps, been stupefied by being compared to a lion.

Correspondence.

PROTECTION FOR AMERICAN COLLEGES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: What with the tariffs on books and apparatus and chemicals and the like, we college professors thought we had grievances enough, but we find that we have another and a more serious one. The attention of my colleagues has been called to it, and we are up in arms. This is how it happened: Going into the city a few days ago on a suburban train, I was hidden pretty completely behind a big morning paper and my wife's sleeves, when my attention was caught by the frequent mention of "professors" and "university" in an earnest conversation between a couple of my neighbors. *Nolens volens*, I had to hear it, and I give it below as nearly as I am able to reproduce it. The part here given was preceded by a good deal about "Mugwumps," and "unpractical," "unbusinesslike," "high-minded," "theoretical" affairs connected with "tariff" and "professors" and "universities." The one who did most of the talking said:

"I'm pretty well acquainted with a good many of them. And I like them; in the main they are high-minded men, but in some things they are simply babies—no, idiots, that's it, downright idiots—and ought to be looked after. Just take Prof. ——; why, there isn't a more scholarly or a more unselfish man in the community. He's a good Republican, too, and stands up for a businesslike tariff, and can cite authorities all the way back to Aristotle, and history back to Abraham, to show that high tariff is necessary to prosperity. But now look! He teaches and preaches protection for everybody and for everybody's business except for himself and his own business.

"What do I mean? Why, just this: there isn't a steamer leaving New York that doesn't take students abroad for an education, nor one coming in that doesn't bring them back by the dozen with their A.M.'s and their Ph.D.'s, from every university in Europe. And of course every young man who goes to Europe for an education is robbing the teaching force of this country and putting American money into the pockets of European teachers. Now, if our professors were alive to their own interests and to the interests of their colleges, they would insist upon and get a law placing a prohibitory tariff on foreign educations. You needn't laugh; educating is as much a business as is shoe-making! Suppose, for instance, that a young man coming into this country after taking his Ph.D. at a foreign university had to pay a tax of ten thousand dollars, and that a graduate of a gymnasium had to pay five thousand. We all know what the result would be: these fine young gentlemen would get their educations in this country, and the money they now spend at Oxford, Paris, Heidelberg, Göttingen, Munich, and all the rest of them would be spent in American universities and kept at home, and this would also make it possible to employ more teachers and to pay better salaries.

"Some of these professors say that many European institutions offer better advantages, and that it is better for the students to go there if they can afford it. Now, sir, sentiment is one thing and business is another; and this is a matter of business. We manufacturers look after our own interests, and our consumers may be expected to look after theirs.

"The country as a whole is protected against whatever we ask to be protected against: foreign books, foreign paper, foreign instruments, foreign chemicals, foreign everything! Why, you can't even import a foreign professor. And right in the face of all this, those who have the money can send over there and bring back all these things done up in one small package—the young Ph.D.—and get him in free of duty at that. I tell you, sir, it's an outrage! And if these professors of ours had a few practical, common-sense, every-day Republicans among them instead of so many cantankerous Mugwumps, this sort of thing wouldn't last long. If there is anything plain in the whole field of political experience, this is one of the plain cases. But this idea of protecting themselves never seems to have occurred to any of the colleges, and least of all to the little ones that are hard up for teachers, and hard up for students, and hard up even for a reason for existence." J. C. Branner.

Stanford University,
California, May 11, 1897.

EDUCATION AND SOLDIERING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It has come to be a matter of common belief that the efficiency of an army depends almost wholly upon the intelligence of its personnel. Several recent articles in foreign periodicals were evidently written to enforce anew this doctrine. It is remarkable that so little attention is given to the other side, or, at least, to another phase of the subject. One of the lessons of history is that other qualifications besides mere intelligence are necessary to make soldiers that win victories. These are alertness of mind, resourcefulness, psychical powers that enable the private to determine in any circumstances that may arise what he ought to do and how to do it. To these are to be added, as perhaps most important of all, confidence in his leaders and faith in the cause for which he is to fight. Both the presence and the absence of these last qualifications were strikingly exhibited in the wars that were carried on during the era of the French Revolution. It will hardly be asserted that in book learning, or in the mere ability to read and write, the French were superior to their opponents, especially the Germans. But they had almost unlimited confidence in their leaders and a profound faith in their cause. The Germans of 1813-15 were probably not appreciably more intelligent than those of 1800-10, but a new spirit had been infused into their soldiers that transformed them from lukewarm combatants into heroes.

No armies of modern times have been more uniformly successful than those of Russia; in none is the average intelligence of the common soldier lower. The desperate courage of the Turks at Plevna, to cite only a single instance, ought to make it plain that if you expect men to be brave, something more is needed than to impart to them the information that is found in books. The melancholy political experiences of the contemporaries of Socrates might have served as a lesson to all subsequent times that it is as vain to put your trust in intelligence alone as it is to put it in princes. Recent events seem to demonstrate that the Greeks of our day, in spite of the general diffusion of knowledge among them, are as prone to commit acts of political folly as were their predecessors of twenty-three hundred years ago, and that in point of personal bravery the crassly ignorant Turk will not suffer by comparison with the far better educated Greek. Chas. W. Super.

Athens, O., May, 1897.

JEFFERSON AND MARSHALL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Not the least interesting incident of the trial of Aaron Burr was the issuing by Chief Justice Marshall of a subpœna commanding the attendance of Thomas Jefferson, then President of the United States—an order which Jefferson entirely disregarded, for reasons stated in his letters to the Uni-

ted States District Attorney, George Hay, of June 18 and June 20, 1807, both of which are easily accessible. His refusal produced a motion from Burr's counsel that Jefferson was guilty of contempt of court. Later Jefferson wrote a letter, "public, and for the court, covering substantially all they ought to desire" of his evidence, dated September 7, 1807. The ending of the Burr trial by the failure of the grand jury to indict, seems to have ended also the endeavor to prove the President in contempt. But how grave the situation was considered by Jefferson, and how easily the smothered antagonism between the two departments of our government might have become open warfare, is proved by the following draft of a letter of Jefferson, never before printed. It is undated, but presumably was first intended to accompany the President's above-mentioned public letter, but was suppressed, and that of September 7, 1807, sent in its stead.

PAUL LEICESTER FORD.

"The enclosed letter is written in a spirit of conciliation & with the desire to avoid conflicts of Authority between the high branches of the govmt, which would discredit it equally at home & abroad. That Burr & his counsel should wish to [(struck out) "divert the public attention from him to this battle of giants was to be"] convert his Trial into a contest between the judiciary & Exve authorities was to be expected, but that the Ch. Justice should lend himself to it, and take the first step to bring it on, was not expected. Nor can it be now believed that his prudence or good sense will permit him to press it. But should he contrary to expectation, proceed to issue any process which should involve any act of force to be committed on the persons of the Exve or heads of depnts, I must desire you to give me instant notice, & by express if you find that can be quicker done than by post: and that moreover you will advise the Marshall on his conduct, as he will be critically placed between us. His safest way will be to take no part in the exercise of any act of force ordered in this case. The powers given to the Exve by the constn are sufficient to protect the other branches from Judiciary usurpation of pre-eminence, & every individual also from judiciary vengeance, and the marshall may be assured of it's effective exercise to cover him. I hope, however, that the discretion of the C. J. will suffer this question to lie over for the present, and at the ensuing session of the legislature he may have means provided for giving to individuals the benefit of the testimony of the Exve functionaries in proper cases, without breaking up the government. Will not the associate judge assume to divide his court and procure a truce at least in so critical a conjuncture."

AN ILLUSTRATION OF DIALECT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Prof. Joseph Wright, the editor of the *English Dialect Dictionary*, now being published, having recently issued a circular asking for information about the non-standard senses, current in the provinces, of the word *by*, I have looked them up for East Suffolk, where they have turned out to be very numerous. Such of them as I have actually heard are exemplified below, preceded by what may serve—in some cases, only roughly—as definitions.

BY, *prep.*

I. Of time.

Beyond, past. "You have gone *by* your time," *i. e.*, "You are late."

Of duration: in the space of, during. "I shan't get through the job *by* this year." "He stayed there *by* a whole month."

Of a fixed point. "Be here *by* your time," *i. e.*, "in time," "at the time named for you."

II. Relation, place, etc.

Against, to the detriment of. "I don't mind what the man said *by* me." "I have done nothing *by* him to make him so angry."

At. "You stopped too long *by* your dinner."

Beside. "Don't call him *by* his name," *i. e.*, "by a wrong name," "by a name other than his own."

Beyond, the farther side of. "I saw the dog *by* the barn." "He lives *by* the mill."

Dementation. "She's so mad-angry she's quite *by* herself."

Exceeding. "He's a bad fellow *by* the common," *i. e.*, "bad out of the common."

Except. "There's nobody at home *by* me." "The tramp had nothing on *by* a shirt and trousers."

Prevention. "He was put *by* his dinner," *i. e.*, "he was not allowed to have his dinner."

Upon. "I must have something more than bread to work all day *by*."

Resemblance. "He has a face *by* a monkey."

Difference. "The boy is so blind he doesn't know day *by* night." "His talk doesn't differ *by* an Essex man's." "Your watch is different *by* mine," *i. e.*, "it keeps different time."

Comparison. "My head is big *by* yours." "Your dress is tidy *by* mine."

To judge from. "There's a bird in that bush, *by* the cat," *i. e.*, "one may gather from the behaviour of the cat." "*By* the way my old bones ache, and *by* the creaking of the door, there will be rain before long."

Relating to, concerning, about. "We must do something *by* the hodmandods in the ivy." "Tom hasn't been here to-day that I know *by*." "Your allotment would do better *by* you, if you took more pains with it." "You've scratched me; but I don't care *by* it." "I don't mind what the man said *by* me." This last phrase, now heard only from old people, is obsolescent. For its ordinary sense, see above, under "Against."

BY, *adv.*

Past and gone, over. "The shower is almost *by*."

On one side, aside. "Hang *by* your coat there." "Stand *by*, there!"

With "down," "out," "up." "The sheep are down, out, up, *by* yonder."

BY, *conj.*

By the time that. "The shed will be built *by* the week is out."

BY, *sb.*

Chance. "I happened with him on the *by*," tautological for "I met him accidentally."

To persons who have heard English spoken only in America, but few of the foregoing expressions will seem other than very strange. By such as are conversant with our literature of oldish date, some of them will, however, be recognized as classical archaisms; and no one who remembers the Bible—see, for instance, *Acts*, vii., 42; I. *Cor.*, iv., 4; and *Exodus*, xxii., 26—will be unfamiliar with the like of "He stayed there *by* a whole month," "I don't mind what the man said *by* me," and "The shed will be built *by* the week is out." Still, the phrases here collected will reveal, to the generality who read this letter, that dialect, in England, especially as regards the hinges of language, indeclinables, is an exceedingly different thing from what it is in the United States. Thousands of English ruralisms are known to have survived through a long course of centuries; a good number of them were, doubtless, brought across the ocean by British immigrants; and there must be, among the correspondents of the *Nation*, those who can ascertain how many of such as are constituted by uncustomary uses of *by* have lived on, in the more secluded regions of our country, down to the present time.

F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, April 13, 1897.

FRENCH UNIVERSITY COURSES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A committee of action, composed of members of the "Comité Franco-Américain" and of the "Union Française des Universités d'Amérique," begs me to place before you the following communication:

Students desiring to qualify for the *doctorat universitaire* may enter upon studies leading to this new degree at the beginning of the coming academic year, the second Monday in November. The programmes of the different universities of France will be ready for distribution at an early date. Information relative to schools, courses, matters of economy, etc., may be obtained at any time by addressing me, either in person or by letter.

HENRY ERÉAL,
Secretary of the Committee of Action.

PARIS, 70 Rue d'Assas, May 8, 1897.

Notes.

Macmillan Co. have in press a monograph on the 'Battle of Harlem Heights,' by Prof. H. P. Johnston, whose timeliness consists in the fact that the engagement took place in the immediate vicinity of Grant's tomb and the sites of Columbia University and Barnard College; 'Old Times in Middle Georgia,' by R. Malcolm Johnston; and F. Marion Crawford's new novel, 'A Rose of Yesterday.'

Dodd, Mead & Co. will soon bring out the first volume of four of the 'Expositor's Greek Testament,' embracing the synoptic Gospels (by the Rev. Prof. Alexander B. Bruce) and the Gospel of St. John (by the Rev. Prof. Marcus Dods); and in October, three books of the Polychrome Bible edited by Prof. Paul Haupt of Johns Hopkins University. They have nearly ready 'The Land of the Dollar,' meaning the United States, by G. W. Steevens of the London *Morning Post*.

A. C. Armstrong & Son will extend their "Book-lovers' Library" with 'The Novels of Charles Dickens—A Bibliography and Sketch,' by F. G. Kitton, with a portrait never before published.

A critical edition of 'Maldon and Brunnanburh,' by Prof. C. L. Crowd of Weatherford College, Texas, will be published next month by Ginn & Co.

We read in the current *Library Journal* of a coöperative Index to Portraits now in process of compilation under the editorship of Mr. William C. Lane, librarian of the Boston Athenæum. A preliminary list of books to be indexed is given in connection with the article, and expert collaboration is invited by correspondence with Mr. Lane. There will be no attempt to weigh the value of the several portraits, but, when practicable, the names of artist and engraver will be noted, or the photographic origin. The scheme calls for a four-column page.

The fifth volume of the beautiful "Outward Bound" edition of Rudyard Kipling's writings has for leading title 'The Phantom 'Rickshaw,' but embraces seventeen other short stories, of which four are from 'Many Inventions'; and the elder Kipling supplies three illustrations modelled in relief. Another style of excellence characterizes 'The Lily of the Valley' in the Dent-Macmillan translation of Balzac, which has a trio of etchings for its illustrations.

A pleasant and welcome addition to the already large and constantly increasing collection of Thackerayana has been made by Mr. Eyre Crowe, A. R. A., in his 'Thackeray's Haunts and Homes,' just published by Messrs. Scribner. The twenty or so sketches contained in the little volume of interiors and exteriors in London, Paris, Boulogne, and Glengariff are charming and dainty as they are accurate, for they have each of them been worked out *in situ*. The letterpress is slight, and naturally subservient to the illustrations, but it is full of gossipy, interesting matter; and it contains some fresh contributions to our knowledge of the great novelist, in the shape of personal anecdotes about him, which, with these sketches, will surely one day be included in the Life of Thackeray which is yet to be written.

What we do know, what we do not know, and what we ought to know about our books, is all very fully and clearly set forth by Mr. Arthur L. Humphreys in 'The Private Library,' a small quarto volume produced with careful observance of all the canons that should govern the manufacture of a properly got-up book. Mr. Humphreys is, we believe, a partner in the ancient and historic publishing and bookselling establishment of Hatchards in Piccadilly, London, and has, we know, had special qualifications for learnedly handling the subjects on which he discourses in this volume. He writes as one having authority and not as the scribes, when he tells us what is a "good edition" and what is a "fine copy"; he discusses book values, and gives instructions on the Care of Books, the Art of Reading, and the Use of Commonplace and Reference Books. He speaks out of much knowledge and experience on the subjects of cataloguing, classification, and bookbinding; he is amusing on the subject of Book Hobbies, and is thoroughly practical concerning the library from the architectural point of view, its decoration, its book-shelves, bookcases, and other appliances. In a word, his book is a storehouse of useful information for the book-lover. It is published in London by Strangeways & Sons.

No collection in English rivals in its way the 'Anomalies and Curiosities of Medicine,' by Drs. George M. Gould and Walter L. Pyle (Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders). Its scope is wider if less elaborate in detail than the monumental 'Anomalies' of Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire. At first thought this enormous amount of intelligent research appears wasted energy in the interest of curiosity rather than of science. In fact, however, a very large part is a valuable contribution to medical jurisprudence, furnishing, as the preface suggests, examples by which the expert witness may parallel his case or confirm his opinion. Much of the remainder may be useful to show the practitioner of medicine who encounters an anomaly that there is little really new, however it may exceed his previous experience. And there is a modicum that is purely and simply curious and that may or may not, at some time, be important. There are 900 closely printed large octavo pages, with more than 300 illustrations of various kinds, and a bibliography that supplies the authority for every case. The index is copious and accurate, thus making the mass of matter available for reference. The range is almost unlimited, but it is impracticable to attempt quotation or to discuss even one of the innumerable themes. If we mention the description of the development, under denied sensation, of that charming child who bids fair to excel in physiologic interest even Laura Bridgman, we do so for the sake of remarking the misspelling of her name, "Helen Kellar" (p. 435), instead of Keller. It might not be amiss in a future edition to cite some of the alleged experiments made to determine the natural or spontaneous speech of man, to adduce later evidence upon premeditated maternal impressions than that of the thirtieth chapter of Genesis, to investigate the involuntary discharge of fire-arms through automatic muscular contraction, and to illustrate instantaneous cadaveric rigidity after death by gunshot. But these suggestions may seem like making a full cup overflow.

Mr. Sydney George Fisher's 'Evolution of the Constitution of the United States' (Lippincott), though marred, to some extent, by the same peculiarities of style and treatment which characterize his recent volumes on the history of Pennsylvania, is nevertheless a useful piece of work, and one for which many students will be grateful. Rejecting equally the ideas, still current in some quarters, that the Constitution was either an imitation of the Constitution of Great Britain or, in Mr. Gladstone's famous phrase, "the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man," Mr. Fisher has set himself to trace its development in detail from the colonial charters, the early plans of union, and the first set of State constitutions. The line of inquiry is, of course, not new; the late Alexander Johnston began it in a notable article in the *New Princeton Review* for September, 1887, and Profs. James H. Robinson and William C. Morey have continued it in the 'Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science' for 1890 and 1891. Mr. Fisher's volume, while of a more popular character, supplements these earlier contributions, besides including in its scope a number of documents now, we believe, used for the first time in this connection. Not the least valuable feature is the printing *in extenso* of many of the illustrative extracts. A final chapter is devoted to demolishing once more Mr. Douglas Campbell and his theories. By a curious misprint, the name of the author of 'Social Evolution' is twice, on page 22 and in the index, given as "Kid."

Perrin & Cie. publish 'Les Nuits, les Ennuis et les Âmes de nos plus notoires Contemporains,' by Ernest La Jeunesse, a volume of criticism of a peculiar character, and especially of a sort of audacious impertinence which must commend itself to the Parisian reader, though it is doubtful if it will be as readily appreciated by the average American lover of French literature. M. La Jeunesse has not an exalted idea of many of the authors who excite, for a time, the passionate admiration of the frivolous and the seeker after novelty in art of all degrees of extravagance and oddity. His judgments are not rendered in dogmatic fashion, *à la* Brunetière, or in so heavy a style as those of Lucien Muhlfeld, whose work is disappointing and wearisome, but in a way calculated to pique curiosity and to rouse interest. On the whole, he says many a true word in jest, and carries conviction where Muhlfeld simply bores. He excels in taking off the peculiarities of authors, as witness his Heredian sonnets, for instance. His book is readable and often instructive.

The same cannot truthfully be said of Lucien Muhlfeld's 'Le Monde où l'on imprime' (Paris: Perrin & Cie.), which is a collection of very sketchy articles devoted chiefly to the laudation of the "Jeunes" and to the reviling of their non-admirers. All the poetasters and would-be mighty prose writers whom the public, cultured and uncultured, refuses to admit to the rank of the immortals, are highly praised by this critic in a style so labored and so dull that no fear need be entertained of his modifying opinion, whether well or ill-founded.

'L'Orme du Mail,' by Anatole France (Paris: Calmann Lévy), is not sent out as a novel, but as a story of the time. For this reason, probably, it has a beginning but no end, at least none that can be readily perceived. There is a rivalry between a couple of priests which occupies a large share of the book, and which is left unsettled, perhaps because the author thought the reader would not feel sufficiently interested in his characters. The cardinal archbishop, Lantaigne the priest, Bergeret the professor, who talks very sensibly on the democratic Republic, the prefect, Worms-Clavelin, are evidently careful studies based on observation of men and manners in a provincial town.

'Le Trésor d'Arlatan,' by Alphonse Daudet (Paris: Charpenter & Fasquelle; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer), is a sketch of that southern district of France, the Camargue, so dear to the author's heart. The story is slight enough, but Daudet's qualities are still evident in this little volume, which has been richly illustrated by Laurent-Desrousseaux.

The Brooklyn Elevated Railway forms the subject of an interesting paper, by O. F. Nichols, in the latest volume of the Proceedings of the London Institution of Civil Engineers. In the same volume is an important memoir on "The Bacterial Purification of Water," by Dr. Frankland, who treats the subject from an engineer's standpoint, and claims that English engineers had made advances in this direction "long before the study of bacteriology had commenced." He admits, however, that the exact scientific tests introduced within recent years enable them to proceed with confidence, and to secure great uniformity in methods and results. There are also papers on the "Tower Bridge, its Superstructure and Machinery," illustrated by carefully executed plates, and an entertaining "Note on the Chinese Wheelbarrow."

Petermann's Mitteilungen for March opens with a geographical and statistical account, by Prof. H. Schuchardt, of the people of the Southwestern Caucasus who speak the Kartvelian languages. These he divides, according to the accompanying map, somewhat differently from other writers, into the Swanians, Mingrelians, Lazes, and Georgians, these last being further subdivided into Western with two, and Eastern with six, additional dialects. This is followed by a description of an exploration for natural-history purposes, by officials of the Museum in Pará, of the little known coast region between the Amazon and French Guiana. The number for April, besides a continuation of the first-mentioned article, contains an account of the people inhabiting the southern, or German, shore of the Victoria Nyanza, with a map. The recently published volumes, 17, 18, and 19, giving the history, the botanical, zoölogical,

and geological results of the Danish expedition to East Greenland in 1891-92, are noticed at great length, and there is an interesting list of the geographical lectures to be delivered at the German universities during the present summer term.

The Geographical Society of Philadelphia publishes a view of the arctic regions, edited by Prof. Angelo Heilprin, mainly to show the recent explorations of Peary, Nansen, and F. Jackson. But besides the drift of the *Fram* and Nansen's desperate itinerary after he left the vessel, and details of the discoveries and progress of the two other explorers, we have the achievements of the older pathfinders mapped, and such solid coast outlines as our present knowledge permits. The toil that went towards furnishing the materials for this map will never be fully appreciated till the coming air-ship solves with ease the problem of the poles.

The Johns Hopkins University has been the means of bringing to America this spring not only an eminent representative of French letters, but also one of the leading scientific men of England, Sir Archibald Geikie. The lectures of both were given upon memorial foundations, Geikie's being provided for by the widow of the late Prof. George Huntington Williams, in commemoration of her husband, who died in 1894. Sir Archibald Geikie's lectures upon "The Founders of Geology" attracted to Baltimore a considerable body of prominent geologists from various parts of the country, and were devoted largely to clearing up the relation of early geological work to the subsequent development of the science—a subject which has received inadequate attention hitherto. The lectures will be published in book form. At the conclusion of the course, the geologists who had been in attendance, to the number of sixty, made an excursion occupying four days, to examine the geological formations of Maryland.

In conferring, recently, upon Fräulein Gabriele von Possanner the first doctor's degree ever given by the University of Vienna to a woman, the rector congratulated the candidate in highly complimentary terms, greeting her as a "mighty protagonist for woman's rights," who, "by her great energy and intelligence, has victoriously overcome the manifold obstacles in her way." Moreover, he showed himself to be thoroughly in sympathy with the higher education of women when he said: "Since empresses and queens have won immortal fame in history as wise and energetic rulers, why should women be deemed incapable of displaying a beneficent activity in the higher professions? . . . It is to be hoped that the near future will not only, as at present, do homage to woman, but also be just to her." The lady, who took the degree of M.D., expressed her thanks to the faculty in Latin.

The celebration of the third centenary of the death of Tasso has fruited in the foundation of a Tasso library and museum in S. Onofrio, Rome, under Government auspices. It has for its nucleus the collections made during many years by Tasso's biographer, Prof. Angelo Solerti, to which the Government has added duplicates from its public libraries. The library was dedicated on April 25, the anniversary of Tasso's death, and will be open to students on Tuesdays and Fridays "dalle 12 alle 15," as we read in the *Bollettino* of the National Central Library of Florence for April 30. The same number announces that the Government has nearly overcome the obstacles to obtaining the Leopardi MSS., now in possession of the heirs of Antonio Ranieri, but bequeathed by him, with a mask of the poet, to the National Library of Naples. As next year will be the centenary of Leopardi's birth, the Government has been urged by Senators Mariotti and Carducci to publish these manuscripts, and it seems likely that the work will be undertaken. Perhaps a Leopardi library and museum may result.

—Literally and metaphorically "in the air" is the coming flying-machine, which will put a new face on human affairs, and cause a more profound readjustment of international relations than any discovery of the present century. The science of the earth, too, will advance with a bound that will make Stanley in his equatorial forest or Nansen in his *Fram* an anachronism in any but a moral sense. The art of war will be revolutionized, the premium on peace enormously increased. Dingley and the smuggler will contend for all dutiable property that can take to itself wings and pass *over* instead of through the custom-house. A new species of piracy may be added to that by land and sea. The nineteenth century may not see the realization of all this, but it has witnessed the laying of the foundations by two Americans—by Mr. Maxim, whose demonstration has been of one kind, and by Prof. S. P. Langley, whose demonstration has been of another, and is now first popularly set forth in *McClure's Magazine* for June. Prof. Langley has, after years of labor, constructed a machine which he calls an aërodrome, pending its abbreviation in common parlance to "drome," and which a year ago, on the Potomac, proved its capacity to lift itself and its steam-making machinery, fly steadily upwards and onwards for more than half a mile in a minute and a half, and then gently settle into the water without shock. Prof. Langley tells the story of his achievement modestly, citing for his principal eyewitness Mr. Alexander Graham Bell, in a communication to the Institute of France. The inventor gives the public to understand that larger machines on the same or a similar model, and carrying human occupants, are now within the range of possibility, and only await the money and the man.

—Mountain-lovers and mountain-climbers will alike be interested in the plans of the proposed Jungfrau Railway, for which the Federal Government of Switzerland has lately granted a concession, and an account of which appears in a recent number of the *Athenæum*. According to the prospectus, just issued, the extreme height to be attained by the road is 13,430 feet, from which point the summit, 230 feet beyond, will be reached by a spiral staircase and an elevator. Nearly the entire course of the line will be above the snow level. Starting from the summit terminus of the Wengern Alp Railway, there will be seven stations, in the form of excavated but partly open galleries. The maximum gradient will be one to four, and electricity will be the motive power, the Lütschinen torrents being harnessed for that service. The total length of the line will be about twelve kilometres, and the estimated cost £400,000. On the basis of 40 francs for a return ticket, the promoters hope to carry to the summit 10,000 passengers yearly; and they seem to have been able to satisfy the Government, as they were required to do, that no danger to health is likely to result "from the sudden transport of numbers of promiscuous persons to a high altitude." A grant of £4,000 for an observatory, with an annual allowance of £240 towards its support, are also promised, but the practical scientific value of the station, as the writer in the *Athenæum* points out, will depend largely upon the possibility of keeping the railway open throughout the year. The undertaking has the endorsement of the Swiss Alpine Club, who certify, through a committee, not only that the rarity of the air will do no harm to tourists, but also that "on returning from those ice-bound peaks we always feel as fresh and more fit for work than when we started."

—A writer in the *Fortnightly Review* for April on the woman movement in France makes it out to be not so much a struggle for political privileges as an effort to create an atmosphere favorable to the intellectual development of the sex. There are very definite grievances from which French women suffer, and for which they claim redress, but they have aimed rather at promoting a feeling of the injustice of the situation of women before the law, which will, they hope, in time lead of itself to changes in legal conditions. Meanwhile, their attitude is one of protest against the conception of the French woman which the French novelist seems bent upon perpetuating—the woman who is "compounded variously of sensuality and jealousy, vain, fickle, frivolous, with a fatal gift for intrigue," whose chief virtue is her taste in dress. An important and prominent part in the *mouvement féministe* is played by the women of the Slav races. For the last fifty years, Paris has been the Mecca of many Russians, Poles, Bulgarians—some Nihilists, some political refugees, but others inspired solely by an eager longing for opportunities for study. These women students form a numerous colony in Paris, and many of them become permanent residents of the city. Mme. Marya Chéliga, for example, has lived so long in Paris that she might well pass for a Frenchwoman. As a journalist and novelist in both her own and her adopted language, she has been an efficient writer in the cause of her sex, but it was not until last year, when her play, "L'Ornière," was acted at the Théâtre Libre, that she attained a notable success. This painful and outspoken drama is simply a plea for greater morality in marriage. Curiously enough, the very last letter on matters of public interest written by the late Alexandre Dumas *fils* was addressed to Mme. Chéliga, and reiterated once again his belief in the social and political equality of the sexes. We cannot here enumerate all the potent influences at work which are quite certain to produce a marked transformation in the status of women in France in the immediate future. But, as often happens when great social changes are ripe for realization, there are two seemingly insignificant causes which may quite possibly prove even more effective in hastening that event than considerations of a more serious kind; these are the fashionable Anglomania and the passion for the *bicyclette*.

—"We cannot expect for Thackeray," wrote Mr. Lang some years ago, "we cannot even desire for him, a popularity like that of Dickens. . . . Thackeray wrote, like

the mass of authors, for the literary class—for all who have the sense of style, the delight in the best language. . . . He cannot reach so many ears and hearts as Dickens. . . . *Mais c'est mon homme.*" Utterances like these have caused Mr. Lang to be regarded as a heretic by the genuine Dickensites, of Mr. Saintsbury's type, still extant. It was useless for him to protest a whole-hearted admiration for the "native naked genius" of Dickens, or that he would not willingly sit through dinner with a lady who "could not read" the 'Pickwick Papers.' We and the Dickensites are of opinion still that when Mr. Lang and the lady meet they smile upon one another like a couple of augurs. However, Mr. Lang now turns up as editor of the new "Gadshill Edition" of Dickens, of which 'The Pickwick Papers' and 'Oliver Twist' have already appeared (Scribners). Mr. Lang has an unusually wide range of sympathies—unhappily wide for one who should aim at achieving something more permanent than the triumphs of the journalist. He is, like Mr. Mallock's hero, in the stage when his friends still say of him that he might do anything if he chose; meanwhile he cheerfully persists in offering them footnotes to go on with. It is some comfort that the time saved from neglecting his masterpiece has not been devoted to the annotation of Dickens; Mr. Lang can go on editing the remaining twenty-nine volumes without abating his interest in golf, ghosts, the Jacobites, and the retail literary business.

—The Introduction, of eight pages, to the 'Pickwick Papers,' which is pleasantly written, is, in part, a repetition of Dickens's preface. We note a slight discrepancy—Mr. Lang's statement on p. vi. as to the date of Seymour's death does not agree with that of Dickens on p. xv. It is characteristically freakish in Mr. Lang to make even a passing comparison of Mr. Pickwick and the late Master of Balliol (p. vii). But, on turning to the notes, most of us will feel that the single drawback to an otherwise perfect edition is the "spoor of Andrew Lang." A humorous commentary on Pickwick is an impertinence, a serious commentary is a bore. We hardly know whether we like Mr. Lang's taste less when he "jokes wi' deeficulty" about the Fat Boy apropos of epigraphy, or when he gives us a dull historical note on the Marquis of Granby. Mr. Lang reminds one of Miss Repplier's commentator who "runs with an ambulance when you have cut your finger, but on a genuine battlefield leaves you to die." You desire, for example, a closer acquaintance with the word "Fanteegs," and are told that "any explanation or etymology of this obscure word must be conjectural"; but, if we are to have parallel passages at all—*e. g.*, on "Tip Cat," Mr. Lang informs us that Bunyan played the game—Mr. Lang might here have compared Mark Twain's precisely similar use of the word "Fantogs." Not that we want this sort of thing. How much rather than Mr. Lang's notes would we have had a reprint of Calverley's examination-paper bound with our Pickwick to test our knowledge of the work, with the question, "Who little thinks that in which pocket, of what garment, in where, he has left what, entreating him to return to whom, with how many what, and all how big?" We defy both Mr. Lang and the ingenious scholars who have lately traced the first Wellerism in literature to pass Calverley's examination. There is little room for comment on the editing of 'Oliver Twist,' for which Mr. Lang, with an air of doing his job, has written only three notes, that need spoil nobody's pleasure in that not very pleasing work. The illustrations are one of the best features of the Gadshill Edition, being wonderfully clear reproductions of the original drawings of Seymour, Hablot K. Browne, and Cruikshank, which are inseparably associated in our minds with the characters of Dickens. On p. 479 of vol. ii. of the 'Pickwick Papers' insert "chapter xxxiv." before the word "Tip-Cheese."

—Mr. Thwaites makes the important announcement, in his preface to volume vi. of the 'Jesuit Relations,' that Mr. V. H. Paltsits of the Lenox Library has undertaken to revise the bibliographical notes of the series, beginning with the volume in question. Evidently no trouble is being spared to strengthen an already competent staff. Le Jeune has this volume, as he had the last, to himself, and continues to hold his reader's attention without diminution of interest. His minute description of the Montagnais in the Relation of 1634 is a standard ethnological authority. He had just passed the winter with them in their wanderings among the Laurentian hills and cedar swamps, had watched them with the careful eye of the man who keeps a diary, and was in a position to tell the truth about them. The student of evidence will observe a curious contrast between this bona-fide account of the Indians and the questionable story of the Huguenot, Jules Michel, which Le Jeune retails, doubtless with sincerity, for purposes of edification. "Ce miserable ayant vomy contre Dieu et contre notre sainct Pere Ignace mille blasphemes," and having threatened that he would slap one of the Jesuit fathers before the next evening, was suddenly, before the time expired, deprived of all consciousness and died like a beast. Le Jeune had the facts from a man "tres-digne de foy" (recalling the *vir quidam probus* of Scheuchzer's dragon narratives), and, while modestly declining to claim it for a miracle, hints clearly enough that it is one. The moral is, "qu'il ne fait pas bon blasphemer contre Dieu ny contre les saincts, ny se bander contre son Roy trahissant sa patrie." Five years after the fall of La Rochelle, religious animosities flamed bright in the puny settlements of New France. Quite the most striking of Le Jeune's personal sketches is that of the Montagnais sorcerer. It will be remembered that Parkman devotes a chapter of twenty pages to an abridgment of this 1634 Relation.

RECENT NOVELS.

Black Diamonds. By Maurus Jokai. Translated by Frances A. Gerard. Harper & Bros.

March Hares. By Harold Frederic. D. Appleton & Co.

The Promised Land. From the Danish of Henrik Pontoppidan. Translated by Mrs. Edgar Lucas. London: J. M. Dent & Co.

Mrs. Cliff's Yacht. By Frank R. Stockton. Charles Scribner's Sons.

The Old Infant, and Similar Stories. By Will Carleton. Harper & Bros.

Out of the Woods: A Romance of Camp Life. By George P. Fisher, jr. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.

King Noanett. By F. J. Stimson (J. S. of Dale). Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

The Intriguers. By John D. Barry. D. Appleton & Co.

In the First Person. By Maria Louise Pool. Harper & Bros.

A Rebellious Heroine. By John Kendrick Bangs. Harper & Bros.

One of the Visconti. By Eva Wilder Brodhead. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Bound in Shallows. By Eva Wilder Brodhead. Harper & Bros.

The Rogue's March. By E. W. Hornung. Charles Scribner's Sons.

If answer is to be granted to the Dean of Rochester's cry, at the recent Church Congress in England, for deliverance from the "impossible novel," what a clearing out of the modern bookshelf will take place! And if there is to be an order in the going, we feel confident that the Dean will connive at the earliest departure of the impossible novel which comes from the Continent, where, to all its other disabilities, is added the length that should be a penal offence. As to the actual impossibility of 'Black Diamonds,' the mere reviewer makes no rash statement; for that, the services would be needed of an expert in mining, in chemistry, in stock-jobbing, in political intrigue, in the use of sword and foil, as well as in all the social possibilities of Hungary and Austria. Else how shall it be decided whether it was possible or only improbable that Ivan Behrend should manage with perfect mastery his coal mine and his miners; should, in his brief visits to the great world, ride, shoot, and fence better than the best; should discover a fluid with which he extinguishes fire in his mines, should see his stock-jobbing enemies laid low, should scorn a haughty lady and love a mine-worker? As to the possibility of the heroine, she, for her part, had been engaged to a man-eater, and had run away from him to live in Vienna a life of gilded luxury and dove-like innocence, as the wife in name of one man, the recipient of pleasures and palaces from others, but still a spotless soul, returning to her mines and her mine-owner in the end. If these be too probable, then there are weird scenes in vaults among the tombs, of revelries supposed to be ghostly, but discovered to be an inflamed case of high life below stairs. Furthermore, schemes political, ecclesiastical, and dramatic multiply the pages in swelling numbers. There is interest of an intermittent sort in the book, and power in the pictures of the miner's life with its horrid dangers; but only an overwhelming interest could excuse the being of such an involved and unlikely story. The translation, which is good, must be conscientiously the translator's own, since she has taken pains in a foot-note to say, in exception, that "these lines have been kindly translated from the original by Miss Troutbeek":

> "Say, when I smoothed thy hair,
> Showed I not tender care?
> Say, when I dressed my child,
> Was I not fond and mild?"

Mr. Harold Frederic stirred the public not long ago with his tragical comedy of Theron Ware. Now he offers a new sensation in 'March Hares,' a sentimental farce. Perhaps what is most surprising in his works is their variety. Thus far no one of his books in the least resembles another, except in neatness of execution and marked ab-

sence of the subjective note. It is a far cry from his early Mohawk Valley stories of small-town society to the intimate air of London. In all there is self-restraint in style and a bright-eyed inquisitiveness into detail which no small point escapes. This alertness exists, too, in relation to his themes. They have not been chosen so much as hunted out. A lynx and a ferret have gone into partnership to find them. With a bad style they would excite derision. With Mr. Frederic's manner of writing they claim attention and a share of admiration. In the present story each person is an original. True, the long-winded Kentuckian and his snappish daughter creak a little in their movement, and the leading lady is bewildering in her contrasts. She knows her British Museum and her man so well and her manners and customs so ill. With the hero and his friend, the canny Scotch laird, the moments fly merrily. They show the author's humor at its height and in a new vein. To be distinctive, unfortunately, is not always to be distinguished, and the lack of the distinguished is the rock ahead for Mr. Frederic. In his early war stories and his village scenes this fault did not appear. It is to be hoped that, as the fibre of his weaving lengthens it will not also coarsen.

In the formerly translated 'Emanuel, or Children of the Soil,' the Danish writer Pontoppidan gave a glimpse of the awakening of the Danish peasantry in what was known as the People's Movement to secure religious and political privileges. Of this movement the high school was a marked feature. Its peasant pupils went out into their narrow world again with high hopes that their class would become a power in the land. Emanuel the aristocrat married one of these peasant graduates, and they stood at the end of the novel with their faces set towards the regeneration of society. In 'The Promised Land' the outcome of the experiment is shown. For seven years all has gone well. Emanuel has preached and ploughed and is known as "The Modern Apostle." But blood will tell, and Emanuel's aristocratic pulses are not proof against the strains of Chopin's funeral march suddenly sounding from the dizzy maze of Copenhagen. The peasant wife feels the change in him, and plans a sacrifice which shall, as she thinks, solve the difficulty. Evidently the author does not consider intermarriage of the classes a remedy for peasant benightedness, unless, indeed, a third volume is in store showing the fruits of Hansine's self-denial. The civilization of the society we meet is none too civilized, and the peasant scenes are as crude and ugly as they are dull. Yet a watcher of the Danish skies may find in these novels of the period a planet swimming into his ken worthy of attention.

When Mr. Stockton, at the conclusion of Capt. Horn's adventures, left him and his shipmates in possession of hundreds of millions in gold coin, of course we all wondered how they would spend it. 'Mrs. Cliff's Yacht' tells how part of it went, and describes that good lady's struggles to cope with the rising tide of her income, of which the hourly inflow was ever present to her New England conscience and her New England thrift as a vision of unearned and undeserved increment. Mr. Stockton's naïvely demure treatment of detail is as taking as ever. But it is a mode of writing which, highly effective when it is used to describe incidents in themselves humorous, comes dangerously near inanity when invention flags. So far are we from sympathizing with the reader who said that castaways never would have kept themselves afloat with brooms as Mrs. Lecks and Mrs. Aleshine did, that, on the contrary, it is to our thinking, such supreme moments which best justify the manner of Mr. Stockton. But when he is describing a morning call or a village dressmaker's parlors, a feeling of desolate flatness sets in which surprises more than his most surprising climaxes. In this volume there is enough to have made a capital story even had he kindly eliminated all that is dull. In a future edition we should hope to see a deal of the village life omitted. The Buskirks, for instance, are superfluous, and the tea-drinkings and dinners add nothing to the pleasure we take in Mrs. Cliff's difficulties. With the embarking of her yacht our spirits revive, and again we read by a light that never was on any land or sea but Stockton's. A hundred and sixty millions of dollars in pure gold are left at the bottom of the ocean, but this trifling loss does not impoverish our friends, and affords a hope that the treasure will be fished out by some capable New England woman in a future volume.

Of the porcelain-like refinement of the author's thought and style there is no abatement. Nothing could bring home this trait more effectively than contrast with writing less aerial. For its crystal clarity one feels a reflex gratitude on turning, for example, to the 'Stories of Will Carleton,' by whose ingenious contrivance one refuses to be comforted for a certain murkiness of form and substance; too often the one is self-conscious, the other tawdry. Yet there is humor in many of the situations, with a touch or so of genuine pathos, and, as hinted before, a vein of invention which comes near to originality.

The greenwood tree has so potent and sane a charm that any book written under it will be prone to make criticism turn its merry note unto the sweet bird's throat. 'Out of the Woods' is a story which cannot be lifted out of the commonplace even by strikes in the iron mines and lost identity turning up with a miniature; yet its Michigan woods, its hunting, fishing, and canoeing, give it a piney scent which may well commend it to lovers of the lovable.

Mr. Stimson's story of old Virginia and the Massachusetts Bay is of the school of Hope on, Weyman ever; full of adventure, mystery, soldiering, cracked pates, and preterfaithful hearts. The most wonderful heroes survive the most wonderful risks, and live for years worshipping the memory of thrice-seen dames, with more or less reward in the end. Mr. Stimson has taken infinite pains in the elaboration of his historic framework, and there is much to interest the American in the story of the colonies as seen by two gentlemen prisoners sent by Cromwell's orders to the New World. A Devonshire youth tells the tale, while the real hero is the brave and merry Miles Courtenay. His delightful "Irishry," as his friend puts it, keeps one recurring to the dedication, wherein we read that the book had been often planned by the author with John Boyle O'Reilly, and now has been executed alone. The early laws of Virginia and Massachusetts have been ransacked, with many curious results. Strange chronicles of the seamy side of colonial life, of the Indian wars, and of the beginnings of the Connecticut Valley towns are ably and graphically worked into the narrative. The love part of the story is rather overstrained, but, by keeping the fair lady an occult mystery for most of the book, the difficult questions arising from her difficult personality are partially begged. The language, fast becoming a dialect, is that which nowadays does duty for the mediæval. Half the sentences are ushered in by "and"; there are thick sprinklings of such words as "quotha" and "soothlier"; and an immoderate use of "marvellous" as an adverb. But it has been a hard task to keep a wild Irishman strictly antique in his language, and it is not surprising to find him "muchly tickled," and addressing his friend as "my blooming cordwainer."

"La! Polly! Miss danced with a lord!" says Evelina's cousin. What would she have said to the light and airy treatment of the British aristocracy by Mr. Barry? With what motiveless persistency the gentry pursue an unoffending Oswego girl! How gently they welcome her into their smiling jaws! Yet she is apparently a very little fish. No mention is made of her having unwieldy wealth, and her mother is objectionable. Herself is a central New York Minerva, with a taste for painting which sends her to London to see "in the National Gallery the Turners, whose praises she had read in Ruskin," hoping also to visit "the Tower, the British Museum, and other places in London that her reading had made her familiar with." Like Brünnhilde, our heroine, under her martial exterior, hides a susceptible heart, and the best device of the book is the uncertainty, up to the last, as to which of the suitors she will favor. Though there is little power and less criticism of life in this novel, it will, perhaps, yield a half hour's amusement to the collector of international fiction.

Miss Pool's country figures are always good and fit well into their rural surroundings; but those who go forth to become opera-singers, practising their scales *al fresco*, and those who have basilisk eyes and wear large diamonds on their fingers, and he who whisks aside the Trovatore during the performance of the opera and sings *Manrico* himself for love of *Leonora*—these and their like move awkwardly in sylvan scenery and among their plain New England fellows. There is a tension in following the story, as in so many of Miss Pool's books, which does temporary duty for interest; but there is no reality in the plot, the characters, or the situations, excepting in exclusively bucolic moments, where, as usual, this writer excels. The residuum of comment is that 'In the First Person' is not stale, indeed, being not a thing of life, nor yet entirely flat, but on the whole unprofitable.

Mr. Bangs's little skit will gratify those young women who object to the average novel heroine as reflecting on their entire sex by their mercenary, frivolous, commonplace, or otherwise foolish behavior. This heroine rebelled, and simply would not be written down an idiot, and led the author of her existence a weary life with her caprices. To those who like the book we commend it. For ourselves, we confess to finding in it less entertainment than in some of Mr. Bangs's other writings—his recent letter on the United States Senate, for instance.

In Eva Wilder Brodhead's 'One of the Visconti' is little or nothing of the rare

quality of humor which lighted the pages of her former book, 'An Earthly Paragon.' Having accepted this disappointment, we are free to find a graceful account of the New York-Genoa-Naples voyage, with a pretty story thrown in. In 'Bound in Shallows' the same author returns to Kentucky; this time to the beautiful streamlet-threaded country of the Cumberland foot-hills, and sets her story among timber lands and lumber mills. A story of no very great power is told with considerable force, carrying conviction of a penetrating and observant mind. The reintroduction of her capital Kentucky peasantry is a thing to be grateful for; her style, too, grows happily lighter, clearer, and fewer-footed. We must deplore the excess of landscape, which we could wish to see treated more as landscape treats us. In spite of redundancies and defects, however, Mrs. Brodhead is, to our thinking, one of the best of our American latter-day story-tellers.

Mr. Hornung's stories of Australia began some years ago with a tale called 'The Unbidden Guest,' which, though trivial, carried an air of reality as well as a promise. That promise was fulfilled and that reality maintained in the slight but compact and ingenious 'Irralie's Bushranger.' And now comes 'The Rogue's March,' a more important book, which puts the author among the novelists to be considered. It is in part a portrayal of life in Australia in the hideous thirties. The descriptions of the horrors to which the convicts were subjected are paralleled only by the worst scenes in 'Uncle Tom's Cabin,' and, like those, make one question whether the victor or victim class suffered most in the brutalizing process. Happily, as in the case of America, one may think of the extreme Australian miseries as having yielded to the advance of order and humanity. "A Romance" Mr. Hornung names his book, for interwoven with the facts he has gleaned from Parliamentary papers and the Blue Book of '37 is the interesting story of an innocent man's trial and transportation for murder. Glimpses of the English courts and prisons of that earlier day are such as to give pessimism pause, and force it to confess that the world does move on and up. All in all, this is a book of absorbing if painful interest; its literary and structural merit above the common.

RECENT LAW BOOKS.

The fourteenth edition of Kent's 'Commentaries on American Law' is edited in four volumes by John M. Gould, Ph.D. (Boston: Little, Brown & Co.). The first volume of the first edition appeared in 1826, and the work holds the same position today that it at once established for itself on its first appearance. No very careful editing was undertaken after the author's death until Judge Holmes's twelfth edition, the notes in which have obtained such a repute that the present editor has wisely incorporated them in his edition. He has cited nine thousand new cases; and in the book as it stands, some thirty-three thousand decisions in all are referred to. He says in his preface that

"The aim of the present editor has been to present fully the growth of doctrine in recent years upon all the topics discussed in this work; to supply new illustrations of the principles derived from the very latest decisions; to define the extension or limits of these principles resulting from such decisions, and especially to fortify the work in parts not recently much developed, especially in those relating to the Law of Nations, equity, judgments, taxation, master and servant, aliens, the domestic relations, patents, copyrights, and trade-marks."

His work really covers a period of twenty-three years, and is marked by much industry and research.

To make an edition of Kent which should equal the original treatise, we should need another Kent, equipped for his work, not only by a quarter of a century of judicial experience, but by gifts of the most unusual sort. To speak of him as a legal "classic" is true enough, but what he is most remarkable for is the extraordinary weight attaching to his opinion. The law as laid down in Kent is the law to-day, as it was fifty years since. His grasp of the great fundamental principles of Anglo-Saxon jurisprudence, as developed in American life and society, was so sure that later judges have done little more than apply his exposition of them in novel situations; and his good sense in avoiding speculation and hypothesis saved him from the pitfall of legal writers who forget that where speculation begins, actual law ends. He was a great writer, too, because he was a great judge. His views of law were based not merely on learning—though his learning was very great—but on the application of the teachings of experience to the analysis of the practical questions of right and duty presented by the tangled web of human affairs. The consequence is, that although our jurisprudence recognizes only the precedent of a decided case as binding, the deliberate opinion of Chancellor Kent on an unsettled point of law ranks with a decision of a court of last resort.

The nature of Mr. Gould's work is described in his preface. He has presented the growth of the law in recent years, while he has given very little discussion in his notes, and made them what we should call industriously indexed collections of cases. That is, the value of the edition lies not in its presentation of the considerations which have determined the growth of doctrine, but in the industry with which the editor has summarized a mass of leading cases in a small compass. The labor devoted to it has evidently been very great. The weakness and strength of such an edition can be adequately tested only by use. We mention one or two points which have struck us. The notes on the Law of Nations are very full, but the view given of the development of international law in the last twenty-five years is not as clear as it might be. This is partly due to the fact that the editor has not a very clear view himself. It is very confusing, for instance, to find a well-known case on immoral contracts (Oscanyan vs. Arms Co.) brought into the Law of Nations at the end of a note on Ambassadors (vol. i., p. 60). At page 99 a theory of the Monroe Doctrine is advanced which derives it from the right of "self-defence and self-protection," and the implication of the note is that the doctrine, "although not yet recognized and defined in the Law of Nations," might be, if we would only treat it as analogous to the three-mile zone and *mare clausum* principle. The Monroe Doctrine may undoubtedly be derived from the principle of self-defence or from the attraction of gravity or the doctrine of natural selection; so might the Balance of Power; but the suggestion does not elucidate or add to the value of Kent. At p. 119, in the midst of a very good summary of the modern rules against inhumanity in war, the statement is made that the bombardment of forts is regarded as "justifiable only when it is impossible to secure a surrender by other means." This is news to us. The Clayton-Bulwer treaty is said to be "strictly no longer binding" (p. 201). This is a matter in dispute, and no clear account of the dispute is given. The case of the *Virginius* does not seem to be mentioned.

Elsewhere we notice the same peculiarities. Under the head of Literary Property (vol. ii., p. 608) the Schuyler statue case is referred to, and the note must have been prepared some time ago, as the reversal on appeal is not mentioned, and the note is therefore wrong. The case had nothing to do with literary property, but concerned the right of privacy. Stage-right, a modern growth, is very inadequately described, and the international copyright act is summarized without its important protective clause being referred to. Under Eminent Domain, very little notice has been taken of the great development of law in recent years, especially the New York Elevated Railroad cases. In vol. i., p. 588, there is a long and valuable note on the Commerce Clause, but the more generally important question of police power is very summarily treated (vol. ii., p. 534). In vol. ii., at p. 209, the recent leading cases on wife's "necessaries" are given, but to get any clear idea of the subject they would need very careful reëxamination. The edition is uneven in excellence and execution.

One of the latest additions to the admirable "Students' Series" of Little, Brown & Co. is a volume on the 'Elements of the Law of Contracts,' by Prof. E. A. Harriman of the Northwestern University Law School. As regards legal theory, the book has, among others, the following distinctive features. The author insists that contractual obligations in English law "may be due to the act of one party or of two," *i. e.*, may be what he calls either unifactoral or bifactoral; he has undertaken to separate the facts essential to the formation of a contract from those which merely affect the validity of contracts when formed; he has treated all voidable contracts under the head of Rescission; and he has given an account of the nature and results of what he calls the "judicial legislation," by which, in many States, a stranger to a contract is permitted to sue on it. Like several other treatises of the school to which it belongs, Mr. Harriman's is marked by the excellences and the vices so often incident to the so-called historic method. It is difficult to expound positive law and to analyze it historically at one and the same time. When the author says that the "existence of unifactoral obligations in the common law cannot be denied," he announces an historical discovery certainly important if true, but a division of contracts into bifactoral and unifactoral is not recognized, so far as we are aware, by any court of last resort. So when he declares (p. 4) that the decision in the Dartmouth College case that a charter is a contract, was not true "at common law," he apparently overrules the Supreme Court, because the point underlying the judgment, and expressly ascertained by the judges, was that a charter was a contract

at common law. Again, when we are told, p. 30, that "volition, not consent, is the foundation of contract in our law," apparently because a lunatic can be held as surety on a promissory note, we are disappointed, on looking at the case referred to, to find that the judges most cautiously stated the rule, but took great pains to avoid giving any reason for it. On the other hand, as a specimen of very neat analysis, we may refer to Prof. Harriman's discussion (pp. 70-74) of the decisions as to the performance of a contract once broken.

'Studies in the Civil Law' is the title of an interesting volume in the same series, by Hon. W. W. Howe, formerly a Justice of the Louisiana Supreme Court. The book consists of a series of "Storrs Lectures," delivered at Yale in 1894. Louisiana is the only State in the Union which is not a common-law State. From the last civil code of Louisiana the same system of jurisprudence may be traced in an unbroken line through the Code Napoléon to the Corpus Juris of the sixth century, and at last to the Twelve Tables themselves—a record of longevity before which the common law, with its eight centuries, seems almost young. That a civil-law community should have been incorporated successfully in the federal system of the United States is no doubt due in great part to the fact that all ordinary matters affecting property, contract, life, liberty, etc., are with us local, and that the questions arising upon them never get beyond the borders of the State. But it is also due, at least in part, to the *rapprochement* between the two systems which has been going on for a long time. The early common-lawyers looked upon the Roman system as an enemy, and so it was then, for it was neither English nor feudal. The lawyer of our day, to whom feudalism is often little more than matter for antiquaries, and English custom not conclusive, looks upon it as what it is—the most venerable system in our world, which proves its perennial usefulness by its adaptability to the necessities of modern life, and whose spirit is that of the order and symmetry originally so lacking and now so eagerly sought for in the common law. It is Judge Howe's object to show, among other things, how on every side the influence of the civil law may be seen at work in ours, and how ideas which we are accustomed to regard as peculiarly English, and even American, are connected with the Roman theory. We have but little space for examples; with some of them—as, that our law of succession is in part Roman, that our institutional division of tort and contract is more Roman than English, that much of our statutory law-reform acknowledges a "direct descent from the compilations of Justinian" (p. 7)—all students are familiar. But as an illustration of the out-of-the-way, unexpected affiliations which are continually revealing themselves, we may call attention to the note on unconstitutional legislation (appendix 4), in which the author, citing Mr. Brinton Coxe's posthumous work on Judicial Power and unconstitutional legislation, gives reasons for thinking that our view of the subject is not wholly modern. By the Roman doctrine of *jus legum*, some laws were treated as fundamental and organic, and hence of higher authority than an ordinary *lex*. Thus, the Lex Cæcilia et Didia was a law prohibiting the proposal of matters not germane, being a provision such as we incorporate in our State constitutions to prevent "omnibus legislation." The Senate declared laws of Marcus Drusus not binding because in violation of this rule. This certainly suggests an interesting line of inquiry. The whole book has every quality which such a book needs, and which, to say the least, most books on Roman law in English have not; it is simple, clear, and intelligible, and we can strongly recommend it to the student, or to any one interested in the subject. The last lecture gives an entertaining account of the curious career of Martin, the great Louisiana Judge.

A second edition of Judge B. R. Curtis's well-known Harvard lectures on the 'Jurisdiction, Practice and Peculiar Jurisprudence of the Courts of the United States,' by H. C. Merwin (Little, Brown & Co.), brings the book up to date (1896). Mr. Merwin's work seems to be well done, and Judge Curtis's book, as edited by him, remains the masterpiece it has now long been. He brought to a subject of great difficulty a mind of extraordinary clearness and soundness, as well as the authority of a great judge. The book is really a model of what such a book should be.

Several additions have been made to the "Horn Book Series" (St. Paul: West Publishing Co.). Walter C. Tiffany has contributed a hand-book of the 'Law of Persons and Domestic Relations,' which contains, besides a treatise (in the form prescribed in this series) on the domestic relations strictly so called, a good deal about infants, persons *non compotes mentis*, aliens, drunken persons, and others. Mr. Tiffany's originality lies in his power of definition and statement. His rules will be found concise and carefully limited, while his text is clear and his citations of authorities numerous and well selected. If the result is not altogether satisfactory to the analytical jurist, the difficulty is rather with the law than with the author. There is no subject in our jurisprudence so difficult and confused as that of the domestic relations. The common law, for instance, still displays a wide diversity of opinion on such an elementary point as the existence of a legal obligation on the part of a father to maintain his child; what can a legal author say except that "these inconsistencies in the decisions show that some of them are wrong," and that if the view that there is such an obligation is not the prevailing view, at least it "ought to be"? Earl P. Hopkins writes on 'Real Property,' in a volume of 652 pages, citing over 8,000 cases. He has made a desperate attempt to get a subject of vast dimensions into one volume packed with authorities, with the necessary result that the "extended commentary, elucidating the principles," is wanting.

Another book in the same series is Mr. W. B. Hale's 'Law of Torts.' Mr. Hale is the author of two Hornbooks, which we have already noticed; the present book "is brought out to supply the demands for a single-volume work on Torts, along the lines laid down in Mr. Jaggard's two-volume treatise published a year ago. It is practically an abridgment of the larger work." As we have reviewed Mr. Jaggard's book, it is hardly necessary to say more, except to call attention to the fact that the discussion of legal rights and wrongs and of damages "differs considerably from Mr. Jaggard's discussion of the same subjects." With regard to the former, the author's motto is far from being "Pereant qui ante nos nostra dixerint." He says, with great felicity of expression, in concluding his first chapter, "Mr. Pollock has summarized much of the substance of the foregoing discussion in the following remarkable (and elaborate) definition of a tort." Pollock is not by any means the only author who has benevolently smoothed the path for Hornbook commentators by summarizing what they were destined to write.

'The Elements of Commercial Law' is the title of a small book of some three hundred pages by Albert S. Bolles, a well-known authority on the subject (Henry Holt & Co.). It is one of the praiseworthy attempts now being made in various directions by what we may venture to call lay publishers, to popularize the law. We have noticed one or two, such as Mr. Birrell's book on Trustees and Mr. Stimson's on Labor Laws, in these columns. Mr. Bolles's hand-book differs from them in being almost altogether devoid of explanatory matter. He has condensed in the smallest possible compass an enormous body of law, taking in contract, sales, carriers, agency, partnership, negotiable paper, shipping, insurance, and corporations, and stated the leading rules, without going into the reasons for their existence, or referring the reader to any cases. Hence, for lawyers, the book must serve mainly as a sort of chart, or bird's-eye view, of an immense legal territory. For students it may be used as a convenient compendium, and those actually engaged in business who are intelligent enough to desire to rise above the rule-of-thumb by which most business is learned and carried on, may glean from it some idea of the appearance which commercial custom assumes when clothed in the forms of law. They cannot do better than to examine it with this idea in view. It will do much to correct the impression prevalent among them that law is an invention of the Evil One, and to reveal it as in great measure a product of commerce itself.

A treatise on 'Mechanics' Liens,' by Louis Boisot, jr. (West Publishing Co.), deals with what is at once an every-day topic and one of the most difficult subjects in our law. We can well believe the author when he says that his treatise is "the result of a great deal of hard work." He has endeavored to make it "both accurate and exhaustive," and, in order to achieve that end, has "left no part of the labor to others." He has collected and analyzed some fifty-five hundred cases, and has classified the results with great care and unusual discrimination, so that the differing aspects which the subject presents to the courts are all in turn considered. The method of treatment differs from that pursued by Judge Phillips in his well-known treatise, and the practitioner will find that neither volume occupies the field exclusively. Mr. Boisot's power of statement is very considerable, and his clearness unusual.

'International Law: A Simple Statement of its Principles' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is the title of a small manual on the subject treated, by Herbert Wolcott Bowen. The author describes it as "to a great degree but an amplification of notes taken on treaties, municipal laws, and the works of publicists, especially Wheaton, Woolsey, and Wharton." This is an accurate description, and we do not know that we can add anything to it except to offer our warmest congratulations to the author on having found some one to publish it.

'The Jewish Law of Divorce,' by David Werner Amram (Philadelphia: Edward Stern & Co.), treats of the law of divorce according to the Bible and Talmud, with some references to its development in post-Talmudic times. The author has reconstructed, with what he calls "fair accuracy," the ancient Jewish bill of divorce, or "get" (p. 157), and his whole account of the subject is interesting and valuable. The ancient right of the husband to divorce his wife at pleasure is the central idea of the entire system, and remained so, theoretically, according to Mr. Amram, from the days of Moses to those of Rabbi Gershom of Mayence, who, in the eleventh century, formally abolished it, though practically it had fallen into decadence in Talmudic times. "A private right of the husband, established by immemorial custom," he calls it (p. 25). This view he supports with a great deal of evidence, which, however, distinctly points to some earlier system in which the wife could have been got rid of by simpler means. There never was any trace of matriarchy among the Jews. The "get" in its earliest days probably represented an advance in family life, and a regulation of the patriarch's right to do what he pleased, and in this way became a species of security and passport for the rejected wife.

'The American Digest' (the successor of the old 'U. S. Digest') for 1896 (West Publishing Co.) contains 6,343 columns, or 3,172 pages, and some 33,000 cases. The more modest 'General Digest' (Rochester, N. Y.: Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Co.), in its main volume, from September, 1895, to July 1, 1896 (Vol. I., New Series), has only 1,709 pages and a beggarly list of 12,000 cases or so; but then we have quarterly advance sheets to October, 1896, and quarterly advance sheets "No. 1 Extra," which contain many thousand more. We shall not undertake to pass upon the merits of these rival publications, but give the statistics as one more proof of the untiring industry of our courts and reporters. We observe, by the way, that there is to be a 'Century American Digest,' covering a period of a hundred and fifty years, 4,600 volumes of law reports, and 500,000 cases. Rome, in her palmiest days, never made a record like this. It reflects a period of reckless legislation, producing a perpetual crop of needless questions of procedure and construction; and in our opinion it points to a trial judiciary greatly enfeebled by the general introduction of the elective system. The case gets worse every year. There is no cure for it except better courts and better legislation.

Literary Anecdotes of the Nineteenth Century. Vol. II. Edited by W. Robertson Nicoll, M.A., LL.D., and Thomas J. Wise. Dodd, Mead & Co. 1896.

When the first volume of the 'Literary Anecdotes' appeared, about a year ago, we described its contents at length and were able to praise them without stint. We are glad to welcome the second instalment with equal cordiality. Indeed, the only competition which the succeeding parts of the work have to fear is that arising from the excellence of their predecessors. We make this general statement at the outset of the present notice because we are constrained to content ourselves with a few words concerning the most interesting of the pieces now published.

The editors lay very decided stress on the section entitled "The Building of the Idylls." It is mentioned first in the preface, although it occupies less space than the Swinburne bibliography. One is slightly disappointed, after reading this finger-post, to find that the treatment of the theme is purely textual. A rare opportunity is afforded by the heading to interweave with an examination of the poet's changes of word and line some account of his deviations from Malory. The Tennysonian conception of Arthur's character differs so radically from Sir Thomas's that there is room for fine criticism in explaining the nature of the various divergencies. However, we must not complain, for we get a careful bit of work and a thoughtful one too. It will be indispensable to the numerous professors all over the country who are lecturing on Tennyson.

We have drawn "The Building of the Idylls" out of its place in the sequence from deference to the editor's manifest intention that it should be regarded, whatever else is overlooked. Our own inclination would be to dilate upon the item with which the volume opens, viz., "Three Letters concerning Ruskin's Notes on the Construction of Sheep-folds," by the Rev. F. D. Maurice, M.A. We take it that these Anecdotes succeed best where they throw light on personal character, and, tried by any such standard, the correspondence in question must take high rank. Ruskin contended that "the cowardice and faithlessness of the Church" alone held it back from issuing sentences of excommunication against notorious evil-livers. He would even proceed against men convicted of "any dishonorable conduct, . . . of any fraud, falsehood, cruelty, or violence." In a letter to Dr. Furnivall, dated March 25, 1851, Maurice, under thirteen enumerated paragraphs, confutes a demand that would "exclude ninety-nine-hundredths of mankind from the privileges of Christ's redemption." The matter did not drop here, for Ruskin made rejoinder, and interchange of views was kept up till it became clear that both were beyond the reach of persuasion. They were equally earnest and convinced, yet not too far eaten up by zeal to fail to be graceful and complimentary. The correspondence ceased with a letter of Maurice which begins thus: "I quite agree with you that we shall do each other little good by carrying on a controversy in which I, at least, have utterly failed in making myself understood, nay, have succeeded to admiration in making myself misunderstood."

Apropos of religious questions, Mrs. Browning is prominent in this volume, as she was in the first. Of the three sections devoted to her, the most important is concerned with her religious opinions. Mr. Robert Barrett Browning furnishes several letters written by his mother, a few years before her marriage, to William Merry, a friend of Miss Mitford. Miss Barrett was an amateurish theologian, but an extremely true-hearted woman. The crux of the discussion was predestination and election, Mr. Merry impugning the Calvinistic interpretation of the 17th article of the English Church. If Miss Barrett throws little new light on a subject which distracted the best theological minds of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, she reveals a sincerity unknown to all of them. How could one not thoroughly sincere adopt the unsystematic position she avows? "The truth is, dear Mr. Merry, that Arminians in general would call me a Calvinist, while Calvinists would call me an Arminian."

Our readers will perhaps gather that the interests of Dr. Robertson Nicoll have led to an undue representation of the religious element. We hasten to assure them that such is not the case. Pure literature, in the persons of Keats, Landor, Charlotte Brontë, Tennyson, George Eliot, Swinburne, and Kipling, carries the day easily. Corresponding to the excellent Browning bibliography of Volume I. is a confessedly incomplete but very valuable bibliography of Swinburne. There is the more need of one in his case since "many of the poems and essays . . . have been printed in short numbers and in pamphlet form. Some of these separate prints are of extraordinary scarcity, and many collectors have never had the opportunity of examining them." We are particularly pleased to see that a department of Ana, before wanting, has been added. One chapter is assigned to Tennysoniana, and another to a general *Nachtrag*.

The editors invite suggestions, and we shall therefore offer one or two. The first volume contained a beautiful frontispiece plate of William Blake; the second lacks portraits altogether. It ought not to be impossible to secure at least one unusual and handsome illustration for each volume. We recommend, also, that a precise statement be made of the source whence each piece comes, accompanied by a notice of any previous publication. We throw out a third hint with more diffidence. The curse of advertisement and puffing is so great that dead authors might be disposed of before men still living are treated. We should shudder even now if we thought a bibliography of Alfred Austin were forthcoming.

Memories of Hawthorne. By Rose Hawthorne Lathrop. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Company. 1897.

We read in the New Testament of those who neither go in themselves nor suffer them that would. The relatives of Hawthorne furnish an illustration of this method. Mr. Julian Hawthorne has made a book, 'Nathaniel Hawthorne and his Wife,' Mr. Lathrop, the son-in-law, another, and now we have these 'Memories of Hawthorne,' by Mrs. Lathrop, for a third, and a good life of Hawthorne is still "moving about in worlds not realized." It would probably have been written before now but for the availableness of the material for a literary family. Mr. Henry James's study in the "English Men of Letters" suffered from Mr. James's regret that Hawthorne never had enjoyed his own wide experience, while Lowell's widening experience prevented him from writing the biography for the "American Men of Letters," which he had promised.

Meanwhile, all the books proceeding from different members of the Hawthorne family contain invaluable matter for the real biographer when he at last arrives. They suffer from the bias of a filial piety which, however beautiful in the privacy of a domestic circle, is misleading in the selection of "all the news that's fit to print" about the dear departed. Mrs. Lathrop assures us that she has tried to weed out whatever "could give no especial pleasure to any descendant," and has found "that there was

scarcely one such page." But what may give pleasure to the generations yet unborn of Hawthornes and Lathrops may not be relished by the general taste or suited to the public gaze. Here are the love affairs of young Hawthorne and Miss Peabody turned inside out, in a manner that would certainly have been intolerable to Hawthorne if his imagination had anticipated such an event as possible. Here are illimitable ecstasies over the beauties and benignities of the Hawthorne children, pardonable to maternal pride, but for reading purposes a kind of whipped syllabub, which is not nourishing and may be sickening to some. Mrs. Lathrop has withheld nothing of the praises lavished on her own infancy and childhood, and so, of course, approves their publication, but one can easily conceive that Mr. Julian Hawthorne may object to figuring as "the marvellous boy" through several chapters of maternal adoration. What if his friends should take a fancy to call him hereafter "the Great Repose," Emerson having said, "Washington is the Great Repose, and Julian is the Little Repose—hereafter to become also the Great Repose"? Mrs. Hawthorne is much more in evidence than her husband. We see him mainly as reflected in her eyes and heart, and her dominant note is that of gushing sentiment and sensibility. What is sure, however, is that his genius deducted nothing from his character as a most loving husband. If she worshipped him as a god, he honored and helped her as a good average man. The glimpses of him add little or nothing to our previous knowledge of his character or the methods of his work.

It must not be imagined that Mrs. Hawthorne's rhapsodies were wholly peculiar to herself. They were characteristic of the transcendental period. A letter from George William Curtis to the Hawthornes in 1847 is hardly less ecstatic than Mrs. Hawthorne's habitual style; to some extent, perhaps, it was a concession to her taste. It meant no lack of moral fibre in her character. A delicate woman, she did not go to bed for thirty days and nights when her daughter was sick with Roman fever. Mrs. Lathrop's literary methods are inherited entirely from her mother's side. What they are in the body of the book can be surmised from the table of contents, in which appear such items as the following: "Sophia paints vigorously in her happy security of the highest love." "Emerson, Thoreau, and Hawthorne skate upon the river near the Manse with different aspects." "Mr. Alcott is lovingly analyzed by Mrs. Hawthorne." "The Emersons pervade the little town like reigning powers." "Hawthorne is hunted to gorgeous dinners against his better instincts." "Spiritualism introduces its clumsy morbidness to Mrs. Hawthorne in the presence of the Brownings." The text corresponding to the last item is a fresh revelation of Browning's extreme indifference to Mrs. Browning's experiments in Spiritualism.

The Buddhist Praying-Wheel: A Collection of Material bearing upon the Symbolism of the Wheel and Circular Movements in Custom and Religious Ritual. By William Simpson. Macmillan Co. 1896.

Persons interested in symbolism, or who care for studying curious customs and usages, will be attracted by this book. As might be inferred from the title, it contains an extensive amount of wheel-lore aside from the direct subject of the so-called Buddhist "praying-wheel," or, rather, "praising-wheel." The author's journeys in Tibet, in 1860 and 1861, first drew his attention to the praying-barrels and whirligig cylinders of the Lamas. He made numerous sketches of these mills for grinding out boons or benisons, and these sketches are used with numerous other drawings and reproductions to illustrate the book. The Lama wheels and whirligig contrivances may perhaps be due to Buddhistic influence, but the author is unwilling to assert this as a fact. He next proceeds to the "Wheel of the Law," which in Indian Buddhism symbolizes the sovereignty of truth and right that is to encompass the world through Buddha's teaching. But the symbol is really pre-Buddhistic, and is traced back to earlier Brahmanism.

When the author comes to Zoroastrianism, he says he has not been able to secure satisfactory evidence to show that the circle or wheel, as a symbol, belonged to Persia in antiquity as it belongs to India and to Tibet. He might have cited from the sculptured rocks of Behistan with the ancient Persian inscriptions, the ring, wheel, circle, or chaplet which the god Ormazd is represented as holding in his hand or presenting to the great King Darius, as an emblem of royal power and supreme sway. This circle or ring, which recalls Shakspere's "round and top of sovereignty," occurs also in the second chapter of the Avestan 'Vendidad,' or Iranian Genesis. The suggestion just made might at least be offered as tending to prove that the wheel under discussion as a symbol is Persian as well as Indian; and the allusion might be added to the surprisingly large amount of wheel-lore which the volume contains, not only of Aryan nations, but also of Semitic peoples and of remote tribes. The aim of the book is to show the ultimate solar origin of the wheel as a symbol.

The work is a little diffuse, but it contributes much information upon a subject about which we have so little, and it is serviceable.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bancroft, W. D. The Phase Rule. Ithaca, N. Y.: "Journal of Physical Chemistry."
Chapman, Abel. Wild Norway; with Chapters on Spitzbergen, Denmark, etc. Edward Arnold. $5.
Eddy, Sarah J. Songs of Happy Life. Providence: Art & Nature Publishing Co.
Finch, Adelaide V. The Finch Primer. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Gordon, Julien. His Letters. Cassell. 50c.
Hatfield, Prof. J. T. Materials for German Composition. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 12c.
Jerome, J. K. Sketches in Lavender, Blue, and Green. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Lavisse, Prof. E., and Rambaud, Prof. A. Histoire Générale, du IVe Siècle à nos Jours. Tome IX. Napoléon. 1800-1815.
Locke, W. J. Derelicts. John Lane. $1.50.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 3, 1897.

The Week.

The significance of Secretary Gage's speech at Cincinnati is that it declares that the gold standard must be preserved, that steps will be taken to this end, and that he believes that Congress will pass the measure or measures necessary to this purpose. The Secretary may be mistaken in his belief that Congress will coöperate to this end, but it is a great gain to know that the executive branch of the Government intends to labor for it. The effort will give new courage to the forces that fought together and won the victory of last year, and which were fast disintegrating under the baleful influence of the squabble for tariff spoils at Washington. Mr. Gage thought the business men in attendance on the Cincinnati meeting were agreed that a currency commission should be authorized and appointed at once, with a view to the formulation of a plan which could be presented to Congress when it reassembled in December. In the recess of Congress hearings could and should be given by the commission to financiers and others who might desire to be heard from all parts of the country. If the commission should fail to agree on a satisfactory plan, the Administration would probably have a proposition to present to Congress. In any event, the people with whom the Secretary conversed were agreed that some initiatory action should be taken at once; and so it ought, in an official communication to Congress by the President. A joint resolution to provide for a currency commission would no doubt easily pass the House, and give the Senate something to debate and vote on when the tariff bill goes into conference committee. If the Senate should refuse to concur, the other alternative suggested by the Secretary, *i. e.*, the presentation of a plan by the Administration without the help of a commission, would be in order, as it always is.

The Republican managers in the Senate have devised a plan for rapid progress in the consideration of the tariff bill. Every committee amendment to which no opposition is made by either Republicans or their allies among the Democrats and Populists is passed, while any proposition from which there is dissent on the Republican side is reserved to be settled in caucus. In this manner ten pages have been disposed of in a single day, the sincere opponents of the protective system among the Democrats contenting themselves with pointing out the many examples presented of that "extreme tariff legislation" which Mr. Aldrich has admitted that public sentiment no longer sustains. Mr. Aldrich has evidently arranged a "combine" which will stick together through thick and thin on the platform of successful plunder of the common treasury for special interests. The strength of this combine rests with what the New York *Press* has styled "the blackmailing representatives of Rocky Mountain ranges and ranches," for these Senators have their constituents behind them in any demands which they may choose to make. On the other hand, there is no evidence that the Eastern Republicans will sustain their Senators in defeating the bill in order to resist such demands. Indeed, the party press in New England is already calling upon the representatives of that section to submit to anything in order to finish the business as speedily as possible. The Manchester (N. H.) *Mirror and American*, for example, confesses that the bill as reported by the finance committee is not altogether to its taste, since "it puts a duty upon tea, which we do not believe is necessary or politic; it puts a duty upon hides, which we should be glad to see left on the free list; it does not protect some New England products as much as we think it should, and it protects the products of some other sections more than seems to us desirable." But it considers the passage of a tariff bill necessary to redeem the pledges of the party, and "almost any sacrifice proper in order to save it." It therefore advises the New England Senators to change the pending measure if they can, but to make it their chief duty to get it upon the statute-book in some shape, "and that, too, as speedily as possible, *by whatever arrangement, concession, or trade may be necessary to pass it.*" This argument would justify Senators Chandler and Gallinger of New Hampshire in swallowing even the sugar schedule at a gulp.

All the indications at Washington point to the belief that the additional tax on beer will be rejected when it comes to a vote in the Senate. It is probable that the additional tax on tobacco will be defeated. Special interests are strongly opposed to both these taxes. The most powerful single influence in the United States of a political sort is the saloon influence, and this is controlled by the brewers. It is universal and ubiquitous. Unlike the interest that is fighting against the duty on hides, it is not confined to one corner of the Union. It is found in every city and town of more than 10,000 inhabitants, and in the larger cities it is very nearly omnipotent when united. The hint has been thrown out that as the breweries have been largely sold to English syndicates within recent years, they may be more easily approached by the tax-gatherer than if they had remained in the hands of their former proprietors. This is a superficial view. The question is not who owns the breweries, but who controls the saloons. Everybody knows that the breweries do this; and as the saloons control a very large vote, the question of foreign ownership does not count. Both Senator Platt of New York and Senator Cullom of Illinois have amendments to offer to the bill, striking out the additional tax on beer. Mr. Platt intends to offer as a substitute the stamp taxes on bank checks and legal instruments that existed during the war. These taxes yielded $15,044,000 in the year 1866, and would probably yield $30,000,000 now. In the present condition of the national finances, these stamp taxes ought to be reënacted, even if the proposed beer tax should be retained. As the Government's statistician, Mr. Ford, has given his opinion officially that the revenue will be less than the expenses even if all the items of the Senate bill are retained, some remedy must be found. The deficit must be stopped. Unless that result is reached, the Republican party will be crushed at the next congressional elections, and the business of the country will be even worse than it is now. It is conceivable that President McKinley may be forced to sell bonds to keep the Treasury in funds. As things are now going, we shall soon need all the internal-revenue taxes of the war period to meet the Government's bills.

Senator Jones of Arkansas made a pretty showing up of the plate-glass schedules in the Senate on Saturday. He demonstrated that Senator Aldrich, in his abhorrence of "extreme protection," had shoved up the glass duties from 30 to 83 per cent. above even the monstrous McKinley rates. This had been done, moreover, at the demand of the Pittsburgh Plate Glass Company, which controls the trade in this country and actually makes customers take sizes of glass they do not want or else go without. Senator Jones read the company's answer to an order, in which it was stated that "under no circumstance will they accept orders for those two sizes at a greater proportion than 20 per cent. of the entire quantity under 5 square feet." Yet the company is not a Trust, for Senator Quay says it is not; and it makes no profits, for Senator Platt of Connecticut had "heard" that it did not, though he had nothing to say to R. G. Dun's report that $2,500,000 had been

made by the Pittsburgh Glass Company in twenty-two months on a capital (how much water not known) of $10,000,000. But the real reason for an increase of the duties for the benefit of this concern appeared in the answer of the customer whose order was refused for not including the kind of glass the company preferred to sell. He wrote: "We see that we have to look abroad for our supply in assortments such as our business requires." But the company knew a trick worth two of that. It flew, or had Quay fly, to Aldrich and got him to put up the rates so that this wicked looking abroad would no longer be possible for the victims of its tyrannical business methods. And the solid Republican vote was given manfully for the increase, even after its flagrant nature had been exposed.

Mr. John De Witt Warner explains in the *Evening Post* the reason why the American Sugar Refining Company wants an ad-valorem duty. It is because this phrase makes the market value of the sugar at the place of growth the basis of the collection of duties; and since sugars are grown in many small islands where there is really no market value, they can make the invoice price pretty much to suit themselves. Mr. Aldrich proposes, says Mr. Warner, "that the Treasury become a partner in fleecing itself by adopting an ad-valorem rate, which will reduce the duty collected on the Trust's raw material in precise proportion as it is successful in procuring undervaluations. It is a scheme to secure for the Trust as much as possible of its raw material on terms which will give it the greatest possible net 'protection' on its refined product, and at the same time help it to depress the prices of raw sugars produced here by our beet-sugar farmers and small planters of cane sugar." That there is a deal of deception in Mr. Aldrich's explanation of the sugar schedule seems to be taken for granted by the press, and especially by the Republican press. The Springfield *Union* says that "a schedule which requires such an elaborate and intricate defence cannot be as good as it is painted." That is a mild way of putting it. An explanation which people of intelligence cannot understand must be a cover for fraud.

By a curious freak of fate, on the very day when the new sugar schedules were being explained in the Senate, Mr. H. O. Havemeyer, the head of the Sugar Trust, was called up by a very different tribunal to give an explanation on a closely related subject. What Mr. Aldrich explained was the probable effect of the Senate sugar schedule on the income of the country; what Mr. Havemeyer was called upon to atone for was refusing to explain how much of the Trust's income was used in getting through the present sugar schedule in the Wilson bill. Mr. Havemeyer's defence was that he never made any contributions for national purposes, and hence had nothing to tell bearing on the inquiry of the Senate committee. But, however innocent of contumacy, he never pretended that the Sugar Trust did not put its money where it would do most good. Judge Bradley dismissed the indictment against him on the ground that the evidence introduced by the prosecution did not sustain the charge of contempt. The guilt of the defendant, he held, depended on two propositions, first, whether the committee had jurisdiction and the question was pertinent, and, second, whether the question called for facts within the possession of the witness. He had not been called upon by his subpœna to bring his books with him, and the facts as to political contributions called for were not matters within his personal knowledge. This he had positively stated to the Senate committee under oath. Hence, he had committed no contempt, and the other questions, whether the committee had jurisdiction of an inquiry into State and local contributions, or whether the inquiries as to these were pertinent, did not come up.

At the end of a state trial nowadays, it is the custom of the Associated Press reporter on duty to inquire of the accused what view he takes of the result of the trial. If it has gone in his favor he declares it to be satisfactory to him, while if it results in a conviction, he criticises it as unwarranted by the evidence, or contrary to law. The question was put in the usual form to Mr. Havemeyer, "Is the result satisfactory to you?" and he answered unqualifiedly in the affirmative, adding vigorously, "And to every decent man in the community." The last statement, however, was obviously not within his personal knowledge. Every decent man may be supposed to sympathize with the escape of a man unjustly accused, but Mr. Havemeyer's offence in the popular eye is not contempt of the Senate, but procuring legislation by corrupt means; and this charge has never been tried, and is not likely to be tried.

No subsidies of any kind from any government have been given to the Hamburg-American Steamship Line during the fifty years of its existence. How, then, are we to account for the extraordinary growth of its business and its fleet, as set forth at the celebration of its semi-centennial last week? No subsidies no ships, say our ablest ship-loving and ship-building Senators. Only the other day they had to talk about giving American register to a foreign ship to carry our relief contributions to India, because we have none of our own to send, presumably through lack of shipping bounties. The French, on the other hand, have been fairly killing their shipping with subsidies. The French Government now pays in bounties about half the cost of steamships, besides contributing heavily to the expense of navigating them; yet French tonnage is steadily decreasing. The experience of the Hamburg Line seems therefore to indicate that getting freight and passengers is, after all, a surer road to steamship prosperity than getting subsidies. This is a hard doctrine, but the facts prove it. We know, however, that our greatest senatorial authorities on shipping bounties will only say, So much the worse for the facts.

The "original package" question is a very puzzling one. A few years ago, when the scheme was devised of sending liquors into prohibition States for sale in bottles, casks, or barrels, Congress, in the exercise of its power to regulate commerce among the several States, passed a law providing that all liquors transported into any State should immediately become subject to the laws of that State, and should not be exempted therefrom by reason of being introduced in original packages. When South Carolina adopted the dispensary system, by which the State monopolizes the control of the traffic, this law, in connection with a provision in the dispensary law, was relied upon to prevent the selling of imported liquors by private parties. On Monday, however, Judge Simonton of the United States Circuit Court decided that, when a State recognizes and approves the sale of liquors and itself engages in the traffic, "it is not a lawful exercise of the police power to forbid the importation of such liquors or their sale in original packages for personal use and consumption, such prohibition under those circumstances being in conflict with the laws of interstate and foreign commerce." The case will of course be carried to the Supreme Court. Should that tribunal sustain Judge Simonton's position, the dispensary law would be practically nullified.

The last New York Legislature left behind it some 750 bills for the Governor to dispose of, this being about three-quarters of an average year's harvest. Many of them he has slaughtered, thus saving, it is said, some $1,000,000, so that we shall have, as the net result of the season, less legislation than usual. This is certainly gratifying, but the root of the evil is there still. Three-quarters of the work is not legislation at all, but consists of administrative measures relating to the government of cities, or to the management of corporations, which have to go through the mill at Albany simply because the Constitution does not provide a means by which the

corporations and the cities may attend to them by machinery of their own. The Greater New York charter ostensibly puts a stop to this business so far as New York is concerned, by creating a legislature here for local business, but alas! it leaves the Legislature at Albany in full possession of its existing powers.

Mr. Platt puts forth in his personal organ, the old Tammany *Sun*, an official account of the way in which he uses his governmental powers to discourage refractoriness and independence in the ranks of the party. He is so proud of his system that he reveals its workings without reservation, feeling for decent public sentiment that same supreme contempt which Gov. Black delights to express. He directs public attention today to the fact that all the nine Republican Senators who opposed the confirmation of Lou Payn have had their bills killed by Gov. Black. He does not say this directly in regard to all the Senators, but he declares it to be a fact in regard to some, and intimates that it is a fact in regard to others. He says that the Governor has either "allowed to die or has vetoed certain bills in which Republican Senators were interested who voted against the confirmation of Louis F. Payn," that among these Senators was Mr. White of Syracuse, "all of whose bills have been either vetoed or allowed to die by Gov. Black," and that the Republicans admire the Governor for the "spirit" he has shown. We have little doubt that the Governor has shown the same extraordinary "spirit" towards the bills of the seven Senators and Assemblymen who ventured to vote in caucus against Platt himself for Senator. If he has not, then he has failed to carry into execution one of the fundamental principles of the government of which he is held up by Platt to be so obedient an agent. The fear that he would show this "spirit" was the controlling influence at Albany during the Senatorship controversy. Senator Siebert of Buffalo said that if he were to vote for Mr. Choate, "everything would be tied up in Albany so that Erie County would get no appropriations for the new armory or any legislation that it wanted." Assemblyman Fuller of Broome County said: "I am uncertain what to do. I have various important measures which I desire to introduce in the Assembly, and if I do not vote for Platt, none of them will be allowed to go through." Both these men voted for Platt. When it came to Payn's confirmation, the same power was exerted, but nine Senators had the courage to refuse to yield to it.

Mr. T. P. O'Connor's account, in the June *Harper*, of Mr. Chamberlain's debating methods was confirmed even while his article was appearing. There was a debate in the Commons on May 13 about foreign prison-made goods, and Mr. Chamberlain intervened, in what Mr. O'Connor truly declares to be his usual style, with some quotations from former speeches of John Morley and Mr. Bryce, intending to cover those gentlemen with confusion. He had great fun while he was at it, and got the House laughing immoderately. But the laugh was turned against Mr. Chamberlain when Mr. Bryce replied. After paying a tribute to the remarkable exhibition, he would not say of oratory, but of "political agility" which the House had just enjoyed, he went on to show that, if it came to citations of old speeches, he could do something in that line himself, and produced a most damning extract from a speech of Chamberlain's, no longer than two years ago, in direct contradiction of what he was saying now. Then, on the main question of what the facts really were—that is, of the real competition in England of foreign prison-made goods—Mr. Bryce quite overwhelmed Mr. Chamberlain, and fairly drove him from the House. But that agile gentleman will turn up again next time, just as jaunty as ever, with another quotation or two in his vest-pocket to "corner" hopelessly his adversaries. Chamberlain's fondness for charging inconsistency, when he himself has eaten more of his own words than almost any man in public life, is a psychological curiosity.

The production of a part of the South African cablegrams before the Parliamentary investigating committee on May 18 added little, perhaps, to the evidence that the Jameson raid was a long-cherished plot at which it was thought the imperial authorities would connive, but the dispatches exchanged between Rhodes and his London agent do show the former's thorough unscrupulousness in stronger light than ever. Rhodes was terribly impatient about the transfer of the Bechuanaland protectorate (in order that he might get his expeditionary force on the Transvaal border), and cabled angrily, while the negotiators were showing some regard for the rights of the natives: "It is humiliating to be utterly beaten by these niggers. They think more of one native at home than the whole of South Africa." "The Jameson plan" was freely spoken of in the dispatches, and was referred to even in communications to the Colonial Office, but the phrase is now explained as meaning the massing of a force on the border, not necessarily the raid. The nearest approach to proving that the Colonial Office was privy to the raid was found in the evidence that Rhodes's agents had talked freely with a Mr. Fairfield, Chamberlain's chief clerk at the Colonial Office. It is known that he informed Mr. Chamberlain of other things said to him by the Rhodes emissaries, and why not this? On this point Dr. Harris, Rhodes's man, declared, under oath:

> "I cannot say that is solely what I said to Mr. Fairfield. I am bound to say, both for my own reputation and Mr. Fairfield's, it is in the knowledge of other gentlemen that I spoke more openly to Mr. Fairfield than that. I will explain what I said now that I am compelled to do so. I mentioned to Mr. Fairfield that one of the reasons why Mr. Rhodes was anxious to get the protectorate was that he considered it imperative to have a British force on the borders, so that in the event of a disturbance taking place in Johannesburg he would be in a position, if he deemed it right, to use that force."

What sort of a head clerk must Mr. Fairfield have been, thus to have known of the raid beforehand, but to have concealed it from his chief? Luckily for Mr. Chamberlain, Fairfield is dead.

The breakdown of the great socialistic experiment in the Carmaux glass works, of which an account has been given in these columns, is important chiefly because the attempt was there made to apply socialistic doctrine practically, and under the most favorable conditions. The capital of $100,000, obtained by a lottery, was substantially a gift. The institution was backed by the leading lights of French Socialism; the furnaces were lighted, as it were, by the flaming oratory of M. Jaurès. All that sympathy and solidarity and fraternity could do to make the works successful was guaranteed in advance. Yet the whole has gone to wreck just as if it were a case of vulgar exploiting by private capital. Wages are months in arrears, heavy debts are accumulating, the workmen and their families are begging in the streets. No wonder that those of the men who have applied for work elsewhere, begin by saying, "We have lost all illusions."

It seems hardly conceivable that the very Powers which gave Thessaly to Greece by the Berlin Treaty can now allow it to be given back; but as it was England who forced on the Berlin Treaty, so now it would seem to depend on England whether much interest is shown in its being observed. And if Turkey announces her intention to stay in Thessaly, who is going to drive her out? Lord Salisbury might withdraw from the Concert, but that, unless it was a forerunner of a policy of isolated and aggressive action, would only leave the other Powers to do what they liked. On the whole, cool observers in England feel that the proceedings of the Concert —the massacre of the Armenians, the blockade of Crete, the invasion and ruin of Greece—have brought Europe no nearer a peaceful settlement of the Eastern question than it was two years ago. In a recent French caricature, Lord Salisbury and M. Hanotaux are represented as commiserating one another with glum faces and sighing, "As long as they fight, it's all right. But when Peace comes——"

ISSUES IN SEARCH OF A PARTY.

The deepening sense of political confusion and cross-purposes, at Washington and throughout the country, is due to the growing fear of voters that the ordinary political remedy is to be taken away from them. No single, sharp issue now divides, or promises soon to divide, parties and the electorate. Historically the way to punish a party for bad measures has been to put in power the party that was against them; now we seem shut up to putting in power a party which stands for worse measures. In other words, no issue is joined; the competition of parties is not for the honor of passing or opposing some one great measure; their avowed plan is to meet one evil with another, it being an open question which is the greater. Whichever way the voter turns, he is thus in danger of having mistaken his remedy, as the courts say.

Look at the actual situation in Washington. A tariff bill is pushing towards enactment which the Democrats say is monstrous. But what alternative do they offer? A better tariff? Stout opposition to this one? Oh, no; they offer us free silver. If you are against a corrupt tariff, they are practically saying to the voters, the only way to show it is to go for free silver. Electors who are against both a wicked tariff and free silver do not enter into the calculation; the political managers ignore them, and think that hence they do not exist. Reversing the comparison, Republican plans for meeting the Democratic mischief are just as far from really making an issue. The Democratic proposition is free silver; the Republican counter-proposition is a scandalous tariff. There is, to be sure, a perfunctory and largely insincere Republican opposition to free silver, just as there is a perfunctory and largely insincere Democratic opposition to a high tariff. But these are mere asides. In general the case is made up of Extreme Protection vs. Free Silver. This is much like giving a victim his choice of the manner of his death; like calling upon men under conviction of sin to choose, not between the Lord and the Devil, but between Satan and Ahriman or Unkulunkulu.

The most exasperating part of this jangling of party issues is that there are questions of the largest importance, in which thousands of citizens are deeply interested and on which they are anxious to see parties align themselves. We often hear of parties looking about for an issue; it is now, however, a case of issues in search of a party. Causes filled with the promise and potency of political victory, as well as of the public good, are actually begging some party to take them up and ride with them to success. Never was public opinion riper for a rational measure of currency reform. Bankers and business men, boards of trade and chambers of commerce are ready, in all parts of the country, to give the heartiest backing to any man or party that will move resolutely in this matter. But what can they do with the alternative actually presented them—Bryanism or Aldrichism? Economy in public expenditures is a subject to which voters in every State are looking with anxiety to see some party take it up as a part of its serious programme. But both parties in Congress are simply rivals in profligacy. Business-like administration in national, State, and city affairs would furnish a platform almost invincible if honestly adopted and lived up to by any party. But leaders in both parties are vying with each other in flouting and breaking down the civil-service laws.

This grotesque state of things may continue for some time; voters may be compelled to cast their ballots this fall, and even in next year's congressional elections, for parties both of which they distrust and despise, or make a choice of evils when what they ardently desire is to choose neither. But it is incredible that some way out will not be found after that. The American sense of humor, to say nothing of American logic, will refuse to be shut up to political issues which are so grossly unreal as the issue between free silver and a corrupt tariff. The real issues will, in the end, find a real party. Voters who are against free silver will be allowed to vote for the gold standard; those who are against a tariff of barter and sale will find some way of indicating their preference for an honest tariff for revenue.

Just how this will come about he would be that rashest of men, a political prophet, who should undertake to say. But there are several ways in which it might come about. A tremendous drubbing administered to the Republicans this fall and next might sober them as did their defeats in 1874, and lead them to take up currency reform in earnest as they took up resumption in earnest then. Or, if they fail, there are the Sound-Money Democrats. They ask and can make no compromise. They refuse to take either horn of the silver-protection dilemma. The Indianapolis platform remains, and, in case of Republican recreancy, would be the one rallying-place of honest men in 1900. The Republican organization could not be held together against it; next time it would be the turn of Sound-Money Republicans to break with their party in order to save the country's honor. These may be idle speculations, but it is certain that the present intolerable confusion of politics and absence of definite political issues cannot long continue. Either through a stirring up of the conscience or a readjustment of old parties, or by the creation of a new party, the American people will find a way of voting for or against a given policy; not, as now, of being free to choose only the particular kind of ruin and disgrace they may prefer.

SENATOR ALDRICH'S SPEECH.

Mr. Aldrich's opening speech on the amendments to the tariff bill reported by the finance committee was very adroit for the purpose at which the Senator aimed, which was to make the bill stand straight on its tripod. The tripod, as we pointed out when the amendments were first reported, consists of three items, sugar, wool, and hides. These are the three things which are expected to carry each other and the whole bill through. That the sugar schedule is devised primarily for the benefit of the Sugar Trust (as the existing law is) no one who understands the subject doubts. The subject is not easily understood, however, and hence a man with a glib tongue, and who holds a responsible position, and is practised in tariff controversy, can easily make the worse appear the better reason. This Mr. Aldrich may succeed in doing until some Senator equally skilled in debate and perhaps more familiar with the intricacies of sugar refining, shall answer him. He will certainly be put to his trumps before the bill leaves the Senate. Meanwhile it will be well to remember that Mr. Aldrich was reckoned as an outside ally of the Gorman-Brice combine that spoiled the Wilson bill in 1894.

Aside from the three items which constitute the tripod of the present bill, Mr. Aldrich's speech is little likely to give satisfaction to his own party. He says in effect that the country did not expect the extreme rates of the Dingley bill and that those rates are not now justifiable. He adds that those of the McKinley bill would not now be justifiable. What he says here is true enough to elicit growls from the Dingleyites which have already been heard, and will probably be louder when the bill gets back to the House, but it will not conciliate the Democrats or bring any support to the measure whch it does not now enjoy, for a bill which contains the wool and woollen schedule of this bill can never pass for a moderate measure. "The committee believe," says Mr. Aldrich, "that in the reductions they have suggested from the rates imposed in the House bill, they have not gone in any instance below the protective point." He should have said "the prohibitive point." The Senate amendments are in some respects less swinish than those of the Dingley bill, and in some respects more so. There is not much to choose between them as regards rates. It may be said, perhaps, that the Senate has reduced a larger number than it has raised, but in some important cases it has raised rates which ought to have been reduced. Carpet wool furnishes one such instance, and hides another, and sugar a third,

these being, as we have said, the three legs on which the whole structure stands.

Mr. Aldrich's explanation of the revenue features of the bill are far from satisfactory. He first demolishes Mr. Dingley's estimate of the income to be derived from the House bill. How wide of the mark this estimate was, in Mr. Aldrich's opinion, may be inferred from the fact that he estimates a surplus of only $2,725,000 from his own bill after taking account of the increased duty on sugar, the new duty on tea, and the additional taxes on beer and tobacco. In other words, there is a difference of about $40,000,000 in the computations of Dingley and Aldrich, which is rather startling when we consider that they both claim to be experts, and ought to be such, and that the question whether there shall be a surplus or a deficit depends upon what they are doing. The most important fact brought out in the subsequent debate was that the chief of the Bureau of Statistics, Mr. W. C. Ford, had expressed the opinion, in response to an inquiry of the committee, that neither the House bill nor the Senate bill would furnish sufficient revenue to meet the expenses of the government. It is probable that the Dingley bill, by cutting off imports, would yield even less than the present tariff.

Mr. Aldrich, while enlarging upon the revenue features of his own measure, and particularly upon the gains to the Treasury from his raw sugar duties, explains also that these duties will have the effect to multiply the production of sugar in our own country, and he presents a truly glowing picture of the increasing beet culture. He looks forward to the time, not far distant, when we shall grow all the sugar we can consume. Where the revenue will come from then he did not deign to say. He said, in explanation of the proposed repeal of the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty —a measure dictated in the interest of this promising beet industry—that if the treaty should remain in force it would result in giving a bounty to the Hawaiian sugar-producers amounting to more than $8,000,000. He added that "it was not contemplated when the original treaty was made, or when it was extended, that any possible advantage of this kind could ever result from its terms to the people of the Sandwich Islands." The truth is, that that is exactly what was contemplated by the original treaty, and that the opponents of it made the charge against it that such would be its effect, and that its supporters did not deny it. During the twenty years that it has been in force the effect here described by Aldrich has been frequently noted and commented on, and now Mr. Aldrich affects to be startled by it. He comes upon it as though it were a new thing not contemplated by Secretary Fish when he negotiated it, or by the Congress that sanctioned it. The treaty was always a grief to the sugar-refiners on the Atlantic seaboard, and it did work some injustice to them, although they were rather far away from the influence of Hawaiian competition. They want to get rid of it now, and they find some ready allies among the beet-growers of California. This accounts for the proposed repeal of the treaty.

Touching Mr. Aldrich's remarks on the chief feature of his party's policy, the New York *Tribune* and Philadelphia *Press* adopt a deprecatory tone, contenting themselves with such cautious remarks as the *Tribune's* that "it may fairly be doubted whether the act which secured the highest prosperity ever enjoyed by this country deserves the description of extreme tariff legislation." The New York *Press* thinks this altogether too mild a tone to adopt, calls Mr. Aldrich "Mr. Cleveland's new disciple," and considers it "much to be regretted that as clear a thinker as the Senator should have departed in the misty land of generalization where a late occupant of the White House was wont to roam." Moreover, Republican organs are constrained to admit that there are plenty of examples of "extreme tariff legislation" in the bill which Mr. Aldrich has reported. The first day's proceedings after the bill was taken up showed that the "blackmailing" character of the measure would be made perfectly plain before it got through the Senate. The finance committee increased the duty on borax from 2 to 5 cents a pound, without any other reason than that the Nevada Senators insisted upon it for the benefit of a few people in their State. Mr. White, a Democratic Senator from California, helped on the exposure of the trading by which alone the bill can get through, supporting the proposed increase and remarking "facetiously" that, "in the distribution of favors by this bill, he desired to have his State receive a share."

BOUNTIES FOR FARMERS.

Mr. David Lubin of Sacramento, Cal., has been engaged for some years in the endeavor to procure for the farmers of the United States an export bounty on agricultural products equivalent to the duty on imports which they pay by way of protection to manufacturers. At first Mr. Lubin was laughed at. His scheme was so novel and apparently absurd that nobody took the trouble to answer him seriously. He kept at work, however. He was not daunted by the ridicule heaped upon him. He began to lecture before the granges and to send circulars and pamphlets to farmers. He prompted them to discuss the matter among themselves, and to send petitions to Congress praying for the enactment of a bounty law. Gradually he found listeners and helpers. Several State granges endorsed his plan. Then he turned his attention to the clergy, urging them to take it up on the score of justice and equity. Here he met with considerable success, especially in the city of Philadelphia. Mr. Lubin is a devout protectionist. The clergymen of Philadelphia are devout protectionists. They, or a majority of them, have formed a sort of Lubin League to promote the bounty plan by legislation and to make it a feature of the pending tariff bill.

Mr. Lubin has lately been in New York seeking to enlist clergymen in this city in the same endeavor, and has, we believe, met with some success. And now he has found an advocate in the Senate of the United States in the person of Mr. Cannon of Utah. This gentleman has offered an amendment to the tariff bill embodying the Lubin plan, which provides for the payment of a bounty of 10 cents per bushel on wheat exported, and corresponding rates on corn, rye, flour, hops, cotton, and tobacco. We commend the brief speech which Mr. Cannon made when he offered the amendment to the attention of all good tariff men. If anybody is disposed to take it as a joke and a travesty on the doctrine of protection, that would be a grave mistake. No Senator who listened to Mr. Cannon made that mistake.

Senator Sewell asked Mr. Cannon where the money was to come from to pay these bounties, and Mr. Cannon replied that there would be no difficulty about that. They could stop building iron-clads for a few years and save enough to pay the wheat bounty in that way. He might have added, and he probably will add at the proper time, that $15,000,000 can be saved by passing the Loud post-office bill to cut off leeches who are preying on the postal revenues, and that an equal sum can be saved by stopping the river and harbor profligacy. Another large sum can be saved by stopping the public-building profligacy. In fact, Mr. Cannon is right in saying that there will be no difficulty in finding the money if Congress decides to do the thing. It is only a question whether it shall go to the farmers or to somebody else. It is at bottom not a question of ways and means, but of justice. The present system of taxing the farmer for the benefit of the manufacturer without making him any return, Mr. Cannon calls "robbery." He called it by that name several times in the course of his speech, and said that in using that phrase he did so as a Republican and a protectionist. None of his fellow-Republican Senators looked at the matter in the light of a joke. They were all very serious.

Having succeeded in placing his theory beyond the reach of derision, Mr. Lubin has half won his victory. He has done what the free-trade leagues, the tariff-reform clubs, and the Southern briga-

diers never could do. He has approached the farmers on the protectionist side, and although he has used the same arguments that have been addressed to them a thousand times by the free-traders, he alone has gained their ear. The free-traders have said to them in effect: "You are paying all the expenses of government and a still larger sum in bounties to monopolies besides. Why don't you join us in repealing these bounties? Then you will get your goods cheaper, and the manufacturers will pay their share of the national taxes." Mr. Lubin says, and firmly believes, that the bounty system is right, but that it is one-sided. Give the farmer his share and it will be perfect. This is a very telling argument with men who believe in protection, but do not hear the jingle of its coins in their own pockets. And when a farmer comes to take the Lubin view, he is not far from denouncing as robbery a system which fails to reimburse him.

It is hardly to be expected that Mr. Cannon's amendment to the tariff bill will be adopted. The Populists will vote for it. The Silver Republicans may do so. The Democrats could fasten it on the bill if they desired. But all the indications are that they want the bill to pass, and hence will not vote for any amendment that would kill it. The straight Republicans will vote against it because it completely rips up their system. Yet they ought not to object to the payment of bounties from the Treasury on any grounds of principle. They voted a direct bounty for home-grown sugar in the McKinley bill, and paid it for several years. Why should they not vote one to the wheat-exporters in the Dingley bill? Is sugar-planting more meritorious than wheat-growing? Are the Louisiana cane-growers entitled to more consideration than the Dakota wheat-farmers or the Nebraska corn-planters? Let us have a little logic infused into this subject, men and brethren. Mr. Lubin seems to have been specially raised up to render you this service.

THE FRENCH WOOLLEN INDUSTRY.

Since August, 1894, foreign wools have had free entry into the markets of the United States. Before passing judgment upon the success or failure of the experiment, it will be of interest to give some attention to the movement of wools in the markets of the great manufacturing countries—France, Germany, and England—countries that have not for many years imposed any customs duty on raw wools. France offers the closest resemblance to the United States, as she has at home and in Algeria a wool interest that might demand her protective care on the same grounds that the wool-growers of Ohio, Idaho, or Montana rest their claims on Congress. In 1893 France received 20,000,000 pounds of wool from Algeria, and in 1896 only 9,341,200 pounds. The Algerian wool-grower would appear to have just as good a case as Judge Lawrence, if not better, for in 1893 Algeria supplied only 4.2 per cent, of the total quantity of foreign wools imported into France, and even that small footing in the French market is slipping away under the stress of competition from other lands.

The chief interest in the wool figures of France is to be found in the sources of foreign wool, for both in quantity and direction of import great changes have occurred since 1893. The tendency has been to obtain more from the countries of immediate production, and less through intermediate markets. In 1893, nearly 93,000,000 pounds was credited to England; in 1896, only 80,000,000. In the former year Belgium occupied the third place in importance, with 81,600,000 pounds; in 1896, that country had almost ceased to be a source of wool, sending only 4,400,000 pounds. On the other hand, the imports of wools from Argentina rose from 175,200,000 pounds in 1893 to 237,170,000 pounds in 1896; from Australia they more than doubled, increasing from 47,000,000 pounds to 113,320,000 pounds, and the imports from Uruguay swelled in nearly the same proportion—from 13,560,000 pounds to 34,553,000 pounds.

The French manufacturer has followed the economic development of the wool-growing industry, and has sought his raw material in those countries which possess the highest ability to produce wool — Argentina, Australia, Uruguay, and Spain. As a result he obtains all the wool he needs, at prices which are no more than his German or English competitor pays, and he provides a stable demand for the fleeces offered in the world's markets. In 1893, the imports into France were 469,800,000 pounds, and the average price was about 12.4 cents a pound. In no year since have the imports fallen below that figure, and in 1896 they rose to 554,052,000 pounds, at an average price of about 11.5 cents a pound. As every pound was entered for use in domestic manufactures, there is little evidence of great depression in the woollen industry, and still less evidence of the fulfilment of the prediction of American protectionists, that free wool here would so disturb the world's demand that prices would undergo extreme fluctuations. For three years foreign wools have ruled in the French market at the unchanging price of 1 fr. 41 c. the kilogram. In 1894, France had 20,721,850 sheep and lambs, and the number has tended to decrease from year to year. Yet a proposition to impose a duty on foreign wools in order to "protect" the sheep of France or Algeria would be regarded as a joke, and would not be seriously entertained.

Imports of foreign wools have thus been required in increasing quantities by France since 1893 to feed her great woollen industry. A proper apprehension of the true condition of this wool industry may be obtained from the figures of exports; and the exports to the United States of manufactures of wool will have peculiar interest to our manufacturers at this juncture. The largest item of French exports consists of cloths of pure or mixed stuff, and in the last four years the total exports and the exports to the United States were:

Year.	Total. lbs.	To United States. lbs.
1893	25,136,108	1,531,228
1894	23,933,460	1,125,982
1895	31,648,826	4,043,591
1896	30,965,440	2,442,220

The interest attaching to this table lies in the demonstration that of an increased export in 1895 of 7,700,000 pounds, only 2,917,609 was sent to the United States. And the loss of 1,601,371 pounds in 1896 in the American export was accompanied by a loss of only 683,400 pounds in the total movement. The spurt of exports to the United States in 1895 was speculative; but the French exports to other parts of the world have risen in even greater proportions, and it is untrue to describe conditions of the industry here as so abnormal as to require a special cure. There must have been a legitimate demand for French cloths which would have been met whether wool had been made free in 1894 or not.

In a second important class of French woollen exports, that of dress goods, the record is somewhat different. The total since 1893, and the share coming to the United States, are shown by the following figures:

Year.	Total. lbs.	To United States. lbs.
1893	21,570,000	886,000
1894	20,441,177	492,010
1895	31,651,076	2,977,960
1896	27,302,660	2,416,920

In this case the fluctuations are more violent, but again it is seen that the demand from the United States gave only a part of the increase, and the decrease in 1896 was almost independent of the American market. In the light of these returns, is it not clearly wrong to attribute any of the depression in our home woollen industry to the competition of the French manufacturer?

One more comparison may be made before leaving this subject. In 1895, when the full effect of the reduction in duties in our tariff had made itself felt, the value of all woollen goods exported from France touched $64,600,000. Not for two years had the exports been over $56,000,000, and yet the returns for the years 1889, 1890, 1891, and 1892 were all in excess of those for 1895. If any conclusion can be drawn from these returns it is that the French manufacturer of woollens has long enjoyed a wide market in which to buy his raw wools, and is obtaining yearly a wider market in which to sell his products.

That our markets have been "flooded"

with the wool manufactures of France is untrue. In fact, the imports were larger under the law of 1890 than they have been since. From the Treasury returns this becomes apparent:

Year.	Cloths.	Dress Goods.
1891	835,406	7,401,410
1892	801,515	7,353,316
1893	665,940	7,348,592
1894	332,617	3,795,432
1895	598,167	4,818,850
1896	620,220	6,290,344

Against these figures, so suggestive of themselves, may be stated the fact that imports of raw wools from France in 1890 were larger by one-half than in any previous year since 1890, and larger than any year has recorded since the first year of import. In 1880 the highest previous import occurred—12,715,011 pounds; but in 1896 these figures were exceeded—13,279,720 pounds. So that our manufactures have not suffered from the woollen manufactures of France, and have enjoyed some advantage in being able to import raw wools from that country.

SALVATION BY NOISE.

A few months ago a rupture in the celebrated Booth family of Salvationists precipitated the element of nationality into the question of salvation. Put in concise form, the issue raised at that time was: "Do we as a people want English salvation or American salvation?" Mr. Ballington Booth, speaking in the light of several years' experience among us, took the position that we ought to have our own kind of salvation, a genuine American brand, and that the English brand was not adapted to our needs. Mr. Depew flung himself with characteristic abandon on the side of Mr. Ballington Booth, saying: "Americans want to get their salvation by way of Bunker Hill and Faneuil Hall, and the old gun at Lexington, instead of by way of London," and his words touched so deep a chord of patriotism in American bosoms that a mass-meeting was held in Carnegie Hall, and Mr. Ballington Booth was sustained with strong resolutions and much fervid eloquence. Encouraged by this support, he started a genuine American salvation army, called the Volunteers, and has since been dealing exclusively in that brand of salvation.

His place at the head of the old Army, which gets its salvation "by way of London," was taken by Mr. Booth-Tucker, who is now under condemnation by an American jury for maintaining a "public nuisance" under the guise of a Salvation Barracks. This verdict, it seems to us, must be taken as a vindication of Mr. Depew's position of last year. It shows unmistakably that a considerable section of the American people in this city do not like the British brand of salvation. Some of the chief objections they made to it on the witness-stand were that there was too much noise attendant upon its dissemination. Sleep was made impossible, boarding-houses were depopulated, and the yelling which accompanied such special ceremonies as the "Grand-hallelujah eye-opener," "dedication of a Heavenly Babe," the "burning of the devil," and a "prayer of agony" could be heard "all over the Ninth Ward." Evidence in support of this view of the British method of dispensing salvation was given by a large number of witnesses, and was not refuted except by general denials by the Salvationists themselves. No neighbors were adduced to testify that they had not been disturbed, or, what is equally important, had been spiritually improved by the exercises in the Barracks.

The defence put forward by Mr. Booth-Tucker and his British associates was, if we may be permitted to say so, curiously un-American. It betrayed throughout an inability to comprehend the brand of salvation which is wanted in the Ninth Ward and, presumably, in other parts of our common country. It was urged, in the first place, in defence of the noise which the salvation bands of cornets, bass and snare drums, tambourines, and cymbals pour forth, that it is "an exact adaptation of the old Mosaic Hebrew style of worship." That may be true, but is it any reason why the people of the Ninth Ward should be asked to like it? There are many other Mosaic Hebrew religious rites, an exact adaptation of which would not do at all in the Ninth Ward. If Mr. Booth-Tucker were to attempt them, he would fare much worse than he has done at the hands of this jury. Then, too, it is said that the neighbors acted much worse than the Salvationists, for when they heard the music of the bands they assembled in their back-yards adjoining the Barracks, and beat upon tin kettles and pans. What did this conduct show? Did it indicate that salvation was working its way into their hearts? Quite the contrary. Why did it not occur to Mr. Booth-Tucker and his brigadiers and captains that there was something defective about their methods when, instead of arousing feelings of inward peace and joy and brotherly love, they set all the neighbors to acting in this violent and angry manner?

Other phases of the defence betrayed the same curious inability to grasp the situation. One of the generals said it could not be possible that the music of the bands and singers was bad, because she had herself "received a magnificent musical education, and had such an appreciative ear that discordant noises would have driven her away from the meetings." But the neighbors, sitting up in bed throughout the night, being endowed with less magnificently trained ears, did find the music discordant, and were not moved to embrace salvation because of it. That is the point. The object of the Salvation Army being the spread of true religion throughout the world, it is a mistake in policy to adhere to methods which are so notoriously spreading the chief qualities of irreligion—wrath, profanity, and hatred of one's fellow-men.

Mr. Booth-Tucker does not say he will make less noise or better noise, and change his methods, and thus seek to spread salvation in the Ninth Ward, but declares himself to be the victim of persecution, says he shall continue his methods, hopes that the churches of the land will come to his defence, and charges that the verdict amounts to the creation of a new law "prohibiting the workingman from meeting to pray while the rich man is allowed to meet under precisely similar circumstances to dance." Does he mean to say that the workingman prefers to do his praying under circumstances precisely similar to those under which the rich man dances? If he does not mean that, what has he in his mind? He says that he expects the verdict "will lead to a flood of persecutors all over the country," that every unreasonable neighbor who imagines he has a grievance against the beat of the Army drum, indoor and out, will now appeal confidently to every local justice who has a grudge against the Salvation Army. What does this show but that the noises of the Army are unpopular everywhere, and that they are interfering with the spread of salvation? But Mr. Booth-Tucker does not infer the need of change in his methods. We fear he is incurably unable to grasp the needs of Americans in this field. He has the best of evidence that his British brand of salvation is unpopular everywhere, yet he persists in cramming it down the American throat.

JAPANESE POLITICS.

TOKYO, May 1, 1897.

The prophet of Japanese political transformations runs unusual risks. It is not only at a time of crisis that the unexpected happens; the unexpected evolves, as it were, from the most obviously predictable situations. For instance, it is easy to understand why the Chinese anticipated an easy victory during the late war from the apparently hopeless struggle between Government and Parliament. But it is also possible to see how they proved utterly mistaken, and learned that, when war was once declared, the Parliament, Government, and people of Japan stood shoulder to shoulder. No one doubts that the Japanese, in contradistinction to the Chinese, are a patriotic people, and in the presence of a common enemy will reconcile differences of opinion. What is more difficult to understand is how, after engaging in a Parliamentary struggle for years, they can suddenly relinquish it at a time when all the political elements seem to be distinctly favorable to success.

Ever since the first session of Parliament the majority of its members, comprising the two great political parties, the Jiyuto and Shimpoto, have asserted that they were contending for the realization of a political

principle. They were aiming at the overthrow of the Sat-cho and the establishment of the English system of party government. During the war, the various political parties for the time being abandoned their hostile attitude, and, for the sake of victory abroad, united loyally with the Government in power. Up to that time this had been the single exception to their consistent opposition. After the war, the Jiyuto once more waived the great point of discussion and united with the Ito Cabinet, but they defended this act on the ground that post-bellum measures required this alliance, and they saved their consistency by demanding a place in the Cabinet for their leader, Count Itagaki. Their action could at least be construed as a partial movement towards the desired goal, inasmuch as Marquis Ito openly acknowledged his dependence upon the support of the Jiyuto. But the Shimpoto, with their leader, Count Okuma, denounced the proceeding. They declared that the Jiyuto had sold its birthright for a mess of pottage, and had allied itself with the Government merely for the sake of such rewards as the Government could confer. By implication, the leaders of the Shimpoto conveyed the idea that they were the repositories of pure political principles. They asserted their own political integrity, and declared they would continue the struggle till the Government yielded.

When the Ito Cabinet fell and Count Okuma became a member of the new Cabinet, public attention was keenly directed to his movements. Had he accepted a portfolio on his own terms, or had he too succumbed to the temptations of office? If the latter, then his party could not consistently support the Government during the next session of Parliament. The Cabinet itself was not a coherent one, and was therefore undeniably weak. Even if it counted on the support of the Shimpoto, it would still be far from having command of a majority in the Lower House. At most this party was not certain of more than ninety-five votes out of a total of three hundred. If the National Unionists should join their thirty-three votes with the Jiyuto, who had at least one hundred and five, the Opposition, with the help of a few independents, could easily throw out any measures of the Government, or force it to resort to dissolution. Even if the National Unionists stood aloof from the Liberals, it was still by no means certain that the Cabinet could secure the requisite majority. For a time even the Shimpoto seemed somewhat lukewarm. Both the other political organizations were either hostile or indifferent, and as the Cabinet itself represented no principle worth fighting for, the general impression was that the next session might end in total failure.

Up to the very beginning of the opening of Parliament the situation was critical. The Jiyuto finally issued a manifesto, in which it announced that it would oppose the Cabinet and unite with all members who desired the overthrow of the present Government. The Unionists generally preferred an independent course, though at first they affiliated with the Jiyuto. The Shimpoto, throwing consistency to the winds, declared openly in favor of the Government. The leaders of the latter party made a specious apology to their constituents by urging that the present Cabinet promised more liberal measures, as, for instance, the emancipation of the press, than its predecessor. But the great majority of the metropolitan newspapers were suspicious of the alliance between the Shimpoto and the Cabinet, and doubted whether it would result in any successful legislation.

The session had scarcely advanced two weeks, however, when a strange phenomenon was noticed in political circles. Members of the National Unionist and Radical parties, sometimes in groups and sometimes as individuals, began to sever their connection with their respective party organizations. Nor was this defection confined to the unimportant members—it embraced some of the leading spirits of both parties, men who had been identified with these organizations for many years. The reasons or excuses offered for thus leaving their colleagues in the lurch were trivial and often absurd. It was alleged that the leaders of the party were too ambitious and often acted in a high-handed manner, or that the party organization had become corrupt by its previous alliance with the Government. Fully one-half of the Unionists and about twenty-five of the Radicals seceded, and, wonderful to relate, all the seceders voted with the Government and not against it, as their party organizations had previously agreed to do. The Government no longer suffered any uncertainty. It had an overwhelming majority that voted regularly, with or without discussion, for every Government measure. The united Opposition controlled scarcely a hundred of the three hundred votes of the Lower House, and even this small opposition suffered from a certain lethargy consequent upon the loss of some of its leading members.

How the Government succeeded in securing this firm and united majority is a mystery that has vexed the press of Tokyo for many weeks. That some form of seduction was employed which neither the Government nor its victims would like to make known to the world, is beyond dispute, but the precise nature of the douceur is probably not so clear as many journals affect to know. The *Jiji Shimpo* directly charges the members of the House with accepting bribes from the Government. In one of its issues it contained a sarcastic note to the effect that "as the political dispute at the present day in Japan is merely a contest of individuals, and no serious difference of principles is involved, the only programme for a government desirous of commanding a majority in the House is to take steps to conciliate the good-will of the members. In every undertaking the main purpose is to achieve the maximum of success at a minimum of trouble and cost. Hence it is not strange that the Cabinet should adopt the easiest method of securing the support of its members, namely, bribery, which is said to be the most efficacious and simplest weapon available."

But while the Government may have resorted to the direct purchase of votes with money, it by no means has exhausted its efforts in this single expedient. It has had still further means at its command to secure the adherence of its former opponents. This is no less than the familiar spoils system. Count Okuma and Count Matsugata have done more than any preceding cabinet in Americanizing the Japanese administration in this respect; only in America the system, it is fair to hope, is in a moribund condition, while in Japan no one can prophesy its future possibilities. Already ten members of the pro-Government party have been rewarded with governorships or prefectures, and ten others have been appointed to important offices in the various ministries. Still others are likely to be appointed unless public opinion should be aroused to such a pitch that even the present triumphant Cabinet will have to take warning. Not only have former officials been forced to resign, but new offices have been created, ostensibly for the sake of rewarding the adherents of the Government in the last session. It is a curious commentary on this mode of conducting party politics that the same complaint is raised in Japan that we are so familiar with in America, viz., the want of sufficient offices to provide for all the applicants. Several notices have appeared in the Tokyo newspapers that those who have been left unrewarded are beginning to show hostility to the Government for its want of fair dealing. Probably the Government will discover means for silencing this body of office-seekers, who, fortunately for Japan, are not so numerous as in America.

The work of the last session of Parliament has undone years of strenuous efforts on the part of its predecessors. The ease and celerity with which the Government succeeded in removing all opposition during the session just closed seems to prove that the development of political parties in Japan is quite below the point at which any of them could be intrusted with the responsibilities of actual administration. Recent experience will prove a severe blow to the efforts of the various parties to acquire a real hold upon the reins of government—a blow from which it may take years to recover, if, indeed, it does not permanently alter the direction of constitutional growth in Japan. How can, for instance, the Shimpoto demand the overthrow of the Sat-cho Cabinet in future, when that party succumbed immediately to the Government as soon as its chief took office under the Sat-cho administration? The Jiyuto, likewise, bereft as it is of one-third of its members, is in a demoralized condition, though the latest reports state that it will make a vigorous effort to recover its lost prestige before the next session.

G. D.

A MINIATURE REPUBLIC.

RIMINI, May 16, 1897.

I have, in travelling through the Italian cities, especially on the Adriatic coast, been struck with the resemblance of their history, *mutatis mutandis*—that is, making allowance for the difference of times, manners, religion, and knowledge—to that of our own cities, as far as we have gone. They all came out of the horrible darkness which overspread the land after the fall of the Roman Empire, as little municipalities, or small collections of men with common interests and fears and miseries, dependent on a wall of some kind for defence against rivals and massacres, for liberty to sow and reap their scanty crops, or carry on their rude and primitive manufactures. They were all equals, too. Every distinction of rank or family or prestige had perished in the immense catastrophe which had overtaken ancient civilization. When they met to arrange their common affairs, like the Venetian fishermen on their sandbanks, one man was as good as another. With them, the modern world started with equality. Very soon, however, the art of controlling deliberations, and leading them to a preconceived result, which we call "management," or pipe-laying,

must have sprung up. Some men must have shown themselves fonder of "politics" than others, and must have been willing to take more pains than others to have their opinions adopted. In short, the "Boss" must have soon made his appearance, and have arranged things so that the public meetings must generally have been of his way of thinking. As soon as the supremacy of the Boss's influence was established, "Boys" must have risen around him, eager to do his bidding, and carry out his plans, and sing his praises and make his opponents uncomfortable. According to the manners of the times, these Boys must have been armed, and ready for acts of violence. Whenever the Boss found any one too troublesome, they silenced him. When he wanted a meeting packed, they packed it. Whenever he wanted opponents to stay away from it, they warned them that it would be healthier for them to remain at home.

There were no restraining constitutions or judges in those days. Every one of these little states was independent, and had nothing to fear or hope from outside interference, and anybody who got control of it was an absolute ruler. The Boss's Boys were known as his "Bravos," and he himself was called a "Prepotente." He built himself a castle, with dungeons in it, in which he put his enemies until he got time to cut off their heads or torture them. He levied such taxes and contributions as he pleased on the city and on the surrounding country. He carried on wars with the other Bosses, who were his neighbors. He hired the Condottieri to fight for him, when he fell short of Boys at home, and often committed the most horrible cruelties without resistance, or thought of resistance, from the unfortunate inhabitants. I am not able to prove every stage of this process, documents in hand, but I am satisfied, from all I hear and read, that no one can thoroughly understand the existence of what are called the "tyrants" in Italian cities in the Middle Ages, who is not familiar with the government of American cities to-day by universal suffrage. Every Italian city of that period had, I am certain, at one time or another, its Plattone or Crokerio before it had its "principe" like the Estes, or Malatestas, or Viscontis. Manners have changed: throat-cutting and confiscation of property are out of the question; but human nature has not changed, and the materials for "tyrants" still doubtless exist among us in rich abundance.

Two small Italian States formed exceptions to this rule—Venice and San Marino. Neither of them ever allowed the Boss to gain the upper hand. Venice entered on a career, one thousand years long, of extraordinary commercial and political success. But she had all around her the unconquerable sea, a defence which cost nothing, while it filled her coffers with gold and frankincense and myrrh from all quarters of the globe. The history of San Marino is even more wonderful, for San Marino has been a free and independent republic for fifteen hundred years, and is as well off to-day as ever it was.

Finding myself here at Rimini, within a few miles of its frontier, I determined to drive over and see for myself how the work was done. It was a bright forenoon, the country radiant with the luxuriant vegetation of the Italian spring, the road for a short way from Rimini sprinkled with peasants making their way home from the fair, with huge white oxen which they had either bought or been trying to sell. The fields were full of those toiling laborers who on Italian farms do so much of the work of beasts of burden, and whose patient industry, "homely joys, and destiny obscure" always excite my pity. When one considers the life they have led for a thousand years, one is surprised by their politeness, good humor, and cheerful acquiescence in their lot. For more than that period, whenever any neighboring Jingo felt that he needed some fighting for the improvement of his character, he went into Italy in search of it, where he met some other Jingo, and they killed each other savagely, destroyed the peasant's crops, burned his house, and left him and his family on the roadside, if they did not massacre them all. The Barbarians came first, and destroyed Roman civilization, and then the little towns fought each other, and the Guelphs fought the Ghibellines, and the Spaniards fought the French, and the French fought the Austrians, and the Saracens laid waste the coasts, and the Pope was always ready "to take a hand in the racket," on behalf of what I saw comically called (in a vainglorious inscription in honor of an Aldobrandini) "Republica Cristiana," namely, the Papal States. But, whoever danced, the poor peasants always paid the piper. Six miles away, the rocky eminence, rising precipitously out of the plain in which San Marino stands, could be seen, shining through the sunlight; and about two miles from it one crosses the little stream which forms the boundary of the republic. The climb is long and slow in spite of the skilful engineering of the road. Half-way up the declivity one enters a little town, known as the "Borgo," and which forms what one may call the business suburb of the capital. Higher far—700 feet—on the very summit of the long rocky ridge stands the official capital, a "Città" which is the original San Marino, begun, they say, 1,500 years ago by a saint of that name, who fled from the persecutions of Diocletian into what was then a wilderness. He hewed himself a bed in one of the biggest rocks, gathered followers around him, and practised the usual asceticism, and in the ordinary course of things should have founded a monastic order to be called by his name. But, instead of this, he founded a little state. He set his disciples to farming and weaving. He established a government on the top of the lofty ridge, to rule over the few miles of territory at the base, of which somehow he managed to obtain possession. As far back as one can penetrate into the Dark Ages, we find his republic covering the same narrow area. It has never either extended or restricted its confines. It built a castle and a church and town hall on top of the precipice, and houses and a wall around them to protect it from the *coups de main* of the neighboring "prepotenti." But it never sought to add to its possessions. Its population was about 1,500 twelve hundred years ago. It is the same to-day. The rocky eminence on which the "Città" stands was then 2,214 feet above the level of the sea; it is the same to-day. Its territory was then about twenty miles in circuit; it is the same to-day.

I had a letter of introduction to the Chief of Police, whom I sought in the Borgo, but he was absent. The Commendatore Malagola, the keeper of the State Archives at Bologna, had kindly given me another to the Secretary of State, and to him I made my way in the Città. It was a long and hard climb, though up a smooth modern road, but I got there eventually, wandered a little through the few narrow streets, looked out on the great world which lay below me, and then delivered my letter. In delivering it to his Excellency (which is his legal title) Domenico Fattore, the Secretary of State, I also delivered it to the Minister of Finance and to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, for these three offices are held by one person. He is essentially what we call a "plain man," of the Paul Krüger type, said to be exceptionally wise in council and well read. He was taking his noonday nap when my letter reached him, but pulled himself speedily together, and came to meet me in the new Municipal Building, which they have recently put up and opened with much ceremony. It looks astoundingly large and expensive, as many of these municipal buildings do in Italy, for the community which erects them. It has grandiose offices for all the functionaries, and a grand "Sala di Consiglio" on the model of that in Venice. We sat in this hall, and talked long in an odd, mixed tongue—his French being about as good (or as bad) as my Italian—of his state and its history and polity.

It is very proud of its history—a "thousand years of liberty and glory." It has steered its way through all the worst periods, repelling many attacks of covetous "principi," notably of Malatesta of Rimini, sometimes sword in hand, at others by diplomacy, without losing its independence, except once for a few months, through the treachery of one of the Pope's lieutenants, Cardinal Alberoni, in the seventeenth century. Its wonderful position made up for its want of numerical strength, in the days before roads, when an armed band could not stay long in any place for want of provisions. Its earliest government was a council or town meeting composed of all heads of families; but this became noisy and tumultuous, like our nominating conventions, and it was felt to be necessary for the safety of the State, surrounded as it was by so many formidable enemies, to confide the administration of its affairs to a smaller body. So a council of sixty was elected, twenty "nobili," twenty "cittadini," or tradespeople, and twenty "contadini," or farmers; and this council, which, of course, has had its vicissitudes, rules the Republic to this day. Where do they get the nobles? you will ask. Well, they get them from the descendants of the principal families of the place, which somehow started as noble in that night of time in which all real nobility has its origin. They became noble, in the beginning, probably by being richer and better armed and more expert in killing people than their neighbors. Some of these families trace their descents, I was told, for at least eight hundred years, and have sent out many a scion into the stormy arena of Italian politics, and many who have made some figure in diplomacy, literature, and law. These nobles do not sit in the Council by hereditary right—nobody does; but when there is a vacancy in any order a man of that order must fill it. But he does not fill it by popular election. The Council fills its own vacancies, so that, as far as I could make out, San Marino, though thoroughly democratic in its manners and ideas, is a democracy ruled by an oligarchy. That is, the democracy for its own safety and protection finds it necessary to give the con-

trol of its affairs to a small body of its best men. A small state surrounded by huge neighbors, it cannot afford to play at politics, or make bunkum Jingo speeches, or give offices away as "plums." Government is real business, and has to be done as business. It cannot make too lavish drafts on the parliamentary talent of the community. It knows that it has only a certain number of men competent for legislative work, and it calculates that sixty is this number. It has two executive officers, called "reggenti," and a Minister of State, of Foreign Affairs, and of Finance; one man, as I have said, holding all three offices. The Reggenti have a tenure of only six months, and are elected by the Council. The others sit as long as the Council pleases. I was particularly struck by the wisdom of their judicial system. They found out early in their history that they could not get justice properly administered in such a small community by the friends and neighbors of litigants and criminals. So they get their judges from among advocates of the Roman bar, to whom they pay a salary for coming and "holding court" periodically. They have two or three Ministers at foreign courts, who render gratuitous service, and about as many consuls. My friend Commendatore Malagola, the keeper of the Archives at Bologna, and himself a distinguished author, who gave me the letter of introduction, is a consul of the Republic.

As may be readily imagined, their diplomatic business is not heavy. The only troubles they have had in modern times with other Powers in Italy have arisen from the convenience of the Republic as a place of refuge for criminals, political and other. The Italian malcontents of the old régime often fled to San Marino, and brought down on the Republic the ire of the Austrians and the Pope or the King of Naples. Garibaldi and the remnants of his army sought shelter under the wall, after his defeat at Rome in 1849, and the little State proudly refused to surrender him or expel him, though it politely asked him to leave, which he did, flying by night to Venice. Whenever any neighboring potentate has wanted to pick a quarrel with San Marino, it has always been by accusing it of sheltering malefactors, but the Republic has never failed to make a good defence. Very recently it had some differences with the Italian Government on this score, though the two states are generally on excellent terms, for, to its glory be it said, San Marino has never failed to show its sympathy with the patriotic aspirations of the Italian people. Its own quota of criminality is small. On the day of my visit, its prison, a ruined old castle on the very pinnacle of the rock, contained but three inmates, not for "furto," as my guide was careful to explain, but for fighting. They all had their heads out through a hole in the door of their cells, and seemed to be on easy and familiar terms with their keepers, an old man and woman who were backed up by an occasional gendarme. They seemed glad to see visitors, with whom they conversed on the topics of the day, and accepted twenty centesimi freely as an acknowledgment of the mistake of "society" in keeping them locked up.

As I looked down from the tower of this old castle on the collection of houses along the ridge of the rock, the Municipal Building, the Cathedral, the hospital, the University, it appeared as if the world could not show a political success compared to that of this little community. A good deal has doubtless been due to the romance of the situation. Even Napoleon I. for this reason had not the heart to meddle with it. When he owned Italy, he even proposed that it should take more territory, but it was wise enough to refuse. This moderation, with the industry, good behavior, and passionate love of the people for their Acropolis, has stood them in good stead, in spite of their freedom and republicanism. Like New England, San Marino has sent sons to more or less fame and success all over the Continent; but, I believe, no matter where they roam, and no matter what they become, the little republic holds their tenderest affections. One has only to see it rising out of the plain, both a fortress and a temple, to understand how this must be. The precincts of the cathedral contain the rocky bed which San Marino hewed for himself. He was both a saint and a statesman, a rare combination, and the community has prospered under such traditions as no other Italian state has. Each town has its patron saint, but the work he does for his protégée is not political: he cures diseases, protects cattle from lightning, prevents accidents and bad luck, but he does not teach the manly arts and the homely good sense which make and keep a people free. This San Marino has done for his worshippers, and no other saint has done it. One of the strangest mistakes about Italy in history is the notion that it ever embraced what is known among Protestant theologians as "Christianity." What happened was that the people substituted for the old Joves, Junos, Apollos a new set of deities called "saints," superintended by the Madonna and appeased or roused into activity by the same processes. But it cannot be honestly said that they have ever admitted God or Christ into the providential government of the peninsula. Very little seems to be said or thought about either. The country, in so far as it has any religion at all, is under the domination of the Madonna and the saints exclusively. The saints remind one much of American Senators or politicians in our "spoils" system. They are "influoences" rather than direct rulers. They accord or distribute all the favors or immunities that divine government has to bestow, just as our "influoences" distribute patronage; but where or how the Madonna or the saints get them, no worshipper troubles himself.

E. L. G.

HALLAYS'S BEAUMARCHAIS.—II.

PARIS, May 14, 1897.

Beaumarchais did not remain more than four days in the prison of Saint-Lazare, where Louis XVI. had sent him in a moment of ill-humor. The very day after he was set free all the ministers attended a representation of the "Mariage de Figaro," and, as a sort of compensation, Louis XVI. ordered that the "Barbier de Séville" should be played at the Trianon, and the Queen herself played the part of *Rosine*. Colonne, a short time afterwards, gave Beaumarchais 800,000 livres, due to him as indemnity for some of his ships which had been damaged.

Beaumarchais had already passed the age of fifty. He had become very rich. He thought of marrying the lady with whom he had been living for ten years, and who had given him a daughter. He bought a large piece of land, near the Rue St. Antoine, and began the building of a palace. But it was not his destiny ever to be quiet; he had a terrible quarrel with Mirabeau, to whom he had refused to lend money, on the subject of the first water company for Paris, which Beaumarchais had started with the brothers Perier. A certain Madame Kornmann, the wife of an Alsatian banker, had become the mistress of the royal syndic of Strasbourg, a grandson of Adrienne Lecouvreur and of Marshal de Saxe. A lawyer of Provence, named Bergasse, took in hand the case of Madame Kornmann, and wrote in Kornmann's name a virulent memoir, in which Beaumarchais was attacked as well as Madame Kornmann, her lover, Lenoir, the lieutenant of police, and a Prince of Nassau-Siegen. In vain did the Parlement suppress the memoirs of Bergasse as libellous: they produced a great sensation, and Beaumarchais lost all his popularity. When the Revolution broke out, he was finishing his house on the boulevard, which was just opposite the Bastille. He saw the attack on the Bastille, and asked to be charged with its total demolition, "in order that the adjoining houses might not be damaged." He was already denounced as an enemy of the people, and in order to conjure the danger he got himself elected Deputy of his district and a member of the Commune. He distributed much money, procured certificates of *civisme* (loyal citizenship); he was denounced nevertheless by the ex-Capuchin Chabot at the tribune of the National Assembly, as a forestaller of arms. He had bought in Holland 60,000 guns for the French Government, and, in order to obtain the contract, had given 748,000 francs as caution-money; but he had not yet received the guns when the populace invaded his house and made a search. Beaumarchais was arrested and taken to the prison of the Abbaye. He was, fortunately, set free again, by the intervention of Manuel, the 20th of August, 1792, a few days before the September massacres. Manuel had for his mistress a former mistress of Beaumarchais. Among the manuscripts of the British Museum is the singularly warm correspondence between Beaumarchais and this lady, which could not be published *in toto*.

After Beaumarchais had left the Abbaye, he took refuge in the country, at a little distance from Paris. He obtained from Lebrun a passport for Holland, and had to go to London, where he was for a short time put in prison for debt. Under a false name, he went through Europe from place to place, always trying to get his guns and to keep them out of the hands of the English. During his peregrinations, he learned at Hamburg that his name had been put on the list of the émigrés, that his property had been sequestered, and his family imprisoned. His wife, his sister, and his daughter were saved from the guillotine only by the 9th Thermidor. For three years he lived at Hamburg in the most miserable condition. He could raise no money; England had laid hands on his guns, and his caution-money was lost.

On his return to Paris, he picked up the fragments of his fortune, and married off his daughter. He was possessed with a mania for writing which the modern specialist would call graphomania, sent memoir after memoirs to the legislators, occupied himself with politics and with the guidance of balloons; he remained a schemer to the end. Though he complained of having been

ruined by the Revolution, he left to his daughter an income of 20,000 francs, besides real estate and furniture valued at nearly 700,000 francs. He was stricken with apoplexy on the 18th of May, 1799, and was buried in a corner of his garden.

M. André Hallays, after having given in his book the details of the life of Beaumarchais, has interesting chapters on his character and that of his works. His character, it is almost needless to say, is not commendable in any way; his contemporaries expressed contempt for him at a time when morality was very lax. M. de Loménie attempted to whitewash Beaumarchais to some extent, and proved the falseness of some accusations which had been made against him. But enough remains to show that, in the words of Jules Sandeau, who received Loménie into the French Academy, "the memory of Beaumarchais will always lack that flower of esteem which neither reputation nor glory can replace, and which goes by the simple name of consideration." Beaumarchais had two reputations, according to M. Hallays, one public and one private. The first was detestable; the second was better. Beaumarchais seems to have been much beloved by his relations and friends, and to have been capable himself of sincere and ardent affection.

It is more interesting to study his literary work than himself. The writer and his work can, however, never be independent of each other; and, in a way, *Figaro* is Beaumarchais himself—Beaumarchais transformed into a type, and, one may say, an immortal type. The rest of his literary work has become ignored, and justly so; but *Figaro* is as alive to-day as he was in the last century. Had *Figaro* any predecessors in French literature? is a question asked by M. André Hallays. Ought we to look upon him as the son of the valets of Lesage, of Marivaux? Did Beaumarchais borrow from 'Gil Blas'? Beaumarchais found chiefly in himself the elements of his immortal comedies, the "Barbier" and the "Mariage." All is reminiscence in them:

"Reminiscences of his early youth! We have seen Beaumarchais at the age of fifteen confiding to his sisters the history of his first passion, and playing the part of *Chérubin*, Cherubino d'amore, the playful and ardent page.—Reminiscences of the court! It was at Versailles that he learned the trade of a courtier, either in person, or in trying to defeat those who wished to play the part at his expense—a trade the secret of which *Figaro* gives in the three celebrated words, 'To receive, to take, and to ask.'—Reminiscences of Spain! He assumed at Madrid the names, the costumes of his personages, and their *séguedilles*.—Reminiscences of the Palais de Justice! It was there that he took, from nature, the portraits of *Bridoison*, of *Doublemain*."

As for *Figaro*, he is Beaumarchais himself; there lies the great originality of the type; the painter has made his own portrait. *Figaro* is vain, he has an invincible gayety, he loves intrigue; he is, with all his vices and appetites, a precursor of the French Revolution.

The younger Dumas wrote in 1869: "If Beaumarchais, when he flung the 'Mariage de Figaro' at the head of his epoch, did not aid the movement of ideas and of facts external to the stage—if he was not a revolutionist like a journalist or an orator, like Camille Desmoulins or Mirabeau, I don't know what to say." Beaumarchais had no fixed ideas in politics, he had no theoretical conceptions regarding the forms of government, he was not a republican by principle. He spoke in a letter to the King of France, written in 1775, of "that licentious rage which the English call liberty"; he had no desire to change anything in the state or in society; he has not much to say even against the *lettres de cachet*, and finds it convenient at times to make use himself of this arbitrary method of getting rid of an adversary.

All these reserves made (and I could find a hundred passages in Beaumarchais's works or letters to show that they ought to be made, and to prove that Beaumarchais had nothing in him of the political reformer), it cannot be denied that he had much to do with the social revolution which was the real aim of the Revolution. The characteristic of the "Mariage de Figaro" is the antithesis between *Figaro*, the self-made man, the plebeian, and *Almaviva*, the born lord of the land, the nobleman. The Baroness of Oberkirch, after the representation of the "Mariage de Figaro," wrote: "The *grands seigneurs* laughed at their own expense, and, what is worse, they made the others laugh. They will repent it some day." Rivarol wrote justly that the Revolution was made not against the kingly government, but against the nobility. "Who would believe it?" he asks; "what most irritated the nation was not taxation, nor the *lettres de cachet*, nor the other excesses of authority, nor the vexations of the intendants and the ruinous delays of the law; it was the oppression of the nobility, towards whom the nation manifested the most bitter hatred." And it was against this oppression of the nobility, this tyranny of a caste, that *Figaro* raises his voice. *Figaro* represents that Third Estate, of whom Sieyès asked: "What is the Third Estate? Nothing. What ought it to be? Everything."

Beaumarchais's protest would have been lost and forgotten if it had taken the grave and pompous form of some philosophical essay; in a light and gay comedy it became formidable, as it took hold of the people. Some of *Figaro's* words immediately became proverbial, and have remained so to this day. M. Hallays says:

"The attacks against the nobility have now only an historic interest. The privilege of birth remains in our society—in the midst of democracy we see proofs of it every day; but if it assures to certain persons a worldly preëminence, it cannot again become the foundation of a caste. The laws enacted during the Revolution, the creation of a new aristocracy by Napoleon, and especially the money power, have completed the work of the philosophers of the 18th century."

This is a superficial view of the subject. The Napoleonic aristocracy has been merged more and more into the old aristocracy; the money power abdicates willingly before the imaginary power of great names. The sons of the nobility find the largest dowers, and remember the saying of Mme. de Sévigné: "A little manure is necessary to the best lands."

Figaro is still popular; he remains the living protest against the inequality of human condition, and no revolution, no system of government can realize a complete equality. The powers of imagination are the most subtle and the most indestructible. A good sequel to "Figaro" will be found in the "Gendre de Monsieur Poirier." There we find in contact and in opposition the spirit of caste and the solid power of money. The "Gendre de M. Poirier" may not live as long as "Figaro"—it has not the brilliant wit of Beaumarchais; but I would advise all who wish to understand France well to read the two plays and to compare them.

Correspondence.

"THE ANTIQUITY OF WELLERISMS."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Nation* of May 11, Dr. Gudeman, writing under the above-given caption, says: "An exact parallel is, however, found in an author who antedates Petronius by more than three centuries," and, after a few pleasant remarks on the famous xv. Idyl of Theocritus, quotes the following: ἔνδοι πᾶσαι, ὁ τὰν νυὸν εἶπ' ἀποκλάξας, which he translates thus: "'They are all in,' said the man, as he locked out his bride," and in the succeeding paragraph adds: "For similar instances of proverbial expressions, followed by a ridiculous and unexpected epilogus, see, etc."

Dr. Gudeman's sense of humor seems to have led him astray in interpreting this passage, for, so far was the man from locking *out* his bride that he actually locked her *in*. See the Scholiast on Theocrites xv. 77, Meineke, in his note to this passage, and Fritsche. Snow says: "Here we have a proverb derived from the custom of the bride being accompanied home by her bridesmaids, who were then shut out by the bridegroom. The ἀπο in ἀποκλάξας implies separation from the rest. Translate thus: 'We are all inside—as the man said when he had shut in his bride.' Πᾶσαι, feminine, implies that he has all the girls he wants." For the custom of shutting *in* the bride, we might also cite Theocritus xviii. 5."

Perhaps it will not be amiss to give the versions of several translators of this delightful idyl. Mr. Calverley renders it thus:

"'All in,' the bridegroom said,
And locked the door upon himself and bride."

Mr. Lang, in his charming translation, renders it as follows:

"We are all on the right side of the door, quoth the bridegroom, when he had shut himself in with his bride."

Mr. Arnold, in his 'Essays in Criticism,' gives the following rendition:

"We are all of us on the right side of the door, as the bridegroom said, when he had locked himself in with his bride."

The above-cited passages show conclusively that Dr. Gudeman is in error, into which he was probably misled by the false translation in Liddell and Scott, *s. v.* ἀποκλείω. Moreover, Dr. Gudeman's interpretation is wholly at variance with the customs prevailing at a Greek wedding. After the wedding-feast was concluded, the bride, being veiled, was led into the bridal chamber, and the bridegroom closed the door. The Epithalamium was then sung before the door of the bridal chamber by a chorus of maidens (see the Scholiast on Theocritus xviii. 5). Ἀποκλάξας, therefore, refers to shutting off the bride from the bridesmaids, so that there can be no "ridiculous and unexpected epilogus" in the proverb.

In fact, Praxinoë was very felicitous in her quotation, and said just what we should expect under the circumstances. After being jostled in the dense crowd, and finally gaining an entrance into the "concert hall,"

nothing was more natural than that she should say: "All are in," *i. e.*, All are in, so far as we are concerned, and we don't care whether others get in or not; just as the bridegroom said from his heart, "All are in," *i. e.*, I have all the girls I want; and the real humor of the proverb lies in πᾶσαι, as has been pointed out by Fritsche, who, in his note to this passage, says: "Das Femininum πᾶσαι ist spöttisch mit Bezug auf die Jungfrauen, welche eindringen wollen, gesagt: es sind alle drinnen, welche drinnen sein müssen, d. h. nur die Braut."

Very respectfully, CHAS. W. BAIN.

SEWANEE, TENN., May. 1897.

Notes.

Harper & Bros.' June announcements include 'The People of Whom Shakspere Wrote,' by Charles Dudley Warner; 'Eye Spy,' a posthumous work on flowers and creeping things, by Hamilton Gibson; 'Bobbo, and Other Fancies,' by Thomas Wharton; and the second volume of Justin McCarthy's 'History of Our Own Times,' 1880-1897.

'The Chances of Death, and Other Studies in Evolution,' by Karl Pearson, together with 'Memories of the Months,' by Sir Herbert Maxwell, are announced for immediate publication by Edward Arnold.

Dr. D. G. Brinton's 'Religions of Primitive Peoples,' a series of lectures delivered during the past winter, will shortly receive a book form from G. P. Putnam's Sons.

Fleming H. Revell Co. have nearly ready 'The Culture of Christian Manhood: Sunday Mornings in Battell Chapel, Yale College,' collected by W. H. Sallmon, and 'Strategic Points in the World's Conquest: The Universities and Colleges as Related to the Progress of Christianity,' by John R. Mott.

Henry Holt & Co. announce 'The Gadfly,' a political novel, of which the scene is laid in Italy in the first half of the present century, by an anonymous writer.

R. H. Russell has in preparation 'The Knave of Hearts,' a Fourth of July comedietta, by Albert Lee, illustrated by Edward Penfield.

'Stories of Long Ago,' Greek myths related anew by Miss Grace H. Kupfer, is in the press of D. C. Heath & Co.

Maynard, Merrill & Co. are about to publish 'The Young American,' by Dr. Harry Pratt Judson, Professor of Political Science in the University of Chicago.

A 'History of Freemasonry in Danvers, Mass., 1778-1896,' by D. A. Massey, will be issued by C. H. Shepard, Peabody, Mass.

We read in the May Bulletin of the New York Public Library that its current analytical catalogue of the Emmet volumes of MSS., portraits, and other illustrative material, will ultimately be reprinted in a volume of about 600 pages, with a full index, the edition being limited to 100 copies at five dollars.

Little, Brown & Co., Boston, have made a timely reprint of an address, read five years ago before the Military Historical Society of Massachusetts, on "The Negro as a Soldier in the War of the Rebellion," by Norwood P. Hallowell, Colonel of the Fifty-fifth Regiment Massachusetts Volunteers (colored). Besides portraits of Col. Robert G. Shaw of the Fifty-fourth Massachusetts, and Col. Edward N. Hallowell of the same regiment, the brochure is illustrated by two normal illustrations of the "peculiar institution," viz., a white girl slave, and a man slave with lacerated back, both tender mercies of the cruel in Louisiana.

Mr. Stillman's *Century* article on his pet squirrels, "Billy and Hans, a True History," and a very touching plea for humanity towards the animal creation, has been printed as a little book by Bliss Sands & Co., London, with Miss Lisa Stillman's drawings of the pretty creatures. It will now continue its missionary work, and the proceeds of the sales will go to the benefit of a home for poor children requiring surgical treatment. The author has furnished an introduction in which he adduces evidence to show that squirrels are but little destructive of the tender shoots of trees, and certainly not to the extent implied in the ruthless slaughter of them encouraged on this pretext in European countries.

In key with the foregoing is a little collection of 'Songs of Happy Life, for Schools, Homes, and Bands of Mercy,' compiled by Sarah J. Eddy (Providence: Art and Nature Study Publishing Co.). Much of the music has been written expressly for the present work, as have poems by Miss Wilkins and others, while poems by Mrs. Celia Thaxter and Miss Edith M. Thomas have been for the first time set to music. The humane purpose is still further advanced by quotations from various authors in favor of education in humanity.

Mr. N. Jonsson-Rose's 'Lawns and Gardens: How to Plant and Beautify the Home-lot, the Pleasure-ground, and Garden' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) is a well-printed book, which should prove of service to suburban residents who want to try their hand at a bit of landscape gardening. The laying out of the home-lot is a pleasure to all dwellers near the cities, but often the results do not give pleasure to their neighbors. By the inartistic grouping of plants, or by the absurd selection of species, the neighborhood may fairly have cause of complaint, yet nobody dares to call the attention of his neighbors to such errors of taste. Hence we welcome any book of the type of the present, even if there be something to criticise unfavorably. It is sure to give somebody hints as to agreeable effects around the house. 'Lawns and Gardens' offers no assistance to professional landscape gardeners.

In Charles S. Newhall's 'Vines of North Eastern America' (G. P. Putnam's Sons) the outline sketches leave much to be reasonably desired, from both an artistic and a botanical point of view. The text is spread over a good many pages of large type, forming a bulky manual, describing rather less than one hundred twiners, climbers, and creepers. It is difficult to see why the matter of this inconveniently clumsy book should not have been incorporated with the substance of its two predecessors, 'The Trees of North Eastern America' and 'The Shrubs of North Eastern America.' In fact, nearly all the plants treated of in the present work *are* shrubs, and appear rather lonesome without their non-climbing fellows. In a more compact treatise, on thinner paper, with smaller type, and more carefully drawn outlines, the subject-matter of the book before us would be in a convenient form for the out-of-door amateur. But it is possible that the author designed the book for the library instead of for the field and the hedgerow.

A posthumous volume by Jules Simon, 'Derniers Mémoires des Autres' (Paris: Flammarion; New York: Brentano), a sequel to his earlier 'Mémoires des Autres' and 'Nouveaux Mémoires des Autres,' seems like a seal to the many evidences of noble humanity and honorable citizenship which the long life and numerous publications of the author had furnished. Nearly all the characters in these narratives—woven out of truth and fiction and intermingled with moral, psychological, political, and sociological ideas and events—are natives of Jules Simon's own Brittany, whose true names are disguised. He himself, however, has a hand in all that happens, and, in spite of the title, what we learn of him is considerable and not the least interesting. The moralizing of the octogenarian does not detract from the interest of the stories; his tone is modest and conciliatory, as might be expected, and his manner charming, like Legouvé's. The volume is, like the two preceding ones of the series, prettily illustrated.

The *Neue Tageblatt* of Stuttgart calls attention to a neglected treasure by the announcement that the Suabian Schillerverein has bought the literary remains of the poet Uhland for 25,000 marks. They include manuscripts of poems and dramas, Uhland's diary from 1810-'20, important notes on political matters, and 900 letters by the poet, besides the answers to them. Prof. Erich Schmidt is at work on a new biography of Uhland based largely on these documents.

A characteristic anecdote of Schopenhauer is related by Friedrich Haase in his memoirs, now appearing in the *Moderne Kunst*. During the years 1856 to 1858, Haase was an actor in the Frankfurter Stadtheater, and lodged at the Englische Hof, where Schopenhauer took his meals. The great pessimist seldom spoke to his neighbors, but glanced at scientific periodicals in the intervals between the courses, and at the end, without greeting any one, he called to his poodle under the table, "Come, Mensch," and left. One evening Haase appeared as *Mephisto*. The next day Schopenhauer eyed him sharply and spoke for the first time: "Herr Haase, I heard you in 'Faust' last evening, and was deeply impressed by your performance." He added a few more remarks, and, when he got up to leave, said, "Adieu, Herr Haase," and to his dog, as usual, "Come, Mensch," with a jocose juxtaposition of "hare" and "man."

The *Publishers' Weekly* of this city has made arrangements with Sampson Low, Marston & Co. to publish in this country the Monthly English Catalogue of Books for 1897, at the subscription price of seventy-five cents. The first four parts are now ready for delivery.

The greater part of the *Geographical Journal* for May is taken up with a paper by Dr. Nansen on some of the scientific results of his expedition, and with a discussion by distinguished members of the Royal Geographical Society on the North Polar problem, in which Dr. Nansen also took a prominent part. The subjects treated were the islands discovered, the depth of the Polar Sea and the extraordinary temperature of its waters, the formation of the ice and its drift, and the fauna and flora of the floe ice, infusoria and diatoms, which are constantly travelling across the polar region, living every summer and freezing up in the ice every winter. Sir George Nares says that the expedition makes it evident that there is a dividing line across the

polar area, somewhere from Bering Straits to Greenland, on the Asiatic side of which is light, floating young ice, and on the American side heavy palæocrystic ice. This does not probably imply the existence of land in this region, though there may be some small islands. Dr. Nansen closes with the advocacy of another expedition in a vessel like the *Fram*, but better fitted with laboratories for the most thorough scientific investigations. "Could an expedition of this kind go north through Bering Straits and enter the ice, thence in a northerly, or perhaps northeasterly direction, I think it would bring with it, when it eventually emerged into open water on this side of the pole, a sum of information which would quite put the *Fram* and her men in the shade."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for May describes a recent visit to the site of the great volcanic eruption of 1886 in New Zealand. The changes wrought by it, directly and indirectly, in the surrounding country are shown in the text and by topographic sketches and illustrations. Dr. Nansen's summary of the results of his expedition is accompanied by a remarkably fine map of the North Polar regions, giving the known limits of the floating and pack ice, and the ocean currents and soundings. It is interesting to note from it that the absolutely unknown part of the sea is that lying to the north of Alaska.

The "Geography of Gold" is the suggestive title of the opening article in the *Annales de Géographie* for May. It is by M. de Foville, "Directeur de l'Administration des Monnaies," and gives an historical summary, with numerous tables, of the production of gold from the most ancient times to 1896. M. de Foville thinks that the amount of gold in use in early days was comparatively very small, notwithstanding the numerous assertions to the contrary; that it actually decreased from the sixth to the tenth century of our era, and that the total production in Europe of the ten centuries preceding 1492 was less than ten cubic metres. The year 1896 will show, in his opinion, an increase over that of 1895, which he estimates at 1,075 millions of francs, or twice the product of 1883. From an interesting chart of the sources of supply, accompanying the paper, it appears that the present output in Australia, South Africa, and the United States is almost the same, Russia coming next with about two-thirds of this amount. The same number contains an interesting account of a district in Tunis, its natural features and inhabitants. Some of these are cave-dwellers, who occasionally still make new caves, though the necessity—security against marauders—has gone. Excavation is a work of such difficulty that it takes a year to excavate the dwelling of a rich man. A useful map of Crete shows the sites of the various towns and villages and the division of the inhabitants as to their religion.

The Quarterly Statement of the Palestine Exploration Fund for April contains, in addition to the report of Dr. Bliss on the excavations at Jerusalem, several short papers by Dr. C. Schick, and a survey of the morals of the fellahîn, together with many of their curious customs. Some of these have a strong resemblance to those of Biblical times. Mr. Gray Hill's account of his visit to Petra includes a picturesque description of the passage of the Haj, or pilgrimage to Mecca. It consisted of between two and three thousand people on camels and carrying guns. Among them were some women in palanquins borne between two camels, one forward, the other behind.

The wide range of subjects treated in the Consular Reports is well illustrated in the issue for May. There are the usual reports upon commerce and manufactures in different parts of the world, and also a valuable account of the Yangtze Kiang region and its unexampled opportunities for trade; notices of bicycle regulations in Europe; fog signals for steamers, with a diagram; information for American women intending to study in Zurich, by a Wellesley College professor; a Belgian railway hospital-car; and new taxes in Mozambique. From this we learn that the license for a fresh-water dealer is $200 at Lourenço Marquez, while that of a keeper of a Kaffir grogshop is only $15. It is an interesting case of the protection of native industry, the water-dealers being "generally foreigners, but the grogshop keepers are usually Portuguese or half-breeds."

—With a fitness which no one will dispute, *Harper's Weekly* had the privilege of anticipating the unveiling of the Shaw monument in Boston on Monday last with a photographic cartoon of this masterpiece of Mr. Augustus St. Gaudens. The delay in the completion of the work—a life-size high-relief in bronze—has been pathetic in view of the fact that not a few of the more elderly subscribers have passed away in the meantime, their longing unsatisfied. But that deliberation which is the assurance of great art was never better justified than in the case of this monument, which takes its place in the forefront of American sculpture, and may challenge comparison with any similar memorial which our generation has seen produced in any country. The unity of the composition, the movement, the sentiment, are inexpressibly fine, while in the mounted figure of Col. Shaw the portrait and the legend are blended in the happiest manner. His men who hurry past and beside him are treated with admirable skill from the plastic point of view, and, thanks to the most patient study, their African faces and figures are in the highest degree typical and historical. If their guns aslant and the superb charger of their commander make one think of Velasquez's "Lances," the symbolic qualities of Mr. St. Gaudens's design bring to mind that canvas of Mr. Winslow Homer's, "Prisoners at the Front," in which North and South were spiritually contrasted in a way to make this too one of the noblest artistic "documents" of our civil war.

—An interesting account of the successful way in which the English are redeeming waste land in India is given in the *Church Missionary Intelligencer* for May. In 1892 work was begun on an irrigation canal for a tract of 3,500 square miles in the Punjab. As the land was rendered available for cultivation it was offered to three classes of colonists from the neighboring congested districts, "capitalists, who purchase large lots of 166 to 550 acres; yeomen, who purchase or receive as reward for good service to government, lots of 112 to 140 acres," and peasants, who are allowed lots of 7 to 52 acres, with certain remissions of taxes until they become, after a term of years, permanent tenants of Government. The success of the undertaking has been very great; 350,000 colonists, up to the end of last year, had entered the region, and were, according to the writer in the *Intelligencer*, exceedingly prosperous. "The crops were treading on each other's heels, and our friends, with their well-fed cattle and plump children, were hard put to it to finish pressing the winter's sugar-cane before cutting the spring wheat." Some of the scenes described resemble those accompanying the settlement of one of our Western mining towns. In March, 1896, the site of Lyallpur "was absolute jungle, with four flags at the corners to show its position." In December there was a flourishing town, reached by a railway, laid out with streets converging on an octagonal centre. The Punjabis are "flocking to the place from all quarters," and the colonization officer "has ceased selling plots for house and shop-sites at the rate first fixed, and is going to have a big auction in January, which he expects to bring in much money for roads and sanitation." The district, when settled, will probably contain more than a million people.

—The vast increase in the sources of knowledge, as well as the intense mental activity of the present day, are strikingly exhibited in the 'List of Periodicals, Newspapers, Transactions, etc.,' taken by the libraries of Boston and vicinity, just published by the Boston Public Library. It is a volume of more than a hundred pages, and gives the titles of several thousand publications, the great majority of which are scientific in the broadest sense of the word. As the respective depositories are indicated in each case, the List has an obvious value for students everywhere, and this value would have been greatly increased by a further indication of the practice of binding. For example, does the Boston Athenæum, which (strangely enough) alone currently receives the daily London *Times* and *Daily News*, preserve them in bound volumes? And from what date did it begin to do so? A few years ago we were unable to discover anywhere a file of the *Daily News*, going back to the beginning under Dickens's management, when Lowell was an American correspondent. The List is provided with a classified index which is decidedly helpful in more ways than one. The Trustees have also published a brief but interesting account of the extraordinarily rich collection of autographs, historical documents, manuscripts, and portraits, made by Judge Mellen Chamberlain, which it is his intention to bequeath to the library. An idea of its extent may be gained from the fact that it contains five volumes of letters and documents "relating to Benjamin Franklin, to John Adams, to John Hancock, to Samuel Adams, and Joseph Warren, and to those engaged, on both sides, in the battles of Lexington, Concord, and Bunker Hill." "One volume is given to the prominent Quakers who suffered persecution in Boston, in 1660, and one to the actors in the Salem witchcraft tragedy." While it is naturally strongest in American history and literature, the collection includes numerous autographs of European sovereigns, statesmen, writers, men of science, original drawings of celebrated artists, and manuscript compositions of musicians. A portrait and a biographical sketch of Judge Chamberlain accompany this little pamphlet, and there is a list of the autographs which are placed on public view.

—The monkeys of Gibraltar—the only ones

living in a wild state in Europe—have been made the subject of a learned monograph by Don Salvador Calderon, in the eighteenth volume of the Anales de la Sociedad Española de Historia Natural. The first known mention of these animals, which belong to the plebeian barrel-organ variety (*Inuus ecaudatus*), was made in 1789, in the Memoirs of the Royal Society of Edinburgh. There has been much discussion of the question whether they were originally imported from Morocco or were indigenous to Europe, furnishing proof, in the latter case, of the former connection of the two continents. The Arabs had a tradition that these animals came to Europe by a submarine passage known to them only. It is significant that the Mohammedan writers, in their descriptions of the newly conquered Iberian Peninsula, nowhere make any mention of monkeys. It is only since 1855 that statistical records of the monkeys have been kept at Gibraltar. At that time they seemed to be dying out. Brehm found only eleven in 1856, and a few years later the number was reduced to four. It was then replenished by the addition of several couples brought over from Tangier. This necessity of "colonization" led Blainville to express the opinion that these monkeys were descendants of a domesticated pair that escaped a century or more ago. Their threatened extinction forty years ago was largely due to the fact that many of them were trapped by the owners of fruit orchards which the monkeys used to pillage. This trapping was stopped by a special edict of the Government. At present the colony includes about twenty monkeys. They are seldom visible, except when water is scarce, and it is believed that their principal food consists of the roots and fruits of the dwarf palm (*palmito*), besides scorpions and other insects.

BENJAMIN JOWETT.

The Life and Letters of Benjamin Jowett, Master of Balliol College. By Evelyn Abbott and Lewis Campbell, with portraits and other illustrations. In two volumes. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1897.

It is fortunate that the life of Jowett has been competently recorded within four years of his death. Too long delay, such as postponed the Life of Stanley, has been prevented by the devotion of Messrs. Abbott and Campbell. The latter has written the first volume, covering Jowett's career up to the age of fifty-three, when he became Master of Balliol. "Lives," wrote Jowett in 1869, "like pictures, lose more than half their value by being unfinished." Jowett's earlier trials bore fruit in his later years, and therefore the greater interest centres in the second volume, written by Mr. Abbott. These last twenty-three years (1870-1893) are the climax. Our authors give a strikingly congruous picture of a life exceptionally at one with itself. The task of writing it was, if anything, more difficult than Dean Stanley's in preparing 'The Life and Correspondence of Thomas Arnold,' and the plan followed is much the same, except that the abundance and variety of interest in Jowett's correspondence make Jowett's Life far more interesting than Arnold's even. This cannot be denied, although Jowett himself truly said of Arnold that there has been no one like him in modern times "in the one respect of inspiring others with ideals." Indeed, we may say of the present biography what Jowett said of that of Robert Lowe (Lord Sherbrooke), "Gorgias," as he playfully called him: "It is not at all dull, any more than he himself was. It contains a true picture, not deformed as many biographies are by exaggerated affection and flattery." It would, we are confident, have pleased the subject of it himself. For with him biography was almost a religion, and when he lost a friend, his energies were instantly concentrated in an intense effort to understand him, in a close scrutiny of his life reappraised as a whole, and pondered in a singularly softened and almost contrite mood—a mood most fully expressed, perhaps, in his words after Dean Stanley's death: "I seem to see his character more truly now than when he was alive, and I feel that I could have done more for him if I had understood him better." This same mood again found expression ten years later in his college sermon upon the death of Lewis Nettleship.

A common ground occupied by both of Jowett's biographers, and giving unity to the two volumes, is their equal perception of his power in appreciating and portraying his various friends and contemporaries. "From time to time," Mr. Abbott says, "in his various note-books he makes lists of his friends, just as other men might put down lists of their possessions." So truly did Jowett make his friends a part of himself, that he excelled in the art, perfected by Plato, of dramatizing his own ideals reflected in and refracted from the lives of those he held dear. This rare gift is fully shown in what he says of his dearest friend Stanley: "A. P. S. was wonderfully good," he writes to a friend, "with a natural kind of goodness—blameless, innocent, never going wrong in word, thought, or act. He was not always trying to improve his character, but then he did not need it." This last remark serves to bring out Jowett's view of himself as bound to fight the strenuous battle of self-improvement. "I am long past forty," he wrote shortly before his election as Master of Balliol, "and I mean to improve myself pretty considerably, I can tell you." Ten years later, one of his curt memoranda runs: "I always seem to be beginning life again, and may I ever seem to be beginning life again until the end! I have the feeling that I have lost so much time that I can never have a holiday." In another note-book we read: "To rely on no one but myself, and to rely on myself." Dean Stanley's dread of being alone grew upon him, while we find Jowett again and again dwelling upon the good of being alone; for instance, one of his memoranda runs: "Must be more alone and get above phases of mind which come upon me in bad weather or when I am alone." And this brings us to another remark of Jowett's upon Stanley: "He was very impressible by circumstances," writes Jowett, "Oxford, Canterbury Cathedral, the Abbey, the Court, etc.; but he was absolutely regardless of popularity, and not at all a courtier." Jowett was certainly not devoid of sympathy with this impressibility, as he shows in his picture of the needs of invalids: "In their weakness," he writes, "they need strength and calmness and cheerfulness, and that the world should be made as much like the world they knew when in health as possible." Then he adds, in a strikingly Platonic vein, "They should look sometimes out of a window at fair scenes and be read to out of their favorite books; and be taught to trust in God, in whose hands they are, and to whom they return." Still, we must recognize that, so far as his own case was concerned, Jowett viewed such impressibility as something to be striven against and subdued. Prof. Campbell says of him that "the trials to which he had been subjected, and the effort involved in acting as if they were not, had given to his mental constitution the touch of iron." Jowett himself writes, in allusion to his trials which came after his Pauline Commentary and his essay on "The Interpretation of Scripture," and also in connection with the election to the Mastership of Balliol in 1854, "Let me tell you, I believe it to be a very good thing to have had a great row once in your life, because, though not quite pleasant at the time, it gives you a position and places you above the world."

Jowett again gives glimpses of his own mind in his short sketches of two great lawyers, Lord Westbury and Lord Justice Bowen. Of the former he writes: "He was a very remarkable man, and it grieves me to think how much his life was a *vie manquée*. People call him unprincipled, but that is not my view of him. He was a man of genius by accident converted into a lawyer. With extraordinary abilities and great cunning, he was also very simple and childish in some respects." Of Bowen, Jowett says in 1877, writing to Sir Robert Morier: "I think that you know Bowen, but you hardly know all his merits. He always seems to me one of the most gentle and honorable men I have ever known—a man of genius converted, perhaps crushed, into a lawyer, and probably the greatest English lawyer of the day." Jowett seems to be saying that both these men were great in spite rather than by virtue of their profession, and his distinction between the "man of genius" and the lawyer calls to mind Plato's contrast between the "philosopher" and the lawyer. Let us say, then, that it was Bowen the "man of genius" who spoke those memorably eloquent words in Balliol Hall hailing Jowett as a great man,* and who wrote to a cousin, wife of the Vicar of Cliveden, when Jowett was staying in her neighborhood:

> "If George, in the course of his sermon, casts his eye upon a small delicate face, belonging to a little figure with a high forehead and whitening hair [Jowett was but little over forty at this time, but his hair began to turn gray a little after thirty] and the look of a saint, he may be sure that he is preaching to the arch heretic whose throne is on the banks of the Isis. I do very much hope that some fortunate accident may bring him in your way. . . . Though he is very silent and reserved, he is a man of such taste and moral refinement, and I feel (as many other Balliol men scattered all over England feel) that I owe more to him than to any other man in the world."

Jowett's biographers really ought to have quoted this portraiture of Bowen's, since it is the only good description of Jowett at the time when the beautiful crayon portrait (inserted as the frontispiece in this biography) was drawn by Richmond.

When Jowett spoke of Stanley as an *enfant gâté du monde*, he might well have been thinking of his own very different experiences. He wrote in 1856 to Sir Alexander

*Mr. Abbott's quotation from this speech (vol. ii., p. 104, of Jowett's Life) is apparently from a bald summary. The actual words of the best part of it are printed in Sir Henry Cunningham's privately printed sketch of Lord Bowen.

Grant: "There are three kinds of goods, as our friend Aristotle would say, rank, wealth, and talent. It seems to me that a man may do well with two out of the three. With the last only, life is a painful struggle." Of the loneliness of his boyhood and the pinch of his earliest undergraduate years at Balliol, he scarcely ever spoke. Indeed, we should hardly know of all this from Jowett himself, were it not for the laudable iteration of his thanks to Dr. Greenhill. There is, however, a general reference to these and other hard experiences of his in a letter to Professor Campbell. "I have had experience," he writes in 1885, "of uncomfortable and of comfortable surroundings. When I was uncomfortable, I was perhaps more useful. So it seems to me now." The chief reference here is perhaps to the long period during which the "Oxford Malignants," as Arnold, in an earlier controversy, somewhat hotly named them, deprived Jowett of the salary of his Greek professorship, although they and theirs did not scruple to benefit by his acceptable performance of his professorial duties. Now that the heats of those theological dog-days have passed, there is something exquisitely ludicrous in such a method of defending the Ark of the Lord by indirection, but we must not forget that, in the phrase of Lord Lingen, "the Master, like Socrates, asked provoking questions, easier to resent than to answer." However, not this refusal of orthodox supplies, but the election of Scott as Master of Balliol, seems to have been the severest trial of Jowett's life; certainly it was the one concerning which he showed the greatest susceptibility. Even this trial he lived to be almost thankful for, since he could write in his later days, "I should not have been fit for the Mastership then, I did not know enough of the world."

There is indeed a fascination in watching the growth of his gradually perfected knowledge of the world, and a measure of Jowett's perfectibility in this regard is given in what we may call his earlier and his later manner of changing the subject when conversation among men threatened to take too loose a turn. On the earlier occasion Jowett said to his host, "I do not consider myself better than you, but I am bound to protest against that remark"; in the later emergency the Master rose and said smilingly, "Shall we continue this conversation with the ladies?" Jowett was keenly conscious that the clever man devoid of manners often remains "an eccentric boor whose want of tact unfits him for most situations in life." Of those whose early surroundings and circumstances are inferior, he somewhere says: "A few of these golden natures are worth raising to a place in the aristocracy (I wish I could depress others). If they are really to succeed, they need absolute disinterestedness and a love of knowledge for its own sake." He goes on to say: "The subject of rising in life is a curious one; the ladder of competition reaching from the gutter to the skies is by no means a complete account of it, because it leaves out the most important element, personal fitness. In the Middle Ages there was more possibility of it by way of the Church, and perhaps of military distinction." This was written in 1890, but it throws light on what he meant in 1840 when he asked, "If it were true that there is no sense in which the aristocracy are better than shopkeepers, is it conceivable that in these days they could keep up a merely feudal distinction?" And then, as if to prepare his correspondent, R. R. W. Lingen, for the peerage to which he was raised for services as the head of the Education Office, he goes on to declare that he does not think "we can afford to give up the aristocracy as an element of National Education."

That part of Prof. Campbell's chapter on Jowett's family devoted to the great-grandfather and great-uncles, along with earlier generations of Jowetts, can hardly vie in interest with the rest of the biography. These Jowetts and their sons appear to have been vigorous and intelligent North-Country men. Those who did not go into business went into the Church, and distinguished themselves at Cambridge and at large by a leaning towards militant Evangelicalism. Jowett's connection through his mother with Langhorne, the translator of Plutarch, is a point of interest. Also the account given of Jowett's parents and of the circumstances of his boyhood is very interesting. Of his father, Jowett spoke as "one of the most innocent of men," and certainly Benjamin Jowett, Senior, impressed his friends with his gifts of mind and character, though he lacked the qualities necessary even for a moderate success in life. The hardships thus imposed upon his wife and all his children must have contributed to his illustrious son's appreciation of men who could succeed, though this bias in him has been quite as much exaggerated as Stanley's supposed tendency to play the courtier. Jowett repeatedly mentions his brothers with the deepest affection, and his touching words after his mother's death conspire with what he says of his father and sisters to show how deeply real were his family affections. "I have her face following me as she looked when she was alive," he says of his mother. "It was the pleasantest face when she was laid to rest, and the youngest that I ever saw." This may remind us of the strong look of resemblance to Richmond's early portrait which came over Jowett's face in the repose of death, for he appears in early years to have had something of his mother's "alabaster complexion suffused with shell pink." Of his sister, Jowett says, "She was a saint in private life, who never thought of herself. All her days were devoted to my father and mother, and she made life possible and easy for them. For, though intelligent and educated people, they were unable to take care of themselves." In spite of his deep attachment to his family, perhaps even on account of it, Jowett rarely talked of them. Many who knew him intimately used in jest to call him Melchisedec, "without father, without mother, without descent."

Of Jowett as one of the greatest masters of English prose nothing need here be said in addition to the expression of Pater's unqualified admiration in his letter (i., p. 329), written less than three months before his lamented death, describing Jowett's fame among the youth of Oxford, and the impression produced when he taught the University for nothing. "Such fame," writes Pater, "rested on his great originality as a writer and thinker. He seemed to have taken the measure not merely of all opinions, but of all possible ones, and *to have put the last refinements on literary expression.* The charm of that was enhanced by a certain mystery about his own philosophical and other opinions." Mr. Abbott gives (ii., p. 204) some of Jowett's counsels of perfection in the writing of English which are worth their weight in gold. Jowett's Plato undoubtedly exhibits his style at its best, and with the original conception of this work is connected one of the greatest intellectual benefits conferred by Jowett upon Oxford. We mean the prominent place first assigned by him in the "Humanities" course to the 'Republic' of Plato—a place which it still occupies unchallenged.

The leading intellectual and practical interests of the Master's life were so varied as to defy any process of cataloguing, and make it reasonable to say that the present biography must possess an almost unique interest for the future historian of English national life and thought from the decline at Oxford of the Tractarian movement to the closing decade of our century. It is wonderful to see how ably Jowett used the great position made for him by his attitude of masterful inactivity in the face of the assaults of Arnold's "Malignants." His only personal triumphs were the increased usefulness of Balliol College, the enlargement of Oxford life, the improvement of English education and administration. The reforms at Oxford set on foot by Dean Stanley's Commission, the intellectual and moral enhancement of the civil service, both in India and in England, were as engrossing to his mind as was the building up of Balliol; in fact, he so conceived and harmonized these noble aims that, in the achievement of each, he accomplished them all. The reforms of his Oxford vice-chancellorship alone entitle him to rank very high among the great administrators of these days, and he has earned the fame of the second founder of the modern Balliol College. Oxford has a permanent memorial of his genius for practical affairs not only in the preservation of two large open spaces, the building over of which threatened her immemorial loveliness, and in the solid establishment of her Medical School; the "Vice-Chancellor's Cut," whereby the health and sweetness of her airs have been safeguarded, and the welcome at her doors flung open with his help to all, is also a memorial of his life. His permanent institution at Balliol of Sunday evening concerts may serve to remind us of those concerts, given at the beginning of the century at Trinity Hall, Cambridge, by his great uncle, the Reverend Professor Joseph Jowett, but we quail at the thought of what that Cambridge Evangelical would have said could he have dreamed that a nephew of his would be guilty of active connivance in the establishment of a permanent theatre at the seat of a great English University.

Flowers of Field, Hill, and Swamp. By Caroline A. Creevey. Illustrated by Benjamin Lander. Harper & Bros. 1897.

We have here a book written by a true lover of plants, which we fear may be seriously disappointing to all who use it. It is an honest attempt to arrange some of our wild plants, and many of those which have escaped from cultivation, into groups depending on the places where they are found in their best estate. The plants of swamps, bogs, and marshes find their place together in this volume; then follow those which are near the seaside or on the very coast; after which come, in turn, the aquatics, the plants of wet meadows and low grounds, of dry

fields, waste places, waysides, and so on. Of course, such grouping brings about some curious collocations, and, of necessity, cannot be exact, but it has its basis in nature, and is the partial expression of the underlying laws which govern the distribution of plants. Any description of such grouping is, in short, a step in the direction of exhibiting some of the adaptations of plants to their surroundings. To this study has of late been given the name of œcology—a term not yet in all the dictionaries, but likely to be there soon.

The author has a keen eye and a facile touch with her pen, which should be confined, we think, to the work in which she has made a pleasing success, namely, the description, in a chatty manner, of plants and their ways. Her special descriptions, where she aims at being scientific, are not satisfactory; the distinctions between species are far from clear, and the management of genera wholly unjustifiable. Moreover, the nomenclature is very confusing: some of the new generic and specific names take their places with the confident air of usurpers, while some of the old names are left undisturbed. It is a revolution on the instalment plan. It seems to us rather better, while botanical names are in a chaotic condition, and during the period of clearing, to keep from stirring the lees. We shall not trouble our readers with some of the amusing inconsistencies, for they will perhaps mean little even to the readers of the book, and we therefore pass by with mere mention the flagrant instances of a want of method in the treatment of *Microstylis*, *Vaccinium*, and *Oenothera*. These genera may fairly ask why they have been omitted in the general overturn. Has new light begun to dawn?

But, leaving these matters of description and names aside, we come to the last serious objection to the book, and then we pass to the more pleasant task of speaking of its merits. There is absolutely no thread of connection leading through the labyrinth, no clue is placed in the reader's hand. Whether students will wander aimlessly through the descriptions without any friendly guide to the orders and genera, we do not know; we do know that it will require more than ordinary patience for the general reader to determine positively the identity of the plants referred to. Hence we fear that the book will be disappointing to some who employ it.

But the book has many merits. In the first place, the popular descriptions are in many instances more than usually charming, and some of the expressions which the author employs are very telling. Again, most of the drawings are above the average found in our popular works, both in spirit and in truthfulness, although a good many of them are not distinctive of the species. One may not, from the delineation, know exactly "where he is at," but he may be sure that he is thereabouts; and therefore we think that in the warm days of early summer, one who has never studied plants, but who wishes to catch a glimpse of their relations to their surroundings, might do far worse than to puzzle over this pretty treatise, seeking the names and asking questions as to habits of the plants, in the different localities wet and dry. Then, with the occasional disappointments which will be sure to come, there will be many compensations: the reader will be introduced into one of the most pleasant fields of botany.

Few subjects are more highly attractive than personal details as to private life. Those biographies are most attractive in which the details of private life, within the limits of good taste, are presented. In the case of plants these limits are not likely to be overstepped; one can with perfect propriety ask the most searching questions as to all phases and particulars of the life of the flowers of desert and jungle. Such books as this are sure to increase deep interest in such matters, and therefore we wish that more emphasis had been laid upon the habits and caprices of the plants under consideration. For such work the author is admirably fitted, and we trust that, keeping away from disputed and uncertain ground, she may add to the list of works on what one may call Recreative Botany. At any rate, in her next book she will not be likely to undertake to dispose, as she has here done, of such genera as *Vitis*, *Lespedeza*, *Aster*, *Solidago*, *Polygonum*, and so on, in an off-hand manner. We look for many better books from her pen and Mr. Lander's skilful pencil.

Activity in the investigation of the habits and the relations of plants to all their surroundings is at present very great, and the subject is attracting many observers. Questions as to the peculiarities of strand-plants, desert vegetation, and plants of the tropical forests are innumerable, and their true answers are beginning to throw additional light on some dark places in biology. Every honest attempt to stimulate such inquiry is to be welcomed, even if its faults are many. In an ideal guide to this subject, attention would also be drawn to the fact that there are swamps north and swamps south, dry hills in New England and dry hills in North Carolina, and that the climatal conditions are so diverse between the North and South that the reactions of vegetable forms are likewise different. We may fairly expect that, in a subsequent work on rather different lines, the author will give more prominence to such matters.

Borderland Studies. By George M. Gould, A.M., M.D. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co. 1896.

As we read the author of this collection of "miscellaneous addresses and essays pertaining to medicine and the medical profession, and their relation to general science and thought," he believes that all life, whether of amœbæ or of man, is part of a general stock, if one may so say—is a portion of a universal presence upon which limited knowledge and power are bestowed; and that this life is "everywhere present, vividly alert to grasp the opportunity" of vivifying matter. This is a pantheistic harking back to Pythagoras, or the more ancient Egyptians; or in one view it is another expression of the Logos of John. The underlying idea is that Life is God and God is Life; it is not a reference of life to God, but their identity. Whence Dr. Gould deduces that "the truest religion seeks freedom from self and union with the everlasting life; one must lose his life to find it." Incarnation so hampers life that individuality is the result, and individuality is imperfection. The desire for a personal immortality, for an everlasting perpetuation of self, even if glorified, is reprehensible, and a sign of selfish weakness, which is an antipodal doctrine to that of the church of Christ. In this world, "if we aid life we are good; if we side with matter we sin." It is not clear wherein, as we now stand, we can side with life without siding with the matter through which, and only through which, we know life. With the best thought we can give to the two essays, on "Immortality" and on "Life and its Physical Basis," in which these views are developed, they do not appear to us to warrant the conclusions that the author has reached.

Possibly because of his learning apart from his philosophy, Dr. Gould is a spelling reformer in medical and presumably in secular literature, maintaining that language was made for man, not man for language. He does not advise pure phonetic spelling, but he offers eight or nine modifications for current use, including the abolition of the diæresis, because "it cannot teach pronunciation." That is precisely what it should teach, as it marks the difference between cocaine and cocaïne, between cooper and coöperate, and similar recurrent vowelled words. There is a slap-dash style in this paper, tolerable in extemporaneous debate, but quite out of keeping with the real importance of the subject.

The initial essay in this somewhat heterogeneous collection, perhaps given the place of honor from its relation to the rising sentiment of protection to the lower animals and to the general growth of pity, is on "Vivisection." It is an impartial and candid statement of the right and the wrong of the accusations, the defence, and the practice. With the author's appreciation of the practical identity if not the sacredness of all life, is joined the recognition of man's rise from savagery into domesticity and his material progress as dependent upon the domestication of the wild animals, and a full acceptance of the Brahminical warning *Tat twam asi* ('This [animal] art thou'), as meaning that in every form of life there is kinship. He claims the anti-vivisectionists as believers in his own creed of cosmic commensalism. The animal, however, has no inherent right to life superior to the needs of man—wherein pleasure is not to be confused with need. Else wolves might destroy the flocks and the little foxes spoil the vines unhindered. If, by common consent, animal flesh and skin and oil may contribute to man's good, it logically follows that the animal organism as such may illustrate his physical machinery and advance veterinary medicine, and it is absurd to admit the one and deny the other. The graver issue, often obscured, is the infliction of pain. In much popular outcry, animals painlessly killed for demonstration are said to be vivisected, although the intelligent champions of animal life cannot confuse dissection with vivisection. There are thus two points involved—the taking of life and the application of torture. As long as men are meat-eaters, killing *per se* deserves no special reprobation because done in the interest of science. If the death is painless, nothing is to be said at this stage of our development. Painful experiment, except for a well-defined, laudable object, should be barred, and, when authorized, be made only by qualified investigators. That entirely extraneous subject which unbalanced enthusiasts have advocated, vivisection, or, for the matter of that, dissection, for purposes of demonstration before school-children, is justly denounced.

We cannot go over the whole tale of these essays. Occasionally the freedom of the platform or of oral argument clings too closely to the printed lines to be acceptable, but we may well pardon an occasional lapse in diction for the stimulus of original thought beyond conventional lines.

John Hopkins Morison: A Memoir. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

As a Unitarian minister, Dr. Morison was little known beyond the bounds of his own sect. Within those bounds he was highly respected for his abilities and revered for his personal and social worth. Every communion has its saints, and Dr. Morison's type was preëminently the saintly. But the saints have sometimes a strain of iron in their blood, and Dr. Morison had this. His work was done under a burden of physical disabilities which most men would have regarded as a discharge from any active service whatsoever. It retarded him a good deal in his early manhood, so that, born in 1808 and graduated at Harvard in 1831, he was not settled in the ministry until 1836, when he, together with Ephraim Peabody, succeeded Dr. Dewey as minister of the society in New Bedford. In 1846, after two years spent in the endeavor to regain his health, he took charge of the society in Milton, Mass., and his pastorate continued until 1885, with one colleague and another after 1871. In connection with his pastorate he did much editorial work upon the *Christian Register* and *Unitarian Review*, besides lecturing at the Harvard and Meadville Divinity Schools. When, in 1867, a divinity school was organized in Boston with the idea of rushing young men into the ministry with a minimum of general preparation, Dr. Morison accepted a professorship. His own culture was so exact and fine that his connection with such a movement is not easily accounted for. Very likely it was encouraged by his sympathy with young men in straitened circumstances who were desiring a professional education. Yet he had himself got the best preparatory and collegiate training at Exeter and Harvard after his father's death, with the domestic fortunes gone to wreck. Indeed, it looks as if his straitened circumstances gave to his life that impulse and direction towards a liberal education which otherwise might have been wanting. Those who knew Dr. Soule as the principal of Exeter some twenty years ago will be interested in finding him there as a teacher seventy years ago. And many of his pupils will read with astonishment Dr. Morison's estimate of his character as a teacher (pp. 237, 238), having found him utterly mechanical in his methods, and in his personal presence weak, though with a superficial dignity more provocative of amusement than of awe.

One of the most attractive things in this biography is Dr. Morison's fondness for Peterborough, N. H., the town in which he was born and grew up. His connection with it was never broken. To him it turned for help on all great local occasions, and his last public utterance was at the dedication of a new building for its library, when he made the dedicatory address. It is claimed for the library that it was the first of its kind in the country or in the world. In his later years Dr. Morison made his summer home in Peterborough, with his relatives and children close at hand. So stable in his affections, it was not strange that he was loved so much. His Unitarian thinking, given here, already sounds far-off and strange. His anti-slavery temper was, like that of many of his coreligionists, sincere and solemn, but inactive and opposed to any denominational expression of sympathy with anti-slavery measures.

The Pharsalia of Lucan. Translated into blank verse by Edward Ridley, Q.C. Longmans, Green & Co. 1896.

Of the brilliant little group of Spanish provincials whose literary ambition brought them to Rome in the first Christian century, there is no figure half so interesting as that of Lucan; in all that shameful period there is no career so tragic. The story of Lucan is well known. It is the story of a young man of great gifts, who so mistook his own powers and the poetical possibilities of his artificial age that he wrote an epic. Now a second-rate epic is one of the few outrages on literature which the world does not forgive. We all remember Juvenal's list of Nero's crimes with its ascending scale: He caused his wife's death, murdered his mother, and wrote an epic—*Troïca scripsit.* Lucan's youth—he died at twenty-six—is the best defence of his indiscretion. Had he lived, there is little doubt that he would have turned his maturer energies to the didactic poetry that "set his genius," and rivalled Juvenal and Martial in the field of satire and epigram. Here he would have been less hampered by that rhetorical training which went far towards wrecking the 'Pharsalia.' Lucan's grandfather was the elder Seneca, the professor of rhetoric; Seneca the philosophical rhetorician was his uncle; the rhetorical manner was in his blood, and none of the Seneca family ever had the art of wearing his rhetoric "lightly, like a flower."

Lucan's rank as a poet is still a problem of literary taste. The scholar of the old school assimilated his Lucan along with his Homer and Virgil; Pitt and Burke quoted him in the House of Commons, Lamartine, in the French Assembly; Macaulay, himself a rhetorician, thought Lucan "one of the most extraordinary men that ever lived"; his influence on Shelley, who bracketed him with Sidney and Chatterton in the 'Adonais,' is well known. But Shelley's opinion that he "transcends Virgil" is an aberration that can be compared only with Milton's singular preference for Ovid. Put Lucan to the test applied to Ovid by Macaulay—hunt him through for fifty consecutive lines that Virgil might have written, and you will hunt in vain. But when you have been bored through a few hundred lines by Lucan the declaimer pointing the moral for you and explaining the characters, Lucan the poet will suddenly take your breath with a dozen lines of such passion and elevation that you are ready, with Dante, to give him a place beside Homer and Horace.

A poet of long dead-levels and short, sudden flights is the despair of the translator. A successful version of the 'Pharsalia' has not hitherto appeared. Marlowe's rendering of Book I. is unequal and disappointing; Mr. Goldwin Smith attempted some selected passages in his 'Bay Leaves'; in Froude's 'Cæsar' there is a blank-verse rendering of some famous lines. But a sustained and energetic translation of the whole poem is a very different achievement, and Mr. Ridley has given us the first readable and faithful version of a writer whom Dante echoed, and who has, at all times, been a peculiar favorite with poets and literary men. Mr. Ridley wisely chose for his medium blank verse—one of the three metres which Matthew Arnold thought capable of the "grand manner." It is to the scholar's tribunal that the translator of a classic must appeal, and the scholar will naturally turn to certain test passages, and to those epigrammatic single lines for which Lucan is famous. His powers of declamation were employed to the best advantage on the horrors of that war, "worse than civil,"

> "—when rugged Charon fainted,
> And asked a navy rather than a boat
> To ferry over the sad world that came."

A fair specimen of the translator's manner is the description of the carnival of birds and beasts on the field of Pharsalia (vii. 967 seqq.).

> "Then to the ghastly harvest of the war
> Came all the beasts of earth whose facile sense
> Of odor tracks the bodies of the slain.
> . . . . . .
> The air grew dark with vultures' hovering wings
> Innumerable, for every grove and wood
> Sent forth its denizens; on every tree
> Dripped from their crimson beaks a gory dew.
> Oft on the conquerors and their impious arms
> Or purple rain of blood, or mouldering flesh,
> Fell from the iofty heaven; or limbs of men
> From weary talons dropped."

Throughout the poem Mr. Ridley notes some fine English parallels and echoes, chiefly from Ben Jonson. With the passage quoted above he might have compared the imitation in Shelley's "Hellas," which is obvious enough, though it has escaped the commentators:

> "The exhalations and the thirsty winds
> Are sick with blood; the dew is foul with death;
> Heaven's light is quenched in slaughter; thus where'er
> Upon your camps, cities, or towers, or fleets,
> *The obscene birds the reeking remnants cast*
> *Of these dead limbs.*
> . . . . . Famine and pestilence,
> And panic shall wage war upon our side."

The famous dream of Pompeius is the only other passage we have space to quote:

> "Pompeius on that morn
> In troubled sleep an empty dream conceived;
> For in the watches of the night he heard
> Innumerable Romans shout his name
> Within his theatre; the benches vied
> To raise his fame, and place him with the gods;
> As once in youth when victory was won,
> . . . . . .
> He sat triumphant in his pure white gown,
> A Roman knight, and heard the Senate's cheer.
> . . . . . Break not his latest sleep
> Ye sentinels, let not the trumpet-call
> Strike on his ear; for on the morrow's night
> Shapes of the battle lost, of death and war,
> Shall crowd his rest with terrors."

There is nothing in Virgil finer than the pathetic contrast in these lines, nothing more striking in the 'Pharsalia' itself, unless it be the description of the tomb of Pompeius, at the end of the eighth book, where Mr Ridley has again done full justice to the "grand style pathetic."

The book is admirably printed and got up. The translator has had the advantage of Francken's new (1896) edition of the first five books, and he has, here and there, adopted that editor's readings. The only proof-reader's error that we have noted is in the spelling of the name of Dante's translator, which should be Cary, not Carey (pp. xiii and 289).

A Girl's Wanderings in Hungary. By Ellen H. Browning. Longmans.

In spite of the exhibition at Budapest last summer, Hungary is still a country unfamiliar to the more western world, to which its name usually suggests reminiscences

about Kossuth and the Revolution of '49, and a few vague ideas about the present Dual Monarchy. Most people know but little of the life of the Hungarians to-day, their characteristics and aspirations, and there are not many good books in English or French that give much information on the subject. We therefore recommend 'A Girl's Wanderings in Hungary' with all its drawbacks.

The author describes herself sufficiently at the outset: "I have always been of an independent turn of mind, and I never could see why a well-brought-up girl should not be allowed exactly the same liberty of action that is accorded to her brother, in fact to every young man in every grade of life"; and "I am so Gothlike by nature as to detest museums—except as places to sit and rest in on a hot day." This teaches us what not to expect. Sure enough, the book shows scant evidence of real thought, though it contains plenty of commonplace reflections; it is not a study of any kind, but merely the record of the experiences and impressions of an unconventional young person possessed of some insight and a keen sense of humor, who travelled considerably, saw interesting things, and frequently knows how to describe them. She mixed with nobles, middle class, and peasants, in the city and in the country; she went about a good deal alone, and, talking freely herself, she seems to have got others to do the same. Her vivid pictures of Hungarian life give her work a value for instruction as well as pleasure. Unluckily, it is marred by unpleasant faults. The continual egotism of the writer is annoying until one gets used to it; her style is often slovenly. She is guilty several times of bad taste, and, when she digresses and moralizes, one frequently finds it hard not to shut up the volume. The following extract will show what we mean:

"[Near the Petöfi statue in Pesth] every Sunday going into church I hated the Austrians with a bitter hatred; coming out of church I again shook my fist at them, metaphorically. You ask why? Well, just now I told you that a looker-on was not obliged to take sides, yet I am always obliged by some stupid, unaccountable instinct to take sides with the oppressed and hate the oppressors; in spite of which I am a stanch Conservative. You may believe it or not, as you like, but I detest Radicals, though my fondness for the peasantry of many nations is very pronounced; but the People (spelt with a big P) find neither support nor sympathy with me. 'Vox populi, vox Dei' is all nonsense in my opinion, besides being distinctly blasphemous. Good gracious! Only think of it! What an obnoxious, unreasonable, selfish, fickle voice some folk would try to make out the Almighty's to be!"

And yet, notwithstanding such stuff as the above, the book, as we have said, is really worth reading.

The State and the Individual. By William Sharp McKechnie. Glasgow: James MacLehose & Sons; New York: Macmillan. 1896.

This is a well-meant book. The determination of the proper limits of governmental action is something that the time requires, and that deserves the most thorough investigation. The theories of those who are called socialists and of those who are called individualists may be advantageously compared and contrasted, and there is room for a statement of the theories of those who class themselves with neither school. As Mr. McKechnie observes, the copious literature on the subject of the legitimate province of law and government is polemical rather than constructive, and most treatises are either limited to the economic features of the inquiry, or are manifestations of uncritical and partisan zeal.

But, while a really critical examination of this subject would be welcome, we are compelled to say that this author lacks the necessary equipment. His position is essentially dogmatical; not in the colloquial sense of mere positive assertion, but in the sense of assuming what requires proof. He has been captivated by the Hegelian lingo, and thinks that by using the word "organic" in a mysterious and solemn way, all difficulties can be made to vanish. He shrinks a little when he contemplates Bluntschli's boldness in asserting that the State has sexual functions of the masculine type—according to that sturdy philosopher the State is a "He," and the Church a "She"—but he cannot deny that Bluntschli may be right. For "the body corporate is mysterious," and an organic whole is not merely the sum of its parts. The basis of the State is Will—the universal Will, or practical reason—and it is because this universal Will acts on righteous moral principles that law has a binding force. The end of this organism is perfection. It is "the highest welfare of the individual and of humanity. It is, in other words, to carry forward towards fulfilment the eternal purpose of the universe."

To the objection that this definition is for practical purposes a little vague, Mr. McKechnie cheerfully replies that its vagueness is its greatest merit—an opinion which we share. If it were not vague, he says, men would not agree about it. It is conceivable, he observes—and we concur—that the true end of the State is disclosed only through the process of evolution. Hence, it would be awkward to be required to tell precisely what the end is. Evolution might prove us wrong, and it is, therefore, immensely convenient to fall back on a formula like "self-realization" as expressing the goal of all social and political aims. In fact, the most impudent "individualist" would falter at repudiating such a formula as this. If political philosophy could stop with this definition, all controversy might cease; but such a definition as this is not even a beginning of wisdom.

Even in a metaphysical age, such metaphysics would have been bad; in a practical age they are intolerable. We may attribute "existence" to a State, just as we attribute it to a school, or a regiment, or a party, or a baseball team; but to assume that whenever an organization of this kind is effected, an activity of a higher order than man comes into being, and possesses a moral nature, is really superstition of a very low and primitive kind. It might befit an age of ancestor-worship and a community that reverenced fetishes; but its survival in a critical age like the present is an anachronism. The absurdities into which any one who adopts such theories is led are manifold. What is the criterion of morality among states, and who are the judges? Mr. McKechnie does not go so far as some, and maintain that no state is a state unless he thinks it realizes, or aims to realize, the common good; but he refuses to call any state righteous unless he approves of its aims. He enumerates a list of things which a "moral" state must not do, "under the penalty of being considered by more equitably minded states and individuals a thief and a breaker of faith." But he is obliged to admit that even an immoral state has absolute power over its subjects, so that they must commit what their consciences pronounce immoral acts when the State commands it.

As is usual in such cases, Mr. McKechnie reinforces the metaphysics of Hegel with the phrases of Rousseau. The will of the State is not the sum of the wills of a majority of its subjects, nor the instrument of a majority of their votes. "The Czar of all the Russias rules by the will of the people as much as does the executive of the Swiss Federation." We must never identify this will of the people "with the blind passions of the mob, or the mere mechanical majority of unenlightened voters." But how if this mechanical majority declares that it is enlightened, that it expresses the national will, and that Mr. McKechnie must either admit this or be cut off as a traitor? What is the common ground on which such differences of opinion can be adjusted? Mr. McKechnie imagines all the time that he is the benevolent despot, that he and those who agree with him are to direct the policy of the government. Hence he says: "No member of the body politic can be allowed to arrogate to himself the right of private judgment as to the duties of the State." Let him conceive himself as living under a government every principle of whose action was revolting to him, and see how he likes the application of this slavish maxim.

It is true that some subtleties are advanced with a view of defending this theory from the reproach of justifying the most abject and pusillanimous submission to tyranny. When a majority "applies its right of compulsion in a mechanical rather than in an organic way," if we understand him, Mr. McKechnie would say that the majority was not the State. So long as every one that is aggrieved may say that he is the victim of mechanical compulsion, and may rightfully resist it, we suppose that liberty may have sufficient protection; but such theories appear to us to throw political philosophy into the wildest confusion. To rescue it by means of silly platitudes, such as, "There is no tyranny unless the power of the legislature is used wickedly and unwisely," is ridiculous. Every one will agree that no right should be interfered wth unless more important rights require it, but a political system made up of such propositions is not what the present day demands.

The Flight of the King after the Battle of Worcester. By Allan Fea. With numerous sketches, photographs, and portraits. New York: John Lane. 1897.

It is to be presumed that the cult of the "royal martyr," which has recently shown signs of vitality, does not extend to his son. Indeed, one finds difficulty in realizing that Charles II. ever passed through a phase of respectability. Little profit would arise from a study of his progress down the primrose path, but this much may be said, that he began well, and that the good points of his character are fully brought out by his conduct in the Worcester campaign and in the subsequent flight. Were the disgraces of his reign less glaring, we might feel drawn towards him in adversity. Qualities of character, however, have a small part in Mr. Fea's contribution to the story of his wanderings. Archæology and pictures take their place. The book is an example of that beautiful typography and illustration which

makes the poor man covetous and the collector insolent, without adding vastly to the world's stock of ideas or information. In the first part the fugitive's itinerary is traced step by step from the field of disaster to Shoreham, where he took boat for France; in the second, a *Nachtrag* of rare Boscobelian tracts is mustered. Sixteen portraits, principally those of the persons who aided Charles to escape, are reproduced in photogravure, and plates taken from drawings or photographs are profusely scattered about. Mr. Fea leads one a picturesque journey through the west and south of England, opening the doors of many pleasant country houses, and incidentally proving how far personal allegiance went in England as lately as the seventeenth century.

The most entertaining narrative of Charles's adventures after the battle of Worcester is beyond question that of Lord Clarendon. Strange to say, he wrote without familiarity with the numerous tracts of the Restoration period which are intimately concerned with the subject. Blount published 'Boscobel' before the 'History of the Rebellion' went into the printer's hands, but Clarendon's glaring errors of fact prove that he either passed by this important source altogether, or placed slight reliance on it. He was in his grave long before the Pepys manuscript had emerged from the library of Magdalene College, Cambridge. So far as truth is concerned, his story of the first week is pure, though animated, travesty. Later on, when he comes to the Lanes, he is more faithful. Yet, Clarendon's vagaries notwithstanding, we advise the reader to have his thirteenth book fresh in memory before consulting Mr. Fea. The latter, while minute and painstaking, lacks animation. His text is a series of notes on successive episodes, rather than a brisk and independent history.

Mr. Fea urges that the matter which he treats "should be popular, not, perhaps, for the sake of the hero of the adventures, but because it presents a picture—unequalled in the annals of the country—of the devotion of the subject to his sovereign." This is another way of saying that the Young Pretender and Flora Macdonald belong to Scotland and not to England. Without denying the extent of the devotion itself, we are impressed by the Boscobel tracts with a sense that Roman Catholic allegiance and party spirit are to receive credit for Charles's escape. We doubt very much whether the Penderels, Father Huddlestone, and many others whom we might mention would have given their services to a royal fugitive of the Protestant persuasion, whatever might have been their abstract views on the subject of divine right. We fancy, also, that Cromwell was relieved when Charles escaped him, just as Maurice of Saxony was relieved when Charles V. fled from Innsbruck into the Alps of Styria. A second regicide would have been far too invidious.

The five tracts which Mr. Fea prints are not new, though excluded from Hughes's edition of 'Boscobel.' Quite the most striking of them is "Colonel Gounter's Narrative." It begins at Heale, near Salisbury, after the romantic and well-known part of the journey was over, and takes the King into safety. The five together furnish a useful supplement to the Hughes collection. One is somewhat disgusted at Mr. Fea's evidence of pension-begging after the Restoration, but pleased to see that just claims were honored. Fourteen persons were in receipt of considerable annuities at the accession of James II. The arrearages on these claims in 1685 amounted to nearly £9,000. Mr. Fea's investigation extends even to the family pedigrees of Charles's chief abettors and the subsequent fate of the houses where he was lodged. His volume is a careful piece of topographical and antiquarian research, rendered engaging by extreme fulness and beauty of illustration.

Soldiering and Surveying in British East Africa. 1891-1894. By Major J. R. L. Macdonald, R.E. With maps and illustrations. Edward Arnold. 1897. Pp. xvi, 333, 8vo.

Uganda is the most promising of the native African states. Its important geographical position on the Nile and Lake Victoria makes it the meeting-point of the great lines of communication which will doubtless in the near future join Egypt with the Cape, and the Indian Ocean with the Congo. Its people are unusually intelligent and progressive. Unaided either by Asiatics or by Europeans, they organized a government with a king, a prime minister, and a great council of provincial chiefs. They only among negroes, if we are not mistaken, have made good roads. Like the Japanese, they are eagerly adopting civilized ways. A silver currency, for instance, is taking the place of cowries. A postal service has been established. The printing-press is a power, and Christianity and Mohammedanism have nearly supplanted paganism. The great hindrance to the full development of the advantages of their position and of the resources of their exceptionally rich soil is their isolation from the markets of the world. The three months' journey to the coast is prohibitive of every export but ivory and slaves. It is probable, however, that the building of a railway would have been indefinitely postponed but for the establishment of the English protectorate over the country. This necessitated rapid communication with the coast, and as soon as the question of occupancy was raised, a survey of a route from the sea to Lake Victoria was ordered.

A narrative of this surveying expedition is given in the first part of this volume by the commander, Major Macdonald. It does not call for special comment, as the party traversed a comparatively well-known country, and the incidents of the march did not differ from those of other East African expeditions. There were the usual difficulties with the porters, sufferings from thirst, alarms from hostile Masai, and hunting adventures, including attacks by rhinoceroses. On the return journey Major Macdonald took a prominent part in some military operations against the Wakikuyu, a "turbulent" people and inveterate raiders of caravans. To a detailed description of these he joins a lively account of the difficulties experienced in founding and maintaining a station among hostile savages.

The larger and by far the more important part of the work is devoted to what is practically the military history of Uganda during the years 1889-93. The war between the Roman Catholic and Protestant factions had just ended, in the spring of 1892, with the complete success of the latter, when the survey expedition had about completed its work; and Major Macdonald was ordered to report upon the causes of hostilities. This obliged him to return to Uganda, where, after making his report, he served for a time as Acting Commissioner. In this capacity he succeeded in quelling a formidable rebellion of the Mohammedans, their third attempt within four years to drive out the Christians and foreigners. The history of the two previous wars is told at some length, as well as that of the events which preceded the final struggle. The danger of the immediate situation was greatly increased by the fact that Selim Bey, one of Emin Pasha's mutinous officers, and his Sudanese followers, some five or six thousand in number, openly showed their sympathy with the rebels. The prompt and vigorous measures which Major Macdonald took to disarm the Sudanese garrisons at the capital and Port Alice, the arrest of Selim Bey, and the defeat of the Mohammedan army, are well described, and redound greatly to the credit of the English and native Protestant chiefs. During the last part of 1893 Major Macdonald was chief of staff to Col. Colvile in his expedition against Kabarega, King of Unyoro, which resulted in the submission of this country to British rule.

The arrangement of the various chapters is somewhat confusing, and it is difficult at times to discover the proper chronological sequence of the different wars and expeditions on land and water related. The author lacks also the power of graphic description. The nearest approach to a pen-portrait, for instance, is the following account of Mwanga's Prime Minister:

"In a lower room of his two-storied house he held his court. A carpet was spread before his table, which was neatly furnished with paper, ink, pens, blotting-pad, and all the necessary adjuncts for his work. Along one side of the room squatted a number of youthful clerks, who were busy copying his drafts or recording his decisions. Seated at his table, the Katikiro was a shrewd man of business, and he had much need to be so, for his court was crowded for long hours each day with suitors and officials; and not only had he to give judgment, but to manage the ordinary work of administration. Visits to the King or to the Commissioner, and conferences with his brother chiefs, took up part of his time, and, altogether, his position was no sinecure. Though so sternly business-like during the day, in the evenings he unbent, and was generally to be found sitting in his enclosure in a neatly built veranda, solacing himself after the cares of office by playing on the Uganda lyre."

Major Macdonald pays a high but just tribute to the work of the English missionaries:

"Instead of a savage heathen kingdom, where a man's life was rated at the price of an ox, and a woman was an article of barter, and where justice went to the highest bidder, the Uganda of to-day is a well-ordered State, steadily improving in the arts of civilization and culture, where no man can lose his property or his life at the arbitrary will of the great, or without a fair and open trial. This alone is no small thing to have achieved, and a large share in its accomplishment is undoubtedly due to the patient toil of the Christian missionaries, who have adhered steadfastly to their self-imposed task through the stormy times of war and through the dark days of persecution."

Some part of this great achievement is due to the English officials. One great merit of the present work, indeed, is that it bears such trustworthy because unconscious testimony to the high qualities demanded of the picked men who rule the natives. That they display these qualities in the hour of need, and, without thought of personal gain, do their duty loyally, is the great secret of England's success in extending her empire.

The volume is very attractive in appearance, being provided with numerous illustrations and sketch-maps of the various wars, together with a general map of British East Africa. In this, as in other works, it is necessary to call attention to a lack of agreement at times between the text and the maps in the orthography of place names. Bulingugwe is given several times Bulangugwe, Kibwezi Kibwizi, and Budongo Budong. On page 200 the date 1894 should be 1891.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bangs, J. K. The Pursuit of the House-Boat. Harpers. $1.25.
Baumbach, Rudolf. Die Nonna. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Becke, Louis. His Native Wife. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.
Benson, Rev. E. W. Cyprian, his Life, his Times, his Work. Appletons. $7.
Bertheroy, Jean. Le Double Jouy. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Bower, H. M. The Elevation and Procession of the Ceri at Gubbio. London: David Nutt.
Bowne, Prof. B. P. Theory of Thought and Knowledge. Harpers. $1.50.
Brinton, D. G. Maria Candelaria: An Historic Drama. Philadelphia: David McKay.
Bryan, W. H. The Eagleid: An Epic Poem. St. Louis: Nixon-Jones Co.
Claghorn, Kate H. College Training for Women. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $1.25.
Clark, V. S. Eutropi Historia Romana. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. 30c.
Compton, Herbert. A Free Lance in a Far Land. Cassell. 50c.
Davey, Richard. The Sultan and His Subjects. 2 vols. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Davis, R. H. Soldiers of Fortune. Scribners. $1.50.
Edwards, J. N. Shelby and His Men; or, The War in the West. Kansas City: Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co.
Egerton, George. Symphonies. John Lane. $1.25.
Fiske, A. K. The Myths of Israel. Macmillan.
Fuertes, J. H. Water and Public Health. John Wiley & Sons. $1.50.
Guiney, Louise I. Patrins. Boston: Copeland & Day.
Hawke, W. H. The Premier Cypher Telegraphic Code. London: Effingham Wilson.
Hornung, E. W. My Lord Duke. Scribners. $1.25.
Hubrecht, Prof. A. A. W. The Descent of the Primates. Scribners. $1.
Kipling, Rudyard. Under the Deodars, and Other Stories. [Outward Bound Edition.] Scribners.
Kuhns, Prof. L. O. Treatment of Nature in Dante's Divina Commedia. Edward Arnold.
Ladd, Prof. G. T. Philosophy of Knowledge. Scribners. $4.
Leathes, Prof. Stanley. The Claims of the Old Testament. Scribners.
Leroy-Beaulieu, Pierre. Les Nouvelles Sociétés Anglo-Saxonnes. Paris: A. Colin & Cie.
Liddon, Rev. H. P. Explanatory Analysis of St. Paul's First Epistle to Timothy. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Mackenzie, W. D. The Ethics of Gambling. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. The Treasure of the Humble. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.75.
McClain, Emlin. A Treatise on the Criminal Law. 2 vols. Chicago: Callaghan & Co.
McManus, Blanche. The Voyage of the Mayflower. New York: E. R. Herrick & Co. $1.25.
Means, James. The Aeronautical Annual. 1897. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co. $1.
Mitchel, F. A. Sweet Revenge: A Romance of the Civil War. Harpers. $1.
Mooney, James. The Ghost-Dance Religion. Washington: Government Printing-Office.
Mooney, W. D. A Brief Latin Grammar. American Book Co. 75c.
Nash, Prof. H. S. Genesis of the Social Conscience. Macmillan.
Nesmith, J. E. The Life and Work of Frederic Thomas Greenhalge, Governor of Massachusetts. Boston: Roberts Bros. $3.
Newhall, C. S. The Vines of Northeastern America. Putnams. $2.50.
Nixon, J. L. The Lowly Nazarene. J. S. Ogilvie Publishing Co. $1.
On a Western Campus: Stories and Sketches of Undergraduate Life. Buffalo: C. W. Moulton.
Painter, Prof. F. V. N. Introduction to American Literature. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.25.
Parker, Rev. John. The Saviour in the Light of the First Century. Edinburgh: J. Gardner Hitt.
Peel, Sir Robert. A Bit of a Fool. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.25.
Pellissier, Georges. The Literary Movement in France during the Nineteenth Century. Putnams. $3.50.
Pottier, E. Vases Antiques du Louvre. Paris: Hachette.
Proceedings of the National Council of Jewish Women. Philadelphia: Jewish Publication Society.
Redmond, Edmond. Lyra Cyclus; or, The Bards and the Bicycle. Rochester: The Author.
Reid, Rev. H. M. B. Books that Help the Religious Life. Edinburgh: J. Gardner Hitt.
Roberts, Isaac P. The Fertility of the Land. Macmillan. $1.25.
Romanes, G. J. Thoughts on Religion. 3d ed. Chicago: Open Court Publishing Co. 50c.
Ross, Clinton. Zuleka. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.
Ross, Clinton. The Meddling Hussy. Stone & Kimball. $1.50.
Sanford, M. B. The Romance of a Jesuit Mission. Baker & Taylor Co. $1.25.
Schaeffer, N. C. Bible Readings for Schools. American Book Co. 35c.
Seth, Prof. Andrew. Two Lectures on Theism. Scribners. $1.
Sheldon, H. L. Notes on the Nicaragua Canal. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Sherwood, Mrs. M. E. W. An Epistle to Posterity: Being Rambling Recollections of Many Years of My Life. Harpers. $2.
Sizeranne, Robert de la. Ruskin et la Religion de la Beauté. Paris: Hachette.
Solly, Dr. S. E. A Handbook of Medical Climatology. Philadelphia: Lea Bros. & Co. $4.
Stall, Rev. Sylvanus. What a Young Boy Ought to Know. Philadelphia: Vir Publishing Co. $1.
The Beautiful Miss Brooke. Appletons.
Ward, H. D. The Burglar Who Moved Paradise. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Whitfield, E. E. Précis Writing and Office Correspondence. London: Methuen & Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 10, 1897.

The Week.

Mr. Aldrich's defence of the Senate finance committee's tariff bill as free from "extreme" features reads queerly in view of the dozens of cases already pointed out on the Democratic side where the rates are higher than those of the McKinley law. The Rhode Island Senator recognizes the hopelessness of defending his position in such cases, and last week made no attempt to answer the declaration that the duties on flint and glass bottles are already so high as practically to prevent any importations, albeit large increases are now proposed. So long as the Republican manager has votes enough to carry his point, he allows the other side to have all the argument, and the "combine" which he has arranged shows thus far no sign of disintegration. But it is one thing to put through Congress a so-called revenue bill which is full of prohibitive duties, and another thing to defend it on the stump.

In the new tariff bill prohibitive rates of duty are imposed on onions imported from the Bermudas. For the last thirty or forty years New York merchants have imported from those islands annually about 75,000 bushels of potatoes and 300,000 of onions, these importations being chiefly made between the months of January and June, before our own farms produce fresh vegetables. The McKinley law imposed a duty of 40 cents per bushel on onions, which in the last year of its operation was equivalent to a rate of 51 per cent. on the average value, then 78 cents. This made the selling price so high that the trade became unprofitable and gradually fell off. The Wilson act reduced the rate to 20 cents, and importations increased, the revenue reaching $72,000 a year. The pending bill restores the specific rate of 1890, but as the average price of onions has fallen to 69 cents a bushel, the old duty is now practically 10 per cent. higher, and must result in practically stopping importations.

It is quite natural that no explanation of such provisions should be attempted, for there is absolutely no way of making them appear reasonable. Bermuda onions do not compete with American, for they are brought here almost entirely before the native crop ripens. They come at a time when fresh vegetables are desired, and they can be sold at a moderate price if the Government does not interfere to prevent. They come from a country which has used the returns from this crop largely in the purchase of supplies of various sorts in the United States, and which cannot continue these purchases if it cannot sell to us. Finally, the crop is to a large extent raised through the use of American capital, as our merchants furnish advances to the Bermuda farmers so generally that the crop is practically paid for by them before any of it is shipped, and this advantageous use of home money must end if importations are stopped. In face of all these considerations, the tariff-makers appear resolved to stick to the prohibitive rate, and "provide revenue for the Government" by sacrificing the $72,000 a year which has been paid on Bermuda onions under the Wilson act.

The Government revenue during May, as reported by the Treasury's monthly bulletin, shows a considerable decrease. The month's total receipts from all sources were $29,797,390, against $37,812,135 in April and $36,217,662 in March. Ordinarily, the monthly revenue during the three or four spring months holds to a pretty even level; these wide fluctuations in the present season are therefore merely an index to the influence of the pending tariff bill. In April, when the increase in importations reached its maximum, the customs revenue showed an increase of nearly $13,000,000 over either February or January. Other sources of revenue remained substantially unchanged, so that this amount represents the maximum increase in the Government revenue under the spur of the "retroactive clause." A long-continued deficit was changed by this sudden rush of dutiable imports into a surplus, and in March, when expenditure was relatively light, this surplus ran as high as $9,004,665.

But the sudden decrease in both revenue and surplus during May suggests that the picture may before long present another side. The import movement forced by the tariff bill culminated in the opening week of May. Imports that week—the last, probably, in which goods coming in could escape the Dingley retroactive threat—were heavy almost beyond precedent. But in the later weeks import receipts suddenly decreased 40 per cent. or more. The federal revenue, as we have seen, has decreased with them. For May there is a surplus revenue of only $688,131. If the trade in dutiable imports continues to decrease, there will be a deficit again, and there is little reason to suppose that importations will not decrease. The heavy import trade of March and April came in response to no urgent demand from regular consumers; on the contrary, sales were slower even than in the two or three preceding months. The excessive importations, made to escape the threatened enormous duties, must therefore overhang the market for some time to come, and in proportion as they do, to precisely that extent must the future movement of dutiable imports be contracted. The outcome is not easy to discern, but the Treasury figures show, plainly enough, what it was that frightened the Senate finance committee into the imposition of additional revenue taxes pure and simple. Meantime, it is worth noticing that for the month of May the total expenditures exceeded by $682,667 those of May, 1896, and that for the eleven completed months of the fiscal year the increase in expenditures is $16,086,461. Sooner or later, this side of the problem must receive the first attention.

According to the usual monthly bulletin of the Government, estimating the amount and kinds of money circulating in the United States, our money supply continues to show an enormous increase over 1896. During the month of May, the gold exports caused some slight net decrease in the aggregate circulating medium. But as compared with the statement of June 1, 1896, the total money supply outside the holdings of the Treasury has increased no less than $138,149,612, or nearly 9 per cent. About one-half this increase was in gold, occasioned both by the heavy gold imports of last autumn and the large production of our mines. But there was also $27,403,000 increase in the amount of silver dollars coined, all of which increase went into general circulation. Nine per cent. is a fairly heavy ratio of increase in a country's circulating medium; it is four to five times as large as the ratio of increase in this country's population, under the best of circumstances. We should imagine, therefore, that if the theories of the silver-inflationists have any truth in them, trade and industry ought to be pretty nearly at high-water mark. The banks, we are sometimes informed, have cornered this increased supply. But the banks have only what their individual depositors have brought to them, and are just now straining every nerve to lend out what they have at almost the lowest rates on record. This is not the way in which corners are usually managed; the familiar process is to get the money, as the banks are imagined to have done, and then charge 10 or 15 or 20 per cent. to the unlucky borrowing public. Why are the silver oracles so reluctant to talk about the increase in

the money supply, along with the falling discount rate?

There are two very obvious reasons for the equanimity with which this season's gold exports have been regarded. One is the rather prevalent belief that the outward movement will not be very large. This is in some degree a matter of conjecture. The shipments thus far in the year have been, it is true, very decidedly below the average of the past six years, and last week they showed undoubted signs of slackening. Moreover, the large excess of exported merchandise during 1896 left the country without a heavy foreign debit, and there have been no such sales of our securities by Europe as served in 1895 and 1894 to turn against us the scales of international exchange. The influence of our unprecedentedly heavy merchandise imports during May and April, when the day of settlement arrives, is not so easy to forecast; but for the present no great anxiety on that score seems to exist. We believe, however, that the business community's indifference to our $18,000,000 gold exports, at this date, is based chiefly on the situation of the Treasury. Much of this export gold has been taken from the Government's supply in exchange for legal-tender notes, and through this process the net balance in the Treasury has been reduced from $155,639,773, its maximum of the year, to $144,177,037 by Saturday's report. But the lower of these figures is far above the ordinary sum in hand at this season of the year; it is 35 per cent. of the amount of legal tenders actually outstanding, and unless these floating Government notes are heavily increased, this is a reasonably safe reserve.

The appointment of Ellis H. Roberts to the position of Treasurer of the United States by President McKinley is a matter which ought not to be passed over in silence. Mr. Roberts was appointed by President Harrison Assistant Treasurer in New York, an office whose relations to the banks are too well known to financiers to need particular mention. Mr. Roberts almost immediately began to solicit loans of money from the leading banks, offering a kind of security which they would never have looked upon a second time if he had not held the office which he did hold. These borrowings were frequent and amounted to about $50,000 in the aggregate. If they had been repaid, the case would still have been a scandal calling for censure and removal from office. We have no reason to suppose, however, that they were brought to President Harrison's attention. But the loans were not paid. They were compromised after Roberts's retirement from office at 25 cents or some other fraction of a dollar. These facts were known to President McKinley. It was known to him, before he sent in the nomination, that Roberts had begged this money from the banks while holding office as aforesaid, to the amount of many thousands of dollars, and yet he promotes Roberts to a higher office in the same branch of service than the one he held before. Such an act betrays a moral obliquity that we were not prepared for. The most obvious comment is that Mr. McKinley has plastered his own robes with mud without relieving Roberts of any part of it. Time was when such a nomination, if sent to the Senate, would have been sent back with indignation. It has not been so now because it was first sent from the Senate to McKinley, and is the measure of his voluntary and needless surrender to that body.

Last week's Democratic State convention in Kentucky was simply a gathering of Bryanites. The free-coinage element had entire control of the State committee, and disqualified from participation in the primaries all who did not accept the Chicago platform. Under such circumstances there was no opposition to reaffirming that deliverance and making it the State platform this year. Those who believe in sound money are thus notified that their help is not wanted, and the National Democrats will be forced out of self-respect to run a ticket of their own. The only State office at stake is the clerkship of the Appellate Court, and the campaign, consequently, can be waged among former Democrats on the question of principles, without distraction by pleas that the government must not be turned over to the Republicans.

The lynching of a negro on Friday in Urbana, O., for an assault upon a white woman, throws a flood of light upon the frequency of such performances in the South. The colored population of Ohio is small; crimes of this sort on its part are rare; the offender in the present case had been promptly arrested, tried, convicted, and sentenced to the twenty years' imprisonment which is the full penalty of the law for the crime; and yet a mob of "the better class of citizens," women urging on their husbands, in broad daylight, without attempting disguise, broke into the jail, dragged out the prisoner, and put him to death in the most brutal way. When such an event is possible in a Northern State, one can understand more easily why the whites so often take the law into their own hands in Southern communities, where the blacks largely outnumber them, where such crimes are common, and where the plea for vengeance can be so much more strongly urged. But the Urbana lawlessness was only the worst of several disgraceful lynchings and attempted lynchings in Ohio during the last few years. In one case the commander of a regiment which had been called out to preserve the peace, had to stand trial for the murder of a man who had been shot by his force, and a sheriff who had done his duty was overwhelmingly beaten for this cause when he ran for reëlection. Such things signify a decline of the respect for law which is nothing short of alarming when we consider that it is manifested in one of the oldest States of the Union. Race prejudice was undoubtedly one element in the Urbana lynching, and abhorrence of a shocking crime was another; but what happened would have been impossible in a community which had been trained in proper regard for the law. The people are too generally losing respect for the makers and the administrators of the law, and the result is that, when they find, as this Urbana mob did, that the statute does not affix so severe a penalty as they think that a crime deserves, they disregard all statutes and relapse into the methods of the savage.

The Cubans may be starving, but they themselves are not aware of it. A member of Gomez's staff, fresh from the field after two years' service, informed the Senate sub-committee on Thursday that the starvation which Congress was in such a hurry to relieve was imaginary. That the insurgents were short of supplies he denied "with great emphasis," and affirmed that "the people of the island were not suffering for food." This agrees with other independent and first-hand testimony. Congress might easily have found this out had it not adopted, in foreign affairs, the policy of voting in headlong haste and without debate whatever money is demanded. As things are, it is now left in the foolish position of having given a sturdy beggar five times what he can possibly need. And the worst of it is that it did this, not on the representation of the beggar himself, who never dreamed of being so impudent, but on the malicious urging of a lot of street gamins—"war correspondents" they call themselves in this case.

The so-called settlement of the Spanish ministerial crisis is a curious affair. Cánovas nominally resigned because the Liberals and dissenting Conservatives would not attend the sessions of the Cortes. The reason they gave for not attending was that the Duke of Tetuan, the Foreign Minister, had boxed the ears of Prof. Comas. Cánovas tried to arrange that by getting the Duke to resign and go as Minister to France. But this did not placate the Liberals, and so the Prime Minister placed his resignation in the hands of the Queen-Regent. Then suddenly it became a question of the Cuban policy. Marshal

Campos was summoned to the palace; the Presidents of the Senate and the Chamber were summoned, the Minister of War was summoned. Was Gen. Weyler to be recalled? Would a policy of conciliation succeed that of force? That was the burden of the dispatches for several days, when, lo! it was announced that the only issue was Cánovas's *amour propre;* that the Queen supported him, and that he was going to retain power with his cabinet intact. That this accounts for all the excitement it is ridiculous to suppose. What may be going on behind all this kicking up of dust, it is difficult to say; but the published explanations of both the cause of the crisis and its solution are too bouffe to be taken seriously.

As soon as the Venezuela arbitration treaty was ratified, the Venezuelan President sat down and wrote to his good friend at Princeton, suggesting that Venezuela would like to retain him to argue its case before the tribunal. Mr. Cleveland replied that, in view of his relations to the case, it would be manifestly improper for him to do so. This Crespo knew just as well as any one else; but the temptation to secure as his counsel and put in his pay the ex-President who had committed himself from the first to his side of the case, and compelled the other side to arbitrate it, was too great to be resisted. The offer was really an insult, but the wily Venezuelan had the advantage of knowing that it could not very well be resented as such. Mr. Cleveland's reply, however, if the abstract of it published is correct, is, in its mere rehearsal of reasons for his refusal, no less a pointed rebuke than a civil acknowledgment.

The cable account of the annual meeting of the Bimetallic League at Manchester on June 2 was evidently the work of the League itself. It began with a list of the names of noted bimetallists, and any one looking at the dispatch hastily would gather that the meeting derived its importance from such men as Lord Aldenham, Mr. Balfour, Mr. Henry Chaplin, Mr. A. de Rothschild, the Duke of Fife, and the Marquis of Lorne. But the only contribution to it which they really made consisted of letters of regret that they could not be present. Regret was also expressed at the death of Gen. Walker, and the only person of note who is mentioned as having been actually present in the flesh was the Mayor of Manchester. But there was a large attendance, chiefly of labor delegates, and much hope was expressed for the future, based on such significant facts as the polling by McKinley of 7,000,000 votes on a platform pledging him to promote international bimetallism. Lord Aldenham (Mr. Gibbs) suggested that the objects of the League would be gained if any "great commercial nation" would begin to "carry the matter through, even without England." Discussion like this will do good. The great danger in bimetallism lay in the idea that it was an economists' doctrine, which plain men could not understand and would have to accept on trust. But the bimetallists are making the whole subject as plain as a pikestaff.

The peculiar awkwardness of Mr. Chamberlain's situation, in view of the latest Transvaal disclosures, is of his own creating. If he had not been so sweeping in his denials, in his speech of February 13, 1896, he would not now have to appear to be doing such expert wriggling. He then affirmed: "To the best of my knowledge and belief, everybody—Mr. Rhodes, the Chartered Company, the Reform Committee of Johannesburg, the High Commissioner—were all equally ignorant of the intention or action of Dr. Jameson." Now it has appeared in evidence that Dr. Harris, Rhodes's agent, thought he had given Mr. Chamberlain to understand that Jameson's force would go in under certain circumstances. He would not swear to this, in the face of Mr. Chamberlain's recollecting nothing about it, but that was his impression. What he was sure of was that he had spoken plainly of the scheme to Mr. Fairfield, Mr. Chamberlain's confidential clerk at the Colonial Office. But Mr. Chamberlain has two defences: in the first place, Fairfield is now dead; in the second, he was, while living, very deaf, and might not have understood what Dr. Harris said. Chamberlain put this point delicately to Dr. Harris. Did he know that Mr. Fairfield was deaf? Yes, he knew it, but he thought he understood what was said well enough. But the defence is impregnable: Fairfield was deaf; even if he heard he said nothing to me; even if he did he is dead and cannot be brought here to contradict me.

The bill attacking the right of public meeting and association which the German Emperor has been trying to wring from a reluctant Parliament, is inconceivably absolutist in terms. Personally, William has ample defence in the laws against lèse-majesté; over five hundred sentences for this offence were passed in Germany last year. But he wants a weapon against impersonal political discussion, and the bill which the Chancellor drew at his orders placed the right of public meeting and debate absolutely at the mercy of the police. It put a stigma upon all such meetings by prohibiting the presence at them of all persons under age. Any meeting could be dissolved in the discretion of the police; under the terms of the bill any kind of society, even a scientific or religious gathering, could be broken up if the policeman on duty thought anything said dangerous to morals, good order, or the Government. To subscribe to the funds of a society, any of whose public meetings had required to be interfered with, was made a penal offence. The only hope in case the bill passed (it has failed for the present) would be that some bold and faithful policeman would arrest the Emperor himself on the occasion of his next inflammatory speech. No public meetings in Germany can be so perilous to morals, good order, or the Government itself, as William's harangues to his soldiers and burgomasters. To be able to suppress his liberty, not to say license, of speech, the German people would endure much.

The Austrian lower house was closed on June 2 by the Emperor, and sent about its business; this course having been rendered necessary by constant scenes of disorder. The origin of the trouble was connected with the introduction of Czech as an official language in Bohemia. The announcement of this by the Government led a month since to a motion to impeach Count Badeni, the Premier, then to obstruction, followed by a riot, in which desks were overturned, inkstands smashed, books flung in speakers' faces, and coarse invectives, and finally blows, exchanged. Count Badeni, in proroguing the House, pointed out that such scenes tend to "undermine the foundations of parliamentary institutions." There is no doubt of that, and a very good way to recall the fact to members of such a body is to disperse it. The Bohemian trouble goes very deep, and is in one respect like the Irish trouble with England. The Czechs are not of German race, and hate the German language, laws, and customs. There is a regular Czech propaganda, which looks to the reërection of Bohemia into a kingdom, like Hungary, and its de-Teutonization. Prague, which, fifty years ago, was a German city, has become in our own time thoroughly Czech, and the victory of the language, now recognized by the Government, is almost fatal to German influence. The quarrel is one of those race quarrels of which the political life of the Austrian empire is in great part made up, fought out, from generation to generation, with a ferocity and tenacity strangely contrasted with the amicable sinking of race disputes in a new nationality which we constantly witness on this side of the water. It is, of course, partly a labor quarrel, and rages in the lowest strata of the population as well as in Parliament. It is so hard to get a living in Europe that most quarrels there connected with the struggle for existence are more bitter than with us.

A UNIQUE MUSEUM.

The city of Philadelphia is the right place to start a movement for the promotion of foreign trade, and President McKinley is the right man to inaugurate it, and this is the right time to begin it. The time, man, and place came together on Wednesday of last week when a new Commercial Museum was opened with appropriate ceremonies in the City of Brotherly Love. This museum is of a comprehensive type. It collects samples of the raw products and materials of industry in all countries and keeps them on exhibition for buyers. It does the same with respect to manufactured goods so far as practicable. The prospectus tells us that it has a bureau of information whose object is

"to reach out through its agents into all foreign countries, and bring together a mass of commercial information which shall be carefully indexed, systematized, and given out, through proper sources, to trades organizations, manufacturers, and commercial individuals throughout this and foreign countries. The bureau of information is supported by a commercial library, which receives publications from the different departments of foreign governments, from trades organizations, and from the representative industries; also by the consular services of different countries, by publications and special reports from foreign chambers of commerce, as well as the answers to well-directed inquiries sent out to appointed agents doing business in foreign countries."

The museum has an advisory board, also, consisting of representatives of twenty-five boards of trade and chambers of commerce in the United States, and over forty chambers of commerce in other American republics.

This may be called a world-embracing scheme, for although particularly designed to promote commercial relations with South America, it does not overlook the countries of the Old World. President McKinley performed an obvious and patriotic duty in going to Philadelphia and lending his countenance to the inauguration of this enterprise. His speech, indeed, showed defective knowledge touching the essential elements of trade, but these deficiencies were admirably supplied by the Minister of Brazil, who followed him. Mr. McKinley brought out strongly the fact that in order to sell goods you must have a buyer. This elementary truth is naturally joined to others equally striking, which the President set forth in the following manner:

"My fellow-citizens, there is no motive to make a product if you can't find somebody to take it. The maker must find the taker. You will not employ labor to make a product unless you can find a buyer for that product after labor has made it. Gentlemen, I am glad to meet representatives of the American republics here to-night. I am glad to meet representatives of the governments of all the world here to-night. I have met the manufacturers of Philadelphia and the State of Pennsylvania before. I met you in the days of your highest prosperity. I cannot avoid meeting you if I would, and I would not if I could, in this your hour of somewhat prolonged adversity.

"But let me tell you, my countrymen, that resuscitation will not be promoted by recrimination. The distrust of the present will not be removed by a distrust of the future. A patriot makes a better citizen than a pessimist, and we have got to be patient, for much as we may want to move out of the old house, we cannot do it until the new one is finished. A tariff law half made is of no practical use except to indicate that in a little while a whole tariff law will be done, and it is making progress. It is reaching the end, and when the end comes we will [shall] have business confidence and industrial activity. Let us keep stout hearts and steady heads, and the country is not going backwards, but forwards."

Now it happens that two of the largest exported raw products and materials of the South American countries are wool and hides. It happens, too, that these are now free of duty in our ports, and that the pending tariff bill imposes the highest duties that have ever been known on the former, and that it subjects the latter to tariff taxation for the first time in twenty-five years. These facts could not have been absent from President McKinley's mind, since wool is the "keystone of the arch," while hides are not much inferior in importance. Yet he made no mention of them. Minister Mendonça of Brazil was not so reticent. He said that the inauguration of this museum was based upon the community of interests of the republics of North, South, and Central America, and that the representatives of the museum selected from American chambers of commerce were here to promote the same. How? By going to Washington "to plead our common cause under the dome of the capitol." In other words, they were doing or were about to do the very opposite thing to what Mr. McKinley prefigured as the requisite of prosperity. These gentlemen were undoubtedly intending to urge Congress not to pass a bill putting new and onerous duties on wool, hides and skins, nitrates, fibres, oranges, and other products of the countries whose trade the museum wishes to secure. There was apparently a touch of sarcasm in the tone of Mr. Mendonça's discourse. Indeed, he must have been strangely lacking in the sense of humor if it were not so. But eventually he came down to sober facts and used plain language, thus:

"Resuming, your commissioners must have added that, without free raw materials stipulated in treaties of commerce for a number of years necessary to give stability to trade, no reciprocity arrangements can be made, as coercion will not coerce independent nations. All this your manufacturers and merchants must have said, and I thank them on behalf of my colleagues for their hypothetic sympathy. If my surmise is not right, then your plan is wrong, and the opening to-day of your temple of industry will be equivalent to the opening of the temple of Janus, the Roman god of two faces, the doors of which were kept closed in times of peace and only opened as a sign of war."

The whole affair would have been a solemn mockery without this speech of the Brazilian Minister, for it would have implied that nobody engaged in the ceremony was able to perceive the incongruity of opening a museum to promote commerce with South America and at the same time promoting a tariff whose avowed aim is to exclude the products of those countries from our ports.

CONGRESS, PRESIDENT, AND BUSINESS MEN.

"The tariff, money, economy of expenditures must be arranged fairly and promptly if we are to find contentment or prosperity." This remark by Mr. John Wanamaker, in his interview in the *Herald*, reaffirming his speech of May 14 before the Philadelphia Bourse, undoubtedly expresses the hard business sense of the country. Whatever of exasperation or of despair there may be in it springs from the general feeling that things are going sadly wrong at Washington. Mr. Wanamaker is suspected of being the "pessimist," in eloquent contrast with whom Mr. McKinley set "the patriot" in his address at Philadelphia. But, to imitate the President's fondness for alliteration, we may say that facts are stronger than fustian. What are the facts? What is Congress, what is the President, doing to pass a tariff that will produce adequate revenue, to reform the currency, to keep down extravagance?

Taking the last item first, we have to note the fact that on Friday Mr. McKinley signed the sundry civil bill. This was practically the same bill, appropriating upwards of $53,000,000, that Mr. Cleveland refused to sign, in the last hours of his Presidency, on the ground that it was stuffed with jobs and swollen with needless appropriations. To justify himself he had only to refer to the confession of the Republican chairman of the committee on appropriations, that "the appropriations are, in my judgment, in excess of the legitimate demands of the public service." But Mr. Cannon expressed at the same time his pious hope that "the incoming President" would help Congress keep "our public expenditures within the sum of our public revenues." This did not seem altogether a joke when the incoming President's inaugural address declared that

"Economy is demanded in every branch of the Government at all times, but especially in periods like the present of depression in business and distress among the people. The severest economy must be observed in all public expenditures, and extravagance stopped wherever it is found, and prevented wherever in the future it may be developed. If the revenues are to remain as now, the only relief that can come must be from decreased expenditures."

This was on March 4; on June 4, the sternly economical Executive quietly signs a spendthrift, log-rolled bill, which his predecessor killed, and which his own party leaders and press have denounced as indefensibly extravagant. This surrender to Congress was really foreshadowed, not only in Mr. McKinley's whole career, but in the express words of his inaugural denying "sym-

pathy" to those who thought Congress in session a source of uneasiness to the country. That was practically an invitation to Congress to raid the President, which it has not been slow to do. It has now found out that he will sign any kind of money bill it sends him. If had before found out that he had determined to turn over his power of appointment to Congress. For a time he begged off in the matter of consuls; those he must hold back in order to keep members of the House in Washington ready to vote on the tariff. But Congressmen were inexorable, and so on Saturday the first batch of consuls went in. The notification to business men is thus complete that the bulwark against a headstrong and reckless Congress which they once thought they had in the President, now fails them.

What has the Administration done to fulfil its pledge to reform the currency? Well, the good part of its pledge it has confined to mere soft words; the mischief-making part it has translated into speedy action. Who would have thought last November, when the country was agonizing to save the gold standard by electing McKinley, that within three months of his inauguration he would be toasted at a banquet in Paris as "the greatest bimetallist of the age"? That is what his roving bimetallic commissioners have done for him. They have gone abroad presumably without any definite proposition to make,—certainly without any that they have any right or power to make. They are making themselves and the country ridiculous, with their dinners and interviews and boxes at the races; while every official who receives them hastens to say that he was pleased to meet them, but that he wanted it understood he had promised them nothing. This is what has been done, and all that has been done, in the interest of currency reform by a President elected mainly on that issue. Action looking to further bedevilling the currency is only partially offset by Secretary Gage's hopeful words about what is going to be done when the tariff is out of the way, and when Congress suddenly becomes patriotic and businesslike.

As for congressional action on the tariff, that may truly be said to have become the nightmare of the business world. On this point Mr. Wanamaker speaks the thoughts of many hearts when he says:

> "We ought to have a new, a better tariff; but if we cannot get it let us settle down on the old one and adjust ourselves to it as best we can. If we cannot move out of the old house, we might build a wing to it or add another story. Far better that than vexing uncertainties. A Republican House has been in session since last December, and its riddled bill still tosses about at the other end of the capitol."

This is a plain hint that the Wilson tariff, with a few revenue duties added, if necessary, to take the place of the income tax, would be welcomed by business men as a happy release from the fierce and scandalous strife at Washington between bills, neither of which promises to bring in sufficient revenue. To this complexion, then, have we come after three months. Congress has afresh demonstrated its incapacity to deal with large finance in a large way. Even the tariff bill, which was to have passed with all certainty by May 1, is dragging itself along with no end in sight, and the end, when it does come, promising to be a catastrophe. Business men despair of any good thing coming out of Congress. Their despair is not lightened by their perception that the President has no will against that of Congress.

THE BOGUS AMERICAN.

According to a Washington dispatch, negotiations are going on between this country and Spain for a new naturalization treaty. Such a treaty would do a great deal to allay one constant cause of trouble between the two countries—the existence under the present system of a body of so-called naturalized American citizens, who are really Cubans by birth and residence, but who take out mock naturalization papers in order to get protection from the United States when they foment disturbances against their own government or get into trouble of any kind. This fraud is resorted to, of course, all over the world, and most of our existing treaties with foreign nations may be said to favor it; it produces most serious difficulty in our relations with Spain, because of the chronic Cuban outbreaks.

Two great causes which have combined to make the international questions surrounding citizenship in modern times so difficult are the increased facility of locomotion, and the bodily transfer within fifty years of an enormous European population to the United States. Before the period of this great migration, the whole matter was comparatively simple. Citizenship depended upon nativity, that is, blood, and could never be renounced or abandoned. The origin of this doctrine we can easily trace back to the Middle Ages, before the modern world existed, and still further to Rome. When the barbarians conquered Europe, and created the modern territorial nationalities, there was no doctrine better fitted to commend itself to them than that of "once a citizen, always a citizen." It suited the European ideas of the military tie, and the fancy of the blood-relationship among all members of the same state, which was sedulously cultivated by communities ignorant of the fact that it was really a badge of barbarian tribal superstition. The English lawyers have clung with great tenacity even to our day to the doctrine that "no one can strip himself of his country."

The appearance of the American state in the field, with an invitation to all the world to settle within its borders, abandon their own countries, and obtain a new nationality, was fatal to this theory, and our growing strength and determination to protect our citizens abroad, of whatever origin, compelled a gradual abandonment of the old European view of the subject. It was not, however, until nearly thirty years since that we succeeded in getting European countries to formally ratify our view by means of treaties. A series of conventions made in the years following the close of the war established for ever the modern doctrine, long contended for single-handed by this country, that every man, no matter where born, may adopt his country, renounce his allegiance to that of his birth, and acquire all the rights of a native-born citizen. Belgium, Baden, Bavaria, Hesse, Würtemberg, and the North German Union in 1868, Sweden and Norway in 1869, Austria-Hungary in 1870, and Great Britain in 1870 and 1871, all adopted with us a reciprocal rule of citizenship by which the citizens of either country could become naturalized in the other, either by complying with the naturalization laws only, or by a residence of five years added to this. The difference is for practical purposes not very material. These treaties record one of the great advances in human liberty secured by this country.

But, like many other such advances, it is attended with dangers. If it were possible to obtain naturalization at will in any country without regard to either birth or residence, a man might be a citizen in half-a-dozen different countries, accepting the protection and repudiating the burdens of citizenship in all in turn—a veritable "man without a country" and citizen of the world at one and the same time. Although not yet attempted to this grotesque extent, this is exactly the scheme of the bogus American of to-day. He is a citizen of two countries, and he serves neither. He actually lives in the country of his origin. So long as he is asked no questions he passes for what he is—a German, or a Frenchman, or an Italian, or a Cuban. But the moment he is required to serve in the army, or be punished as an anarchist or revolutionist, he boldly shouts, "Civis Americanus sum," and triumphantly produces his "papers." We have recently heard of a case where one of these gentry went to the American Minister, showed him two sets of papers, one American and one foreign, and asked him which he had better use. Three-quarters of the Cuban patriots who make such a noise in the newspapers are of this sort. Their names are Spanish, their birth is Spanish, and their residence is Spanish; but they carry about with them documents proving that at some time or other they took out naturalization papers in a

country to which they render no service, and which they use these papers to drag into foreign quarrels.

The difficulty arises evidently from the fact that the treaties treat the whole subject as if, after a new naturalization is acquired, the subsequent behavior or change of residence of the citizen made no difference whatever. In only one treaty, that made with Ecuador in 1872, is this subject touched. Its provisions are:

"Art. 2. If a naturalized citizen of either country shall renew his residence in that where he was born, without an intention of returning to that where he was naturalized, he shall be held to have reassumed the obligations of his original citizenship, and to have renounced that which he had obtained by naturalization.

"Art. 3. A residence of more than two years in the native country of a naturalized citizen shall be construed as an intention on his part to stay there without returning to that where he was naturalized. This presumption, however, may be rebutted by evidence to the contrary."

This treaty furnishes a key to the solution of the trouble. The moment the point is stated, any one can see it. The obligations of a citizen and his government are reciprocal, and citizenship without continuous residence makes a farce of the whole thing, because without jurisdiction of the person a government cannot make a citizen perform military service, or, in many cases, pay taxes, or perform jury duty, or even obey the process of its courts. To be a citizen without these liabilities is like drawing dividends from a corporation without contributing to the capital. Bona-fide residence is almost invariably, in modern times, the real test of citizenship for all, and, having abandoned the old test, we must enforce this new one, or we shall fill the world with bogus Americans, a class little better than common swindlers, but whose operations are full of danger to both the countries cheated. There are, of course, exceptions. Public employment and other considerations make it necessary that there should always be a certain number of citizens living abroad, yet entitled to preserve their citizenship. The treaty quoted provides for this by declaring that even long-continued change of residence shall not be conclusive.

THE EXPERT IN COURT.

Last year the scandalous Fleming trial attracted a great deal of attention to the subject of expert medical testimony. The homœopaths have since taken the matter up, and have, with the aid of some well-known members of the bar, prepared a bill on the subject. The matter is one which presents many difficulties, but it is a great thing that a genuine effort is to be made to obtain legislation. As the proposed measure has been sent to us for criticism, we have examined it with some care. The idea on which it is based we believe to be perfectly sound, and, in fact, to be the only view of the subject on which legislation can be successfully based. That idea is that the expert witnesses on the trial of indictments must be all judicially selected witnesses, and not depend for their remuneration upon either one side or the other. This object the bill effects by requiring the court, on application, to appoint from three to five experts from a judicially prepared list. They are to be properly qualified, and, "in special and extraordinary cases," diplomas obtained elsewhere than in New York may qualify them. On their appearance, they are to be sworn and examined by the court, and also by the counsel, if desired, upon their medical qualification and impartiality; and those who are not excluded are to be appointed as a commission of experts in the action.

Every expert witness is to make an oath or affirmation that he has not talked about the case to any one except the other expert witnesses, and,

"in case I have made or participated in any scientific experiments, or physical, or mental examination preparatory to testifying herein, that I have not knowingly given to any person other than said experts any information or intimation as to the results of such experiment or examination; and if in such experiment or examination I have required the assistance of any other person, that no person having any interest in or connection with this action, directly or indirectly, has in any manner participated therein, to the best of my knowledge and belief."

An expert witness is to receive such compensation as the court prescribes in the order of appointment, not less than $10 nor more than $100 a day, with the mileage paid to all witnesses. All rights of examination and cross-examination are preserved, but

"if, upon preliminary cross-examination at the trial with reference to his qualifications, it shall appear that any such witness has, either before or after his appointment, expressed an opinion as to the merits of said action, or as to the matters concerning which he proposes to testify, to any person other than the other expert witnesses appointed by the court in such action, or has knowingly given to any person other than said experts any information or intimation as to the nature of his opinion or testimony or as to the opinion or testimony of either of such experts, or as to the results of any scientific experiment or examination which he or either of such experts may have made or participated in to prepare himself for testifying in said action, his appointment shall forthwith be revoked, and he shall be allowed no compensation as an expert in said action; provided, that he shall not thereby be prevented from testifying as a witness."

The bill is said to be based on a measure introduced into the Minnesota Legislature. It does not provide for experts in civil cases. The committee which has drafted it says that one of the worst stumbling-blocks is presented by the constitutional right to call any desired witness, in addition to the experts provided for by the bill. But it was thought that if a court were authorized to appoint a fixed number of expert witnesses, they would be unprejudiced, and the effect of their evidence would probably outweigh any partisan expert testimony that might be offered.

We are inclined to think that the committee is mistaken, not in this prediction, but in making the suggestion that the right to call other witnesses should be regarded as a stumbling-block. No doubt it would shorten trials to limit the number of witnesses, but the testimony of state experts would lose much of its weight if they alone were allowed to testify. An expert's weight with a juryman, as with any one else, comes from his impartiality and his reputation, and the fact that the matters as to which he testifies are matters about which the testimony of only such as he is worth anything. If two or three perfectly impartial chemists testify that a human stomach is found to contain a quantity of poison amply sufficient to produce death, the testimony of two or three other hirelings for the defence that it does not, would probably strengthen the impression produced by the judicial testimony. On the other hand, if the defence were precluded from calling additional witnesses, juries would probably often acquit because such a rule would violate the natural sense of justice. That a man tried for his life should be prevented by an iron-clad rule from producing any testimony he pleases that is not plainly a waste of time, would be manifestly oppressive. It is for this reason that the constitutional right exists.

The provisions of the bill requiring proof that the expert has not talked about his testimony, or his scientific preparations to testify, or the case, we look upon as a serious defect. It would wholly exclude the most enlightened and intelligent class of experts. When such a case arises as the Fleming trial, all scientific men whose opinion is worth having talk about it, and express opinions about it, just as intelligent lawyers and laymen do. Such conversations and opinions do not necessarily disqualify them or render them biassed. If they have formed an opinion which cannot be changed by evidence, then they are unfit; but the more intelligent and capable they are, the less likely are they to be governed by preconceptions. These provisions seem to be based on the idea that an expert witness is a juryman. But, as appears by the bill itself, he is not anything of the kind. He is merely a higher kind of witness. An ordinary witness testifies to simple facts —"I saw this," "I heard that," etc. An expert witness testifies mainly to matters of opinion, inference, and special experience—"This signature is in the defendant's handwriting," "This man died of tetanus," etc. But a witness, though he may be cross-examined as to what he has said about the case, to test his veracity, is not disqualified by having talked or expressed opinions about it. In fact it is usually because he has done both that he is summoned as a witness.

It is bad enough to have jurymen disqualified by merely talking or expressing opinions, but in their case there is at least the ground for the rule that they are triers. But witnesses are not triers.

These provisions would defeat the end of the bill, and why they have been introduced we do not know.

MR. BALFOUR'S PROMISE TO IRELAND.

DUBLIN, May 28, 1897.

One strong argument for home rule for Ireland is the failure of British parties when in power to carry out their professions concerning that country when out of or entering on office—"Castle rule to be abolished," "simultaneity to be established"; thus and otherwise "home rule to be killed with kindness." But years pass over and nothing is accomplished, and, as in the lines quoted from Coleridge by Mr. Morley in this connection:

"Idle hope
And dire remembrance interlope
To vex the feverish slumbers of the mind;
The bubble floats before, the spectre stalks behind."

At the beginning of this year we were promised at least an efficient board for the advancement and encouragement of agriculture. Government having thus oiled the wheels of the legislative machine through the early days of the session, the scheme was introduced by the Chief Secretary for Ireland, Mr. Gerald Balfour, a few weeks ago. It was received with contempt by the Nationalist members, with no special favor by any party, and has been withdrawn. The session will close without any important legislation being passed for Ireland. Not only so, but Government had, despite the protests of many of its own supporters, steadily refused to grant Ireland those subventions in relief of the agricultural interests which had been extended to Great Britain, and which, if conceded to Ireland in the same proportion as to Great Britain, would amount to about £700,000 per annum.

The policy of such subventions from imperial funds—a policy increasingly followed of late years—appears to many most objectionable. It tends to lessen responsibility and incentives to economy in the management of local affairs, and to encourage administrative extravagance and an unmanning dependence on centralized authority. It were better, on every account, if the Chancellor of the Exchequer allowed taxpayers to keep more for their own and local affairs, instead of which he extorts from all to give back to some. This course, pursued as it has latterly been, will lead, though by a different road, to demoralizing results similar to those which flow from the protective tariffs of other countries. But this is beside the present question. Ireland is entitled to her proportionate share of such subventions while they are going. Nothing has been accomplished for Ireland. Her share of the agricultural relief subvention had been refused; and a new commission is to be appointed to overhaul and depreciate the decision arrived at by eleven out of thirteen of the members of a royal commission, which decided that Ireland is overtaxed to at least the extent of £2,750,000 per annum.

Under these circumstances, Mr. Arthur Balfour, this day week, in withdrawing his brother's agricultural board bill, made a statement that has since given Irish politicians enough to think and talk about. Acknowledging "that both the machinery for administering county government and the poor-law in Ireland belong to a class of political machinery which we have rejected both in England and Scotland," and that "the party, or a great majority of the party, to which I belong have long pledged themselves to reform in Ireland," he declared that next session "we propose to place both the poor-law administration and the county administration upon a broad, popular basis." The difficulty, in his view, as to such reform hitherto has been that "the circumstances of Ireland are such that if you were to leave the incidence of rates in Ireland where they are, and simply to extend local government on the model of England and Scotland, you would necessarily cause much and possibly just alarm in the breasts of all those who are associated with the system of the land laws." This difficulty he proposes to surmount by applying the Irish proportion of the agricultural relief subvention so as largely to relieve the landlords from the possible results of the extravagance or misrule of popularly elected local bodies.

At present the landlords pay half the poor-rate. They are in country districts (not in towns) to be relieved by Government of this charge, amounting to some £250,000 per annum. The tenants, on the other hand, are to be relieved of half the cost of making and repairing roads (and other necessary county work), known as "county cess," equivalent to about £400,000 per annum. On lands in their own occupation the landlords will reap some £50,000 per annum on the same account. Upon the whole, therefore, the landlords, numbering perhaps 50,000, will gain by the arrangement £300,000 per annum, and the tenants, numbering 500,000, £400,000 per annum. Seeing that 300 landlords own one-third of the country, a considerable bribe is offered to that number of persons, the most influential leaders of the Unionist party in Ireland, to fall in with the arrangement. It is understood that these proportions are to be fixed payments on the basis of present poor-rate and county cess; that in so far as the rates to be levied by popular bodies exceed or fall below present amounts, the additional burden will devolve upon, or increased economy will benefit, the mass of the rate-payers. The proportion of lands held by landlords in their own occupation is so small that they are not likely to be materially affected by the incidence of local taxation. We are about to have applied another of those curious and complicated arrangements which already enmesh almost every relation of life in Ireland, by which it is sought to control, safeguard, or circumvent the free flow and influence of public opinion.

Mr. Arthur Balfour made his statement in sympathetic terms, and all parties for the moment appeared pleased. The Government, by endorsing this heavy bill at nine months, escapes the odium of past defalcations. The Unionists believe the Home-Rulers are dished. The Home-Rulers regard county government as but a step to home rule. The tenants are pleased at the prospect of being relieved of £400,000 a year, and of having the government of the counties in their own hands. The landlords appear delighted. "After all," humorously suggests Mr. Davitt, "the settlement of the home-rule question is but a sum in proportion: If £300,000 reconciles the Irish Unionists to county government, what sum will it take to reconcile them to national government?"

Among the thoughtful there is satisfaction but no enthusiasm. This promise will not affect, as perhaps Mr. Balfour hoped it might, Irish indifference to the Diamond Jubilee. County government has long been promised. This £700,000 is due since last year. Irishmen practically agree that £2,750,000 per annum is further owing on the over-taxation account. Besides, our experiences of ministerial promises do not encourage confidence. Ministers are not altogether free agents. They have to consider their own supporters; and among the supporters of the present ministry the Irish ascendancy party, always bent upon whittling down Irish popular reforms, is perhaps the most powerful section. They have to deal with the House of Lords. They are dependent upon British opinion, notoriously fickle in relation to Irish affairs. Promises as positive concerning the establishment of local government were made by the Conservative ministry in 1886; made but to be broken by Mr. Balfour, concerning the administration of the coercion act in 1887; made but to be broken by him concerning the establishment of a Catholic University in 1889. It behooves us to bear in mind *Polonius's* advice: "Reserve thy judgment." In this spirit the Irish parliamentary party has passed a series of resolutions. They reiterate their conviction that home rule is the only satisfactory policy. They claim for Ireland equal rights with Great Britain in the management of local affairs; they "note with satisfaction that the ministerial statement seems to foreshadow such a measure"; they regard the promised money grant as "a simple act of justice which cannot affect the still unsettled question of overtaxation"; and finally declare: "In view and because we believe it is for the interest of the Irish rural masses to buy even at a great price their local freedom, we are ready to meet in a fair and liberal spirit pecuniary proposals which, we are bound to declare, will, in our opinion, transfer to the landlords an entirely disproportionate share of relief."

One tendency of the proposed scheme is clearly objectionable. It would lessen the responsibilities and still further isolate the position of the landlord class, on whose hearty coöperation and sympathy with the people so much of the happiness of Ireland depends, until peasant proprietary becomes the rule instead of the exception. D. B.

THE TWO SALONS.

PARIS, May, 1897.

I think it is in the preface to the second edition of 'Modern Painters' that Mr. Ruskin, saying a great deal with which I cannot agree, gives utterance to a truth that helps one to understand the failure of the Paris Salons: a failure, year by year, destined to grow more apparent. "The skill of the artist and the perfection of his art are never proved until both are forgotten"—here you have the clue to a problem otherwise so inexplicable. For, as you walk through the interminable galleries at the Champs-Élysées and the Champ de Mars, your wonder is that, though on every side is overwhelming evidence of skill, there should be few pictures with power to interest or

impress you; while, as a fact, it is the very evidence of skill that is the reason of your indifference. In the London gallery you may be irritated by the clumsiness or sheer ignorance of the craftsman, but in Paris there is no denying his ability, his knowledge, his facility. And the greater the cleverness of the painter, the more you miss the inspiration of the artist. The trouble is that, to-day, every one paints.

It is inevitable that this array of useless skill should be more keenly felt at the Champs-Élysées, where it does not lead even to experiment: the gay adventurer is at least amusing. I had heard that, because already the destruction of the Palais de l'Industrie had begun, there were fewer rooms opened than usual. But, though I found a change in the general arrangement, the number of pictures seemed to me no less appalling. And the average of excellence, I must admit, is as high. For scholarly drawing and technique, where indeed are men to excel Bouguereau and Bonnat, and Benjamin Constant, and Jean Paul Laurens? And where pictures that make less appeal to those special emotions which it is within the province of art to arouse? I do not know that, with Mr. Ruskin, I should test the greatness of a painting by the readiness of its admirers to turn from it with the praise of God in their hearts. But there is a pleasure which it is the function of the artist to give—the pleasure that we feel when we look at the portraits of Velasquez, the golden myths of Titian, the pastorals of Corot. Before the conventional frigidities of the Salons, however, we are quite passive.

Take this year's canvas by M. Laurens as a typical example, "Le Lauraguais," and you could not have a better for the purpose. It is a huge landscape, and is intended, I suppose, to decorate some state or municipal building. You see it at once as you go in the first large room; there before you stretch broad fields, brown and furrowed where the ploughs, drawn by great oxen, have passed across them; in the middle distance a low dip of green and line of willows show where a stream flows; and beyond, rise gently sloping downs, bare save where one tree throws a cool dark shadow. It is just such a scene as you have looked upon often from the window of the railway carriage on your journey through France, though in the painting the peasants wear an unfamiliar mediæval dress; and it is so like nature that you could fancy yourself stepping straight into the fields to meet the oxen—as real, in its way, as the coins Rembrandt's pupils painted on the floor of the studio, as the curtain that Apelles—was it not?—was asked to draw back that his picture might be seen. But of the poetry, the romance, the mystery that Nature holds in abundance for the artist there is not a suggestion; not a trace of the beauty into which he should convert the crudities of actual fact. You might as well hope to decorate your walls with that view from the carriage window, could it be transported bodily, as with this quite marvellously painted facsimile. It is a relief to leave it for the small, quiet, low-toned landscapes by Pointelin—impressions as sad and haunting as certain descriptive lines by Verlaine. M. Pointelin and M. Fantin-Latour, M. Harpignies and M. Français again, as so often before, are the men who make the old Salon worth the fatigue of a visit; and, in a lesser degree, M. Henner and M. Henri Martin. The canvases of several of the American exhibitors, too, Mr. Picknell's landscape, Mr. Bridgman's marine, Mr. Loeb's portrait, are serious and workmanlike, though I had to regret the absence of Mr. MacEwen and Mr. Bisbing.

I am not sure that there is not as much wasted cleverness, as much ill-directed skill at the Champ de Mars. But here it is less stolidly conventional, more daringly independent; here the Romanticist's doctrine of individuality survives in a measure—the man who has no individuality of his own to cultivate, borrowing his neighbor's in preference to the worn-out academic formulas against which Romanticism was the protest. Unfortunately this does not mean that the independent understands better than the conservative the art of making a picture. "If your subject is only a pigsty, dignify it," was Crome's counsel to his son. But the dignity, or whatever you may choose to call that which marks the difference between the work of genius and the accomplished painting, is of all qualities the most elusive. There are painters in the new Salon who fail, as M. Laurens fails, from excess of realism, from the fidelity with which they copy nature. I was fairly blinded by a wide expanse of blue sea by M. Montenard, and a picture was meant to please, not to hurt the eyes. I have never in the flesh seen peasants as coarse, as brutal, as revolting in their "joys" as those who disport themselves lifesize in M. Fourié's "Poèmes des Champs"—there is irony in the title! I have brought away with me a dreadful memory of an arrangement of hands—the most difficult things in the world to paint—hideous, vulgar, repulsive hands all lifted upward to grasp I know not what, for I had not the courage to wait and puzzle out the allegory. Even M. Tissot has allowed religious zeal to do away with all sense of proportion, and in showing on a colossal canvas the reception given to the Pope's Legate by the Patriarch of Jerusalem, he has respectfully given every ecclesiastical detail at the sacrifice of the decorative stateliness and splendor that alone could warrant so bold a venture in paint. Think of what Veronese would have made of such a ceremonial! But, perhaps, nowhere is one as much disappointed by the lack of just the "little more" which means everything, as in a portrait group by M. Simon. It is, without question, one of the strongest pictures in the collection. The gray-haired mother and her five children, gathered together in their own sitting-room, are arranged with not a little of the simple straightforwardness of the old Dutch Regent pictures, and are painted with much vigor and fluency. But one thinks of that saying of Crome's—Whatever your subject, dignify it. Nowadays, when the camera can supply us with the accurate likeness, pictorial dignity is all the more to be insisted upon from the portrait painter.

I have taken these few examples to illustrate the general character of the collection. They are selected at random. The work of Cottet, of Thaulow, of Helleu, among many, would have served me as well. But, of course, there are exceptions here, as at the Champs-Élysées—exceptions that are both more numerous and more interesting in themselves. The tender, melancholy landscapes by M. Cazin and M. Billotte vary little with the years, but they are always restful, always so peaceful and serene that one would as soon complain of the daily recurrence of twilight as of their monotony. Nor do the gray towns and streets of M. Raffaëlli lose their charm with repetition. The portraits are many and admirable, from M. Boldini's sprightly vivacious "M. le Comte Robert de Montesquiou," all in gray and gazing fondly on the lapis-lazuli handle of his cane—the same elegant person Mr. Whistler painted a year or two ago—to M. Blanche's more staid but no less successful family group; from M. Besnard's problems of light to M. Aman-Jean's decorative fantasies; mere reëchoes these of his earlier designs, and fainter, feebler, one cannot but feel, as many an echo proves. In one, a triptych, the woman he has so frequently painted fills the central panel, a lake curving and glades opening in beautiful lines behind her, while on either side are figures of Poetry and Beauty; but the Beauty, thin as Botticelli's Venus, is clumsy in form, her face deliberately ugly—a challenge, as it were—and the attendant peacocks press against her with the awkward heaviness of stuffed birds. Mannerisms have developed into affectations, for the moment; the old source of inspiration seems to have run dry. Mr. Whistler, Mr. Sargent, and Mr. Dannat are not represented. But Mr. Alexander shows several characteristic portraits of women, one, which he calls "Peonies," a very beautiful arrangement of a delightfully painted figured green gown and a great bowl of rose-colored blossoms. He has also attempted a more elaborate composition in his "Isabella with the Pot of Basil"; and if the literary demands of the subject seem to have bewildered him, in this he has many great men to keep him company. Mr. Humphreys Johnston's portrait is another to be noted, though his finest work this spring is to be seen in his sympathetic poetic studies of the long, clear nights and the strange dawns and twilights of a northern summer. The tenderness with which he has rendered the subtlest tones of the fjord is a contrast, indeed, to the violence—the first outbreak, and, I hope, the last—of Mr. Alexander Harrison in his records of fiery sunset and garish light, which, if actually seen by him, should have been discreetly forgotten. I ought, at least, to mention that Mr. Guthrie and Mr. Walton do credit to the Glasgow School, their portraits calling for a more detailed description than is here possible. Were space not a consideration, I should also wish to speak of the contributions of M. Lhermitte, M. Zorn, and M. Gandara.

I have said nothing as yet of M. Carrière's "Crucifixion," which has little in common with the other pictures hung, but which to me is by far the most impressive, the most memorable. As a rule, in the religious subjects of the Salons, one recognizes the painter's bid for the *réclame* that M. Béraud made fashionable. But M. Carrière's choice you feel to be as genuine as that of the man who decorated the mediæval church and cloister. Again, there are times when the curious mist or haze with which M. Carrière envelops his compositions is distinctly annoying. I remember I was ready to consider it a tiresome trick, a morbid fancy, when I saw a collection of his work at the Salon de l'Art Nouveau. But nothing could be more appropriate to the tragedy he has now depicted. From out the vague shadows looms the

pale figure on the cross, the Man of Sorrows in his agony, and below, the poor martyred mother, hands clasped in her utter despair. All other detail is lost in the strange, mysterious atmosphere, but none other is needed; the treatment is as tragic as the theme. Contrast this with M. Bouguereau's "Crucifixion" in the Champs-Élysées, the Christ as neatly correct and frigid as the same artist's Venus into whom a little Cupid has just stuck a dexterous arrow.

I regret that the limits of an article prevent my writing of the sculpture at length, for the Champ de Mars contains fine examples of M. Rodin—above all, a group of "Love and Psyche" that is proof of how much emotion, how much passion really can be expressed by beauty of form, by exquisiteness of design; and also a detail of a monument to the dead by M. Bartholomé, and basreliefs by M. Meunier and M. Charpentier. While at the Champs-Élysées, you will find Mr. MacMonnies's gay, graceful fountain for Prospect Park and his doors for the Library at Washington, which, I think, must be seen in their place, and not isolated as in the court of the Palais de l'Industrie, before one can judge of their effect. M. Frémiet, I am afraid, in seeking inspiration in the Stone Age, has hampered himself with an unfamiliar and unsympathetic subject. But I like M. Falguière's eager poet mounted on Pegasus.

There is much good work among the drawings and prints. At the Champ de Mars a room has been set aside for M. Boutet de Monvel's illustrations. The lithographs by M. Lunois, M. Blanche, M. Carrière, M. Jeanniot, among others, point to the enormous interest now taken in the art of lithography and the variety of its technical resources. N. N.

Correspondence.

DEMOCRACY DISTRUSTING ITSELF.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The loss of faith in the people by the people has just been signally shown by the endorsement which the action of the recent constitutional convention of Delaware, in promulgating the new constitution, has received from the better people of the State.

In the 'American Commonwealth' (2d edition, vol. i., p. 418) Bryce says: "The invariable practice has been, since Kentucky adopted her constitution in 1792, for the convention elected by the voters to submit the draft constitution framed by it to the citizens of the State at large, who vote upon it yes or no." "In no State would the idea of allowing a convention to enact a constitution as a sovereign body be now entertained."

Bryce is in error in stating that the "invariable practice" has been to submit the draft constitution, for the expiring constitution of Delaware was promulgated in 1831. The striking and significant fact remains, however, that where a choice lay between government by an aristocracy (the constitutional government) and government by a democracy (the people voting upon the draft constitution), and when both the philosophy of constitutions and an almost invariable practice of conventions favored submission, the great majority of the better people gladly forewent their sovereignty and endorsed the act of the aristocracy in convention assembled in promulgating the constitution.

"I have profound faith in the people themselves," said an intelligent citizen of Dover, "but the people led by the politicians are a herd of wild beasts." The constitution is non-partisan, the constitution is good—altogether too good for the politician. Hence the promulgation. W. L. Gooding.

Dover, Del., June 5, 1897.

WANTED: A NEW PARTY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I was impressed by your editorial, "Issues in Search of a Party," as well as by the "feelers" put out by two or three of your correspondents lately with reference to a new party. But why are we content with mere talk instead of acting? Is there anything in the way of calling a convention to meet, say in September, of those who are tired of the present anomalous situation, and wish, as in the old days of '60, to have a definite list of issues on which they are united?

As the basis of such a list I take leave to suggest the following items in the order of their importance:

1. Civil-Service Reform.
2. Real Money.
3. Economical Government.
4. Low Tariff.

Is not the time as ripe for the birth of a party with ideas as it was in '54?

Respectfully yours, H. D. C.

Gouverneur, N. Y., June 5, 1897.

GREECE AND CRETE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have neither the time nor the disposition to enter into a controversy at length on the question of the conduct of the Greeks in regard to Crete, but I must insist, in any consideration of the question, on dividing sharply the Greek people from the demagogues who, for most of the time since I have known the country, have misgoverned it, and have now brought on it what, with a people of less character and tenacity, would be definitive and irretrievable ruin. With the Greek common people I have great sympathy, though it is impossible to conceal the fact that the form of government which has fallen to their lot is one which has proved a failure. It is necessary to have lived in Athens, and have followed the actions of the various ministries for the past twenty years, as I have been more or less obliged to, to be able to distinguish between what the nation is responsible for and what the politicians impose on it. Mr. Bikelas, as a patriotic Greek, may not be able to make the distinction, even now that he sees the ruin wrought on his country, but I think that the general public must now understand it. I will try to make it clearer.

But first let me reply to the impeachment of my statement that "not an inch of Greek territory has been won by Greek effort." The simple fact is, that Greece was so thoroughly conquered by the Sultan and his chief vassal, the Pasha of Egypt (who was a Turkish functionary), that Navarino was fought as the indirect consequence of the Powers determining to prevent the Sultan from carrying out his intention of deporting the Christian population of the Peloponnesus, and putting a Mussulman population in their place. If Mr. Bikelas would show on the map what part of Greece the Greeks held in secure possession at that moment, I should be wiser than I am. But my object in that statement was not to depreciate the great heroism and fortitude of the Greek people at that crisis, but to show that all that Greece has was given it by the action of the Christian Powers of Europe, and that Greece was, in fact, the creation of European diplomacy, and was, in fact, constituted as a nation by England, Russia, and France, with their guarantee as to frontiers and immunity from Turkish reconquest. Under these circumstances she should have considered herself under an obligation not to create embarrassments for the Powers to which she owed her existence.

The first addition to Greek territory, that of the Ionian Islands, was the gift of England; the next, Thessaly, that of the Powers collectively. In 1877-'78 a convention was concluded between the Czar and the King of Greece, which provided that if the Greek Army should cross the frontier before a certain period in the Russian march on Constantinople, the claims of Greece should be considered in the settlement and treaty of peace. At the appointed time not a regiment was ready to cross the frontier, and the Czar gave the King three months more, and at the expiration of this term nothing was ready, and Greece lost her chance. Seeing that Greece was coming off empty-handed, the "committees," as the unofficial action of the Government is styled, collected hastily a few hundred men and sent them into Epirus, landing them without order or resources at Aghia Saranda, opposite Corfu, where we happened to be staying at the time, and where they, with a few exceptions, had their throats cut by the Epirotes, without resistance or possibility of escape, for the steamers which landed them left them there helpless. From the island of Corfu one could with a glass see the slaughter. At a later period the Powers induced Turkey to yield Thessaly and a strip of Epirus according to the Treaty of Berlin as compensation to Greece for keeping quiet! In 1886 the late Prime Minister Delyanni made a great demonstration on the Macedonian frontier, just as he did last month, threatening invasion and conflagration if some concessions were not made to Greece. There was three days' fighting, and then the blockade of Piræus stopped the tragedy, which cost the lives of seven to ten thousand Greeks, mainly from the severity of the season and the absolute want of preparation for campaigning. When the fighting was stopped by Tricoupi, who had succeeded Delyanni, the Turkish general-in-chief had his orders to march on Athens if on another day the attacks of the Greeks were renewed. I was Tricoupi's negotiator during the semi-diplomatic negotiations which prevented the invasions, and the details will be found in the *Times* correspondence of April and May, 1886. I was, for that, insulted in the streets of Athens, because "I had prevented the Greeks from going to Constantinople." It was the pressure of the Powers which then prevented the Turks from invading Thessaly as they have now done, and then the country was even less prepared for war than now, and the Turkish Army would have been in Athens, in all probability, in a fortnight. Greece is therefore a Power not only created by the Powers, but protected by them, and has not all the moral or legal

rights, as Mr. Bikelas thinks, of an independent Power. Of this fact, as well as of the imbecility of his Government, he is probably now convinced. This is the record of the conquests of the Greek territory by Greek arms.

But if Greece desired to make war on Turkey for the liberation of the Greek populations in Crete or elsewhere, she had undoubtedly a way to do so, if she chose to accept the consequences of defiance of the Powers. But international law points out the legal course, which was to declare war on Turkey and send troops over to Crete to carry it on. This would have put the Powers in the alternative of interfering with the legal rights of Greece, in which case they would have had all the public opinion of Europe against them, or compelling Turkey to make some concession. The Greek violation of international law was in invading a so-called friendly state while pretending to maintain amicable relations. Turkey, being also a protected Power, was restrained by the Powers from declaring war on Greece until the invasion of Macedonia took place, when it was impossible to prevent that war without making war. The Delyanni ministry took the evasive and (internationally speaking) cowardly course of making war on the Sultan behind the protection of the Powers, hoping to escape the consequences. Tricoupi would have declared war, and sent the fleet straight to the Dardanelles, raised all the islands, and, no doubt, would have divided the Powers and secured the sympathy of liberal Europe. But he knew what international law was, and would have followed it, and I for one would have supported him.

Mr. Bikelas utterly misrepresents what I wrote about the "infamous treason" of Bulgaris in 1869. The offer of A'ali Pasha was of a principality with a Prince of the Cretans' own choosing, *and any other conditions* except nominal independence of the Sultan. The Greek Government naturally advised the rejection, and exerted all its moral pressure on the Cretans, through their families in refuge in Greece, and the Russian Government even declared that if they refused the offers of A'ali Pasha, they were certain of annexation to Greece. So far as the Greek Government (then under Comoundouros and Tricoupi) was concerned, this was perfectly correct, and it is sheer misrepresentation in Mr. Bikelas to travesty my statement as he does, for the term "infamous treason" was applied not to advising the Cretans to reject A'ali's propositions, but to the abandonment of the Cretans afterwards when it suited Russia to give Turkey a breathing space, and letting them go back to their former condition without a stipulation in their favor. The Greek Government did not "advise the Cretans to yield"—they simply withdrew all support, and deliberately suffocated the insurrection. This was the infamy, of which Russia and the Greek Government may divide the responsibility as they like. The Greek Government was responsible for the treachery, because Russia had no authority in the matter. The King dismissed the Comoundouros ministry, in violation of the Constitution, because Comoundouros would not obey Russia, and called Bulgaris to the Government because he *would*. Greece lost all the exertions made through three years to sustain the movement, and Crete lost everything. But even then Russia would have supported Crete if the Greeks had been content to let the insurrection which was preparing in the Balkans come under the control of Russia, *i. e.*, become a Slavic movement. Greece wanted to control everything, and Comoundouros refused the Russian help on the terms offered. It was very short-sighted policy, but the Greeks determined to go to Constantinople and lost everything. It was a mistaken policy, but honest; the treason was in the subsequent conduct of the Bulgaris ministry, and this Mr. Bikelas must have understood as my meaning, for he understands English.

I have a pile of correspondence on my desk from friends in Greece, and the tenor of it all is curses and charges of treason against the King and Delyanni, with proofs that the ministry never intended war and had made no real preparations for it. They hoped to frighten the Powers into getting some territory for Greece, and, as in 1886, waved the firebrand and threatened to set Europe in a flame, but they had neither prepared arms, tents, food, nor ammunition for a serious campaign, and the commands were given to get *kudos* for the King, the Crown Prince, and Delyanni. The people took it in earnest, paid for it in their blood, and now they curse the authors of the disaster. Can any friend of Crete, which I am, and always have been (and I know the Cretans better than Mr. Bikelas does), desire to see them pass under a government capable of the insanity of 1886 and 1897? Is that a fate to wish the Cretans—bankruptcy, defeat, and ruin?

But there is another important consideration which reflects on the conduct of the Greek Government. The Powers had, after a most perilous conflict of influences, succeeded in stopping the massacres of the Christians in Turkey, and in establishing a *modus vivendi*, with the beginning of a general, if slow, reform of Turkish administration. The action of Greece has set Turkey on her feet again, and given the Sultan a new lease of power and self-confidence. The alternative of a Greek success in this critical moment would have been to awake anew all the Mussulman fanaticism, and repeat the horrors of Armenia over and over again. The Greek Government, evidently, meant to profit by this danger to force the Powers to bribe it to keep quiet, for it is now well known that there had been no serious preparations for war. If this meets the conception of a serious and trustworthy government, in the mind of Mr. Bikelas, I am sorry for the Greeks, for he is one of the most reasonable men of his nation whom I know.

As to the responsibility of Greece for the misfortunes of Crete, I can only say that in the insurrection of 1866, as in those following, with which I have been mostly in close touch, the rising has been invariably provoked by Greek agencies. This is, under the circumstances, natural, and, to a certain extent, excusable; but a serious people does not provoke insurrection without some chance of success, and the only hope of success in Crete was through the action of the Powers, which the Greeks, as now, tried to force, not to assist.—Yours truly,

W. J. S.

Rome, May 20, 1897.

LITERATURE OF THE PILGRIM FATHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: After reading Prof. Arber's intensely interesting 'Story of the Pilgrim Fathers, 1606-1623,' I visited our Cathedral Library at Lincoln, and was much pleased to find there a copy of George Johnson's 'Discourse of some Troubles and Excommunications in the banished English Church at Amsterdam' (Amsterdam), 1603, 4to, quite perfect up to its abrupt ending, on p. 214, as described by Prof. Arber on p. 108 of his 'Story.' This, therefore, makes the *third* known copy.

There is also a copy of the Rev. John Smyth's 'Character of the Beast,' etc., 1609, 4to (Arber, 139), bound up with other pamphlets, but I fear it is wanting a page or two, as it ends on p. 68 with the catchword "Faith."

I hope shortly to be able to make a search through the visitation records of Bishops Wickham, Chaderton, and Barlow (1584-1614), and possibly find some entry respecting the Rev. John Smith, preacher of the City of Lincoln, the Se-Baptist (Arber 131-140).—I am, sir, yours faithfully,

J. Clare Hudson,
Canon of Lincoln and Co-Editor of *Lincolnshire N. and Q.*

Thornton Vicarage, Horncastle, May 27, 1897.

BY IN NEW ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have heard this in New England in conversation: The farmer's wife put on the table pudding and milk for supper. The hired man did not take hold. "You don't seem to set much *by* pudding and milk," said she. "Oh, yes," he said, "I could set *by* it all day, but I would not eat it for supper."

"You have gone *by* your time," in the sense of gone beyond; "the dog *by* the barn, or the cow *by* the rock, the house *by* the hill or *by* the bridge," are in common use. So are "*By* the looks of the clouds it will rain before they get *by*"; "He can do better *by* you than that," *i. e.*, can give you more for it; "He did poorly *by* his boys"—left them little; "I lost a thousand dollars *by* him"; "The hour was *by* before he came." "*By* all odds he will be here *by* that time and will stand *by* me"; "Side pork will stand *by* the ribs," meaning that it has a food-staying power. P. J. Farnsworth.

Clinton, Iowa, May 28, 1897.

DR. JOHNSON SELF-CRITICIZED.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On the authority of Dr. Johnson, if we may credit Boswell, "almost all his *Ramblers* were written just as they were wanted for the press: . . . he sent a certain portion of the copy of an essay, and wrote the remainder while the former part of it was printing." And again professedly reporting information derived from the same source, Boswell states that "many of these discourses, which we should suppose had been laboured with all the slow attention of literary leisure, were written in haste, as the moment pressed, without even being read over, by him, before they were printed."

Of the *Rambler*, which originally came out in semi-weekly numbers, and ran from March 20, 1750, to March 14, 1752, the first impression issued in volumes was published immediately after the work, as a periodical, was completed.

Its piecemeal edition, though interesting

as an illustration of Dr. Johnson's unstudied style, is invested with twofold interest by the fact that, on referring to his revision of it, seen in its book-form, we are enabled to learn in what respects he considered his impromptuary deliverances to be susceptible of emendation. This being the case, the following extracts from the *Rambler* in the rough and the *Rambler* as polished for permanence may be not unacceptable. The superfluous capitals are not reproduced, and the spelling is modernized.

NUMBER I, pp. 6.

"Judgment was wearied with the inextricable perplexity of being forced upon choice, where there was often no motive to preference."	"Judgment was wearied with the perplexity of being forced upon choice, when there was no motive to preference."
"The epic writers, indeed, have found the proemial part of the poem such an addition to their laborious undertaking," etc.	"The epic writers have found the proemial part of the poem such an addition to their undertaking," etc.
"But this solemn repetition has been hitherto the peculiar distinction of heroic poetry, and has never been legally extended to the lower orders of literature, and seems," etc.	"But this solemn repetition is hitherto the peculiar distinction of heroic poetry; it has never been legally extended to the lower orders of literature, but seems," etc.
"The rules which long observation of the injudicious use of this prerogative suggested to Horace," etc.	"The rules which the injudicious use of this prerogative suggested to Horace," etc.
"Yet, though this precept has been long received, both from regard to the authority of him that delivered it, and its conformity to the general opinion of the world, there have been some, as well since as before his time, who have thought it no deviation from modesty," etc.	"This precept has been long received, both from regard to the authority of Horace, and its conformity to the general opinion of the world; yet there have been always some that thought it no deviation from modesty," etc.
"That the case of an author is parallel will scarcely be granted; because he necessarily discovers the degree of his merit to the judges when he solicits their suffrages. But it should be remembered that, unless his judges be prejudiced in his favour, they will not be persuaded to hear the cause."	"That the case of an author is parallel will scarcely be granted; because he necessarily discovers the degree of his merit to his judges, when he appears at his trial. But it should be remembered that, unless his judges are inclined to favour him, they will hardly be persuaded to hear the cause."
"In love, the state which fills the heart with a degree of solicitude next that of an author, it has been held for a maxim, that success is more easily obtained by indirect and concealed approaches."	"In love, the state which fills the heart with a degree of solicitude next that of an author, it has been held a maxim, that success is most easily obtained by indirect and unperceived approaches."
"The artifices . . . are to be looked upon with more indulgence, as they result from complicated passions, and are incited at once by the two great movers of the human mind, the desire of good and the fear of evil. For who can wonder that, thus allured on one side, and frighted on the other, some men should endeavour," etc.	"The artifices . . . are to be looked upon with more indulgence, as they are incited at once by the two great movers of the human mind, the desire of good and the fear of evil. For who can wonder that, allured on one side, and frightened on the other, some should endeavour," etc.
"Nor is the prospect less likely to ease the doubts of the cautious and allay the terrors of the fearful."	"Nor is the prospect less likely to ease the doubts of the cautious and the terrors of the fearful."
"He that is afraid of laying out too much time upon an experiment of which he fears the event," etc.	"He that would fear to lay out too much time upon an experiment of which he knows not the event," etc.
"He may, by attending the remarks which every paper will produce, inform himself of his mistakes, rectify his opinions, and extend his views. If he suspects that he may, with too little premeditation, entangle himself in an unwieldy subject, he may quit it," etc.	"He may, by attending the remarks which every paper will produce, rectify his opinions. If he should, with too little premeditation, encumber himself by any unwieldy subject, he can quit it," etc.

Interspersed among the alterations noted above there are no fewer than eighteen others. Most of them consist of verbal changes; but there are also several omissions of words, numbering from one to six.

The principal lesson to be learned from the foregoing extracts, in their corrected form, is the elimination of surplusage. At the same time, mere handful as they are, they suffice to convey some slight idea of the difference between the English of a century and a half ago and that now current. *Is hitherto* and *by attending the remarks* have become obsolete; and *discover*, in the sense of "disclose" or "reveal," has passed away within living memory.

One cannot choose but suppose that Dr. Johnson, in commencing the *Rambler*, strove to do his best. When it was once fairly launched, he, indeed, now and then abated something of his painstaking; and yet, its monotonous formality laid out of the question, it is rarely blemished by defects other than such as are inevitable to hasty execution. Almost as soon, however, as it was off his hands, he set about improving it throughout, and that in what he deemed to be a sufficiently thoroughgoing manner. To account for this does not seem difficult. Of its substantial excellence he very warrantably entertained no doubt. But there was that in it, a lack of finish, with which, as we have abundant evidence, he was far from being satisfied. For, as was the case with its introduction, according to what has been shown, so, to its very end, few consecutive sentences, when he came to view the work as a whole, approved themselves, in point of expression, to his judgment, as quite befitting literature that could be expected to live. He must, we are therefore to infer, have felt convinced that, if it were attentively elaborated afresh, with respect to minutiæ, to live would be its desert and its destiny. While it was circumstanced much like a newspaper, a thing to be skimmed cursorily and then thrown aside and neglected or forgotten, its style was of subordinate importance; but, if presented as a book, and that the production of a man who was already looked up to as a rhetorical model, its style was a matter which demanded its author's careful consideration. Hence, unquestionably, the industry with which he revised and chastised into an enduring classic what was at first put forth, in ephemeral six-paged driblets, to serve for graver entertainment on old-time Tuesdays and Saturdays. From weariness of the task, or for some other reason, a single retouching of the *Rambler* contented him, however, though it passed through ten editions before his death.

The object of this letter is practical. May not Dr. Johnson's dealings with his extemporary prolusions be utilized for educational purposes? Prefaced by directions for using it, a compilation containing passages similar to those which have been transcribed would, under a competent preceptor, surely be of service to students in English composition. And the compilation would be advantageously supplemented by excerpts of another character, that is to say, specimens of locutions which, though Dr. Johnson accepted them, are, at present, to be repudiated. Of the somewhat numerous class of such are, for example, "Every instance . . . has been studiously *collected*," "Men must not only be *persuaded* of their errors," "Contenting herself, thenceforth, *to shed* her influence from afar," "Those whom sorrow incapacitates *to enjoy* the pleasures of contemplation," "There is no doubt *but* many vegetables and animals have qualities that might be of great use," "A nation of naturalists is neither to be *hoped or* desired." Things like these are instructive; and especially so is it to observe that Dr. Johnson conceived he was amending "Criticism . . . is *to be ranked only* among the . . . instrumental arts," when he worsened it into "Criticism . . . is *only to be ranked*," etc.

Though, in nearly every page, Dr. Johnson has some expression which, either as being outworn or as being slipshod, looks to us peculiar, still, in one respect, he was hardly rivalled by any of his contemporaries. The precision with which, as a rule, he employed his immensely copious vocabulary is most noteworthy; and it has since been surpassed by none but the compeers of Coleridge and Lord Macaulay. Advance on it was long held, with unquestioning confidence, to be well-nigh impossible; an exaggeration of estimate, however, which is now out of date. Nevertheless, there are few, in these days of slovenly writing, whom scrutiny of the great lexicographer's nice distinctions has not much to teach. F. H.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, April 30, 1897.

Notes.

We read in the London *Academy* that Prof. W. I. Knapp of the University of Chicago, who has been living for some years in Norwich, England, preparing a Life of George Borrow, is now ready to give the three-volume work to the printer. Murray will publish it. Borrow's tracks in Spain had been formerly followed up; now the Norwich records have been called in to help discriminate between *Dichtung* and *Wahrheit* in 'Lavengro' and 'The Bible in Spain.'

J. B. Lippincott Co. will issue 'Picturesque Burma, Past and Present,' with numerous illustrations; and, in connection with J. M. Dent & Co., London, a 'Life of Wagner,' by Houston Stuart Chamberlain, with photogravures, facsimiles of scores, etc.

Prof. Paul Shorey of the University of Chicago has finished editing for the Students' Series of Latin Classics of Leach, Shewell & Sanborn the 'Odes and Epodes of Horace.' The same firm will issue directly 'Macbeth,' edited by Dr. J. M. Garnett of the Woman's College, Baltimore.

'Selected Letters of Cicero,' edited by Prof. Frank Frost Abbott of the University of Chicago, is in the press of Ginn & Co.

In the autumn we may expect from Dodd, Mead & Co. 'Constitutional Studies, State and Federal,' by Prof. James Schouler; the substance of lectures delivered at the Johns Hopkins University, 1893-'96.

The "Great Commanders Series" (D. Appleton & Co.) has reached the Life of General Grant, written by Gen. James Grant Wilson, the editor of the whole. It is a hard task to find much that is fresh when a subject has been worked over in so many forms as Grant's biography; but the author has succeeded in giving, within the moderate length to which the series is limited, an easy, flowing narrative, which touches all the leading points of the General's career, and supplies as much as the ordinary reader will demand. General Wilson has been fortunate in getting access to a series of letters from Grant to E. B. Washburne, which are really new material. They are full of character, and one wishes the series were much longer. The book is frankly eulogistic, the opposite of critical; but this will not be out of harmony with the popular taste. The tide of hero-worship is flowing strongly in these days of imposing dedications of monuments, and this biography will hit the humor of the time. On

his military side, Grant had so much for an honest hero-worshipper to build on that even a critical reader will be glad to let himself drift with the popular current.

Mrs. John Hays Hammond's little book on the late troubles in the Transvaal, 'A Woman's Part in a Revolution' (Longmans), is an inconsiderable contribution to the history of those times, most significant in its unconscious vulgarity. Her comment, quoted from her diary, on the discovery of the Johannesburg letter among Jameson's effects, is: "Why in the name of all that is discreet and honorable didn't he eat it?" Every real friend of Mrs. Hammond would say the same of her book. The Uitlander leaders, in spite of their undoubted grievances and their hard treatment in Boer courts and prisons, have been as unfortunate in their apologists as in their laureates. Mr. Hammond, from all accounts, behaved bravely and honorably when in peril of his life; but his wife's endeavor to glorify him makes us intimate with such very bourgeois conspirators that it will be harder than ever to get any one to call them heroes —or even revolutionists.

'The Lyric Poems of Robert Herrick' has been added to the edition of the Lyric Poets published by J. M. Dent & Co. (New York: Macmillan). The selections, by Mr. Ernest Rhys, are well made, and the book is well printed and convenient for the pocket; but the editor has nothing new to say of Herrick. Indeed, it is fair to remark that Mr. Gosse, in his essays on poets of the seventeenth century, has had the last word on that whimsical character, unless some extraordinary discovery be made about him.

Mr. James Fenimore Cooper reprints, in an edition of three hundred copies (Rochester: George P. Humphrey), 'A Guide to the Wilderness [of Central New York],' published in 1810 by his greatgrandfather, Judge William Cooper, the founder of Cooperstown. The pamphlet deals with life in New York at the end of the last century, its hardships and adventures, and its possibilities of imperial expansion. To read of the days when bread failed, and the "root of wild leeks," milk, and maple syrup were famine food in this fertile State, puts a strain upon credence. "The quantity of leeks" some of these poor creatures had eaten "had such an effect upon their breath that they could be smelled at many paces distant, and when they came together it was like cattle that had been pastured in a garlic field!"

A recent addition to the swollen list of elementary treatises on economic science is an 'Introduction to the Study of Economics,' by C. J. Bullock, instructor in Cornell University (Silver, Burdett & Co.). A summary statement of the leading facts in the economic history of the United States is used to lead up to the consideration of our present problems. On the whole, the author appears to have succeeded very well in condensing the views and theories of a number of writers, and in drawing therefrom many valid inferences. While we do not see the need of more treatises of this description, we can fairly say that Mr. Bullock's treatment of his subject is intelligent and marked by moderation in statement.

'The Fertility of the Land,' by I. P. Roberts, Professor of Agriculture at Cornell University, is an excellent treatise for practical farmers, and is not without interest for all who "enjoy the fun of seeing things grow." The book is one of the "Rural Science Series," edited by Prof. L. H. Bailey, and published by Macmillan Co.

On a larger scale is 'The Book of the Dairy,' translated from the German of Prof. W. Fleischmann by Messrs. C. M. Aikman and R. P. Wright, two professors of agriculture in Scotland (London: Blaikie & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.). This work is encyclopædic in its scope, but is better adapted to the requirements of experts than to those of farmers, and does not altogether meet American needs.

The first edition of 'Notes on Assaying,' by Prof. Ricketts and Dr. Miller of Columbia University (John Wiley & Sons), is substantially a much enlarged edition of Ricketts's 'Notes on Assaying and Assay Schemes,' which has met with such favor as to have passed though more than one edition. The book is what it professes to be, not an intricate and complete work on analytical chemistry, but a handy compendium of practical methods for use in the laboratory. Its success reminds us that Mr. H. M. Howe, the recently appointed Professor of Metallurgy at Columbia, has won world-wide fame and personal dstinction by his exhaustive treatise on 'The Metallurgy of Steel'; that Prof. Kemp's 'Ore Deposits of the United States' fills a place in every technical library beside Van Cotta's classic on a similar subject; and that Profs. Chandler, Newberry, and Eggleston have added largely to the literature of chemistry, geology, and metallurgy.

Kürschner's unrivalled 'Deutscher Litteratur-Kalender' for 1897 (New York: Lemcke & Buechner) has recently appeared in its usual form, slightly larger than the volume of last year. Two portraits serve as frontispieces. The first, of Max Ring of Berlin, is inserted in memory of his eightieth birthday; his contribution to literature for 1896 was the story 'Vor dem Schwurgericht,' and for 1897 the novel 'Irrwege.' The other is of Detler von Liliencron, whose 'Kriegsnovellen' of 1896 has been very popular. There is the usual valuable, well-ordered miscellany regarding literary legislation, societies, prizes, necrology, etc. The lexicon proper gives 1,500 pages of names of writers, with a list of the productions of each one, his residence, and the place and date of his birth.

Meyer Bros. & Co., No. 1132 Broadway, are the New York agents for a new art magazine, *La Revue de l'Art Ancien et Moderne*, which is published in Paris under the direction of M. Jules Compte, and which seems likely to take a high place among similar periodicals. The first number is devoted rather to ancient than to modern art, the Pasteur tomb being the only contemporary work discussed and illustrated. The other principal articles are on the French School at Athens, some Greek figurines recently added to the collections of the Louvre, the Bonnaffé Collection, and Jean Fouquet, and there are a number of shorter articles, departments, notes on exhibitions, etc. Each number is to contain at least four *planches hors texte*, and many illustrations, and these, in the present number, are excellently executed, while the text maintains a high level of competent criticism and investigation. The *Revue* bids fair to prove a worthy rival of the *Gazette des Beaux-Arts*.

The same publishers send us the first two fascicules of Armand Dayot's 'Journées Révolutionnaires, 1830-1848,' a pictorial history in line with his albums on the Revolution and the First Empire, and consisting of numerous chronologically arranged facsimiles of paintings, sculpture, drawings, lithographs, medals, and other contemporary illustrations of the period, each briefly described. Portraiture and caricature enter largely into the scheme, which is much to be commended as stimulating historical curiosity and familiarizing the mind of one who even casually turns these pages, with the physiognomy of the time.

The Duc de Broglie's article, in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for May 15, throws much light upon the relations between the Catholic Church and the State in France, and at the same time proves once more the compatibility of French republicanism with arbitrary rule. The writer reminds Archbishop Ireland, who, in an address at Paris, had reproached his French coreligionists for their failure to reach directly the people at large, that under French republican régime the Catholics have to reckon with police surveillance at their meetings, with the Council of State ready to call them to account for a hasty utterance, and with the fiscal agent eager to suppress the income of priests and prelates. He is therefore apparently inconsistent when, in the very next paragraph, he (with Père Maumus) recommends Catholics to avail themselves of all modern means of redress, such as the press, personal propaganda, electioneering, etc. This advice must be meant for the rank and file only of the faithful, for the functionaries of the Church would run the risk of forfeiting, not their places, but their salaries.

Dr. Heinrich Schroeder has issued a third edition of his brochure entitled 'Oberlehrer, Richter, Offiziere,' which presents a startling picture of the wretched situation of German teachers as compared with officials in other departments of the State service. A judgeship is anything but a sinecure, yet how far a judge's work is from being as exhausting and deadly as a teacher's is shown by the following figures gathered last year: There were 17 judges, but not one teacher, who had been in service more than 50 years; 44 judges and 1 teacher more than 45 years in service; 135 judges and 16 teachers more than 40. The average time of service of the *Oberlehrer* is about 22 years, and the highest salary is not reached till after 27 years of service, nor do those teachers who quit before that time receive as pensions more than half their salary. Dr. Schroeder calls attention to the increased number of hours imposed on teachers, and protests against this overburdening, not only on humane grounds, but for the utilitarian reason that a teacher who is almost necessarily exhausted cannot do first-rate work.

In his account of N. P. Willis, in the June *Bookman*, Mr. M. A. D. Howe quotes what he rightly says is "a picturesque reminiscence" which "George William Curtis has left, . . . *of which the chronology must not be scrutinized too closely.*" It is generally supposed to be part of a biographer's business to scrutinize the chronology of his authorities, and thus avoid unnecessary errors, but there have been indications before this that Mr. Howe deemed such examination a waste of time. It may be true of some persons that he who runs may read, but it would be better for Mr. Howe, if he must read, to go less fast. The writer of the paper

from which he quotes says he was fifteen at the time the incident happened, and that Willis was then editing his Boston magazine. Now the magazine came to an end in June, 1831, and as the occasion described was a Harvard commencement, the date must have been, at the latest, 1830. George William Curtis was born in 1824. This scrutinizing (for which, when Mr. Howe's articles appear as a book, we expect him to thank us) will satisfy most readers that the reminiscence is attributed to the wrong man.

Mr. James Means's *Aeronautical Annual* for 1897 (Boston: W. B. Clarke & Co.) pursues its winged hobby with a convincing display of solid scientific study and varied experiment applied to the navigation of the air during the past twelvemonth. Prof. Langley describes anew his achievement with a self-raising and self-propelling aerodrome; Octave Chanute relates his valuable and not inexpensive trials of an apparatus for gliding derived from the ill-fated Otto Lilienthal's; M. Chanute's associate, A. M. Herring, has an independent story to tell, embracing a motor; Percy S. Pilcher, an employee of Mr. Maxim, reports his adventures with a Lilienthalian machine, which he means to equip with an oil engine to drive a screw-propeller. Finally, Mr. Maxim has a few valuable paragraphs on the working of screw-propellers in air, and accounts for his inactivity with his own flying-machine by the liveliness of the gun business during the past year. Having, however, obtained very large premises with plenty of room, he hopes ere long to find leisure to renew his experimenting.

By an unfortunate juxtaposition of words and emblems, England is unintentionally depicted in the new Congressional Library as a decrepit old woman, gathering dry sticks, who is being winked at by a knowing-looking owl perched on a neighboring bough. The pendentives of the beautiful southwest pavilion of the Library are filled by four plaques in relief, representing Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter. Under each is a single word illustrative of the season—Seed, Bloom, Fruit, Decay. The mural paintings of the room are designed to illustrate the progress of Discovery through Conquest to Civilization, and honor is shown the four nations most conspicuous in the colonization of the New World—Spain, Portugal, France, and England—by inscribing their names conspicuously in the four corners of the pavilion, and therefore under the mottoes describing the medallions. One or other name had to be painted under the ominous word Decay, and beneath the decrepit old woman; and as chance would have it, the lot fell to England.

It has long been known that the Swiss glaciers are subject to variations in length, increasing or decreasing from decade to decade. Prof. Gorel of Morges has made a special study of this subject ever since 1880, and has come to the conclusion that the period of the fluctuations is a long one—somewhere between forty and fifty years. Moreover, it appears that not all the glaciers decrease and increase at the same time. Careful measurements made during 1895, for instance, showed that more than seventy were steadily growing in length, while about the same number had been unmistakably receding since 1892, without any signs that the limit had been reached. The famous Grindelwald glacier, which has been somewhat insignificant of recent years, is among those which are growing, and the proprietor of the Wetterhorn hotel foresees the time, at the present rate of progress, when the ice will push against his building and probably necessitate its removal.

—In the *Atlantic* for June, Mr. Albert Shaw writes a somewhat light article on the Municipal Problem and Greater New York. His criticism is throughout at one with that of other critics who have treated the subject; but he falls into an error in calling the new government a "bureaucracy pure and simple," suggesting "Russian cities" and "Russian provincial governments." What he means is that the Mayor will have the power of appointing all heads of departments, who after six months will be practically unaccountable to anybody, giving us, instead of a city with a responsible head, eighteen different departments, each independent within its own sphere. The fact is, however, that the new heads of departments will not be irremovable, but removable, just as at present, "for cause," provided the Mayor can get the sanction of the Governor. Responsibility will depend on the Governor and Mayor being of one way of thinking. This is not a good system, but it is not simple bureaucracy, nor do we believe that it is much like anything in Russia. It has long been on trial in New York, and we know all about it by experience here already. The effect will be to make it very desirable for those who have elected the Governor one year to elect the Mayor the next; and this is what they mean to do, if possible. Mr. Irving Babbitt's article on "Ferdinand Brunetière and his Critical Method" is worth reading, for it is written by a man who has made a thorough study of French critical literature, and has himself something of the divine (or accursed) quality of the critic. An anonymous writer discusses Prof. Sloane's Life of Napoleon at some length.

—In *Harper's* the principal illustrated articles are "A New Switzerland," *i. e.*, the Dauphiné, by Edwin Lord Weeks; Dr. Henry Smith Williams's "Meteorological Progress of the Century"; Poultney Bigelow's eighth instalment of "White Man's Africa"; and T. P. O'Connor's "Celebrities of the House of Commons." The portraits illustrating the latter are by Paul Rénouard. Mr. O'Connor is at his best in a certain sketchy kind of description which comes in part of long journalistic practice. His paper, to any one familiar with English politics, would convey nothing very new; but for the American market it is admirably contrived; incidentally we get an impression of the real nature of the great "talking shop" of Westminster, which suggests, by contrast, the extraordinarily different sort of parliament that we have produced at Washington. One of Mr. O'Connor's points is a clever bit of analysis of what is called the "tone" of the House of Commons—the manner which the new man must learn, and in which he must become natural in order to succeed. This tone, this manner, is simply that of good society. What a gentleman would call a good way of speaking is called good speaking by the House of Commons; what would irritate "the feelings of a gentleman" irritates those of the House. This explains many a success and many a failure. There is a very amusing account of Mr. Balfour's early appearance, when in manner and in his use of his pocket-handkerchief he recalled a young curate. Dr. T. Mitchell Prudden's "Elder Brother of the Cliff Dwellers" is full of much curious information about a race to whom he invites the attention of anthropologists. "Henry Gladwin and the Siege of Pontiac," by Charles Moore, is a study of the siege of Detroit, and of "the man who defeated Pontiac," made with the aid of the Parkman manuscripts. Not much of the romance of the frontier is left to shed a glamour over the story, but the article gives a vivid picture of the times, and is accompanied, among other illustrations, by portraits of Gladwin and his wife.

—*Scribner's* publishes Mr. Barrett Wendell's "Ralegh in Guiana." It is described as a "chronicle-history in the Elizabethan manner," and has been produced under the author's direction at Cambridge. The contributions which will attract most attention are Montgomery Schuyler's "New Library of Congress" (illustrated) and Mr. Stephen Crane's "The Open Boat," "being the experience of four men from the sunk steamer *Commodore*." Some readers will think this powerful, others will find it weak, but realistic it cannot be called. The adventures of the little ten-foot dingey, with its load of four men, running through seas mountains high (many of which are from time to time shipped), standing out a gale on a dangerous coast for thirty-six hours and more, and finally beached through a deadly surf stern on, with only one life lost, are distinctly supernatural. We recall nothing equal to them in the pages of Marryat, or Charles Reade, or Clark Russell, all of whom in their day have spun pretty stiff yarns about the sea. We are glad Mr. Crane has given up realism, because any one could see from the first that with him it was a forced style, unnatural to him, and adopted of malice prepense. Realists describe what they have seen and lived through; Mr. Crane's specialty is the unexperienced.

—The *Century* for June is an unusually good number. The most generally interesting article is that on the Shaw Memorial and St. Gaudens, illustrated by reproductions, not merely of the memorial itself, but of more than two dozen specimens of the sculptor's best work—including the Butler and Schiff children, the figure in Rock Creek Cemetery, and the rejected Columbian medal. Edward Atkinson narrates the history of the monument; William A. Coffin gives an account of the sculptor himself, and T. W. Higginson contributes a short essay on "Colored Troops under Fire." It is almost forgotten now that the first conspicuous effort in line of battle of any negro troops was in the attack on Port Hudson. On May 23, 1863 (three months before the assault on Fort Wagner), Port Hudson was attacked by the First and Third Louisiana Native Guard, under Col. Nelson; three successive charges were made upon a nearly impregnable position, and out of an attacking force of 1,080, the loss was 37 killed, 155 wounded, and 16 missing. Gen. Banks reported their conduct as "heroic." It seems strange now to recall the fact that the first tests made of these troops were in what were practically forlorn hopes, and in the second of which they might have been successful but for non-support by white regiments. An entertaining article is that on Victoria's Coronation Roll, fortified by a charming picture of the little Princess at the age of four. The article, by Florence

Hayward, contains a great deal of curious ceremonial lore, much of which has historical value, and would be hard to get at but for her researches. In his "Campaigning with Grant," Gen. Horace Porter examines once more the relations between Grant and Sherman, leaving the impression produced by the facts at the time of the march to the sea—that Sherman was the genius who divined the possible success of the extraordinary campaign; Grant, the inscrutable military sphinx who let it be done at the very moment when it was practicable, prevented it when it was impracticable, gave all the credit of it to Sherman, and apparently never knew, any more than we do, how far he was in all this a great commander and how far only a shrewd man. "How a Riddle of the Parthenon Was Unravelled," by Eugene P. Andrews, is sure to attract attention, even from those who, like our own readers, have already some knowledge of the achievement. The poem called "The Last Fight," by L. Frank Tooker, a name not familiar to us, is full of promise.

—The current number of the *Portfolio* (Macmillan) contains monographs on the two "glories of the Norwich School," John Crome and John Sell Cotman, by Laurence Binyon. The illustrations, admirably reproduced, on the whole, from the plates about to be published by the Autotype Company, give a better idea than has hitherto been generally attainable of the scope and power of these two artists of genius, who "have suffered misconception, since much of their best work . . . is in private hands and unknown to the general public." The misconception of Crome is well exemplified in the following passage from Muther's 'History of Modern Painting,' which is quoted by Mr. Binyon: "He lived absolutely apart from the England of his time. . . . Norwich was his birthplace and his life-long residence. He did not know the name of Turner, he knew nothing of Wilson, he had, perhaps, never heard Gainsborough's name. His pictures are influenced neither by his contemporaries nor his English forerunners. . . . Hobbema is his model, the art of the Netherlands his ideal." This is so far from the truth that Mr. Binyon has no difficulty in showing that Crome was personally acquainted with Turner, and on friendly terms with him, and was influenced by him even in his last years; that Wilson and Gainsborough were his earlier idols, on whom his own work was founded, and that it was only comparatively late in his career that the influence of Hobbema became marked. Mr. Binyon would seem to rank Crome above any landscape painter of England, if not of the world. Whether or no he will eventually be given such a rank, the painter of "The Poringland Oak" and "Mousehold Heath" must always hold a very high place among landscape painters. Cotman is even less known to the general public than Crome, and his works here reproduced have a charm, a dignity, and an undeniable individuality which make us welcome the chance to know him better.

THE LITERATURE OF THE REVOLUTION.

The Literary History of the American Revolution, 1763-1783. By Moses Coit Tyler, Professor of American History in Cornell University. Volume I. 1763-1776. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1897.

In Prof. Tyler's own words, he has aimed, in the work before us, to present "the soul, rather than the body, of the American Revolution, . . . an unbiassed register of the brain and heart of the sorely divided people." In fulfilment of this purpose, he epitomizes, carefully and clearly, the literature of the four great controversies which fall within the period 1763-1776, the pamphlet wars over the Stamp Act, the revenue acts, the association of 1774, and the question of independence. To outlines of these big controversies he further adds a glance at a part of the general bookmaking of those years of angry discussion, and most admirable and appreciative studies of the young writers, John Trumbull, Philip Freneau, and Francis Hopkinson. Indeed, painstakingly though the author has read the arguments of Otis, Dulany, Dickinson, and Jefferson, it is easy to see that he gladly turns from their solid arguments on the constitutional aspect of the issues at stake to the satires and daring verses of the youngsters. And it must be confessed that, under his graphic pen, the personality of John Trumbull, able to repeat all the verses in the New England Primer at two years of age and passing the Yale College examination when but five years older, does exceed in interest those of the ablest writers on the legal difficulties of the Revolution.

Nowhere does the author's preference for true literature show more strongly than in his selection of material. The controversial pamphlet, the flaming satire, the popular ballad, all receive adequate attention, but the state paper, the essential weapon of the contest down to the moment when the argument of last resort was appealed to, is almost wholly neglected. Of all the famous public papers, beginning with the resolutions of the Virginia Assembly of 1764, not one receives more than passing notice except the Declaration of Independence, though in them, rather than in the works of irresponsible writers, are the true expression of what the leaders of thought claimed and worked for. So, too, the literature of the side issues, such as the questions of an established church, of commercial restriction, and of the public territory, all of which added so much force to the main conflict, is barely mentioned.

By this criticism it is not intended to suggest that Prof. Tyler does not fully recognize that the American Revolution in its early stages was no war of pasquinades, but one of solid argument. Yet because the literary rather than the legal aspect appeals to him more strongly, he has produced a certain purposed disproportion, and it must be acknowledged that his work has thereby gained enormously in interest and popularity. Had the constitutional aspect been more considered, however, it is to be questioned if the author would seriously have likened the riots against the stamps and the tea to the later principle of nullification, or the assertion of independence to the later attempted secession. The resistance to the acts of Parliament in 1765-73 was the work of mobs, to which all unpopular laws are subject; nullification was always an attempt to suspend a law by law, and the question turned wholly on the now familiar principle of which was the unconstitutional law. Applying the author's view, the draft riots of 1863 become merely an attempted nullifying of national law. Equally untenable, too, is his comparison as to secession. Every true advocate of secession claimed it as a constitutional right, and therefore as one to which no legal objection could be made; no American, when the moment for independence came, for a moment asserted the right of peaceful separation, and the Declaration alleges only the rights of nature, that is, of revolution, as it was at once correctly termed. The difference was purposely befogged by many writers in the civil-war period, but any one who will take the trouble to lay the national Declaration of Independence and that of South Carolina side by side can never confuse the distinction.

Prof. Tyler finds in James Otis the first man to argue broadly the rights of America, and in this we think he is justified. Though Richard Bland in Virginia preceded him by ten years in his assertion of the full rights of the colonists, it was made in connection with a purely local issue; and since a starting-point was to be found, no better man than Otis could have been chosen. We wish some notice had been taken of the rare and scurrilous pamphlet entitled 'Proposals for the Life . . . of Vice-Admiral Sir Thomas Brazen. . . . by Tom Thumb,' written against Otis, by Samuel Waterhouse, which is the earliest genuine Tory argument. So, also, in outlining the "Halifax Letter" controversy, conducted by Otis, Hopkins, and Martin, the mistake of Tudor in ascribing a reply, really written by Otis, to Hopkins, might have been explained by reference to Hopkins's second pamphlet, 'A Letter to the Author of the Halifax Gentlemen,' which seems to have escaped the notice of both Otis's and Hopkins's biographers, as well as of Prof. Tyler.

In considering the hitherto almost untrodden field of the writings of the Loyalists, the treatment is most fair-minded, and the outlines of the arguments of Martin, Seabury, and Leonard are admirable. Rather too little stress is accorded to Galloway, who was the only truly constructive writer—one might well say, the only true statesman—on the losing side; and his own defence, 'Americanus Examined, and his Principles compared with those of the approved Advocates for America' (Philadelphia, 1774), is not cited among his writings, though of great importance in the consideration of the man. The rather lengthy study of Jonathan Boucher is to be questioned from the opposite point of view, for his sermons were no better than those delivered by many others of his brother clergymen; not one was of sufficient merit to be printed at the time of delivery. A volume of them was printed at the author's charge over twenty years after their delivery, but both garbling of the text and misstatement are easily detected in them, and go far to discredit their value. Less space given to his sermons and some consideration of those of the Rev. William Smith and the Rev. Jacob Duché, which were very popular, and in time came to reflect the moderate Tory view, would have been, we think, an improvement.

Prof. Tyler touches on one matter connected with the Loyalists which has not yet received sufficient attention, namely, the intellectual loss America suffered by the schism; and it is to be hoped that in his second volume he will consider this more at

length in discussing their eventual expatriation. The loss of such men as Hutchinson, Judge William Smith, Rumford, John Randolph, and many more of the same type was very material, and one which even civil war has seldom produced. Undoubtedly the Whig writers were abler in the field of political discussion, but the practical extinction of every other form of literature until another generation came to the front, was largely caused by the destruction of the old gentry and of the college-bred men who were so generally loyalist in their sympathies. Another unfortunate result flowing from this schism was the loss of free speech, and the dominant Whig adopted many methods for the suppression of debate which left a visible influence in a certain want of fairness in American politics that lasted for many years. Indeed, the party feeling gained such a hold in those years that even the historian of later time dared not run counter to it, and it is related that when Mr. George Bancroft was asked the reason for his suppression of certain facts, his excuse was that the American public would not tolerate the whole truth concerning the Revolution. But the present book is itself a proof that the spirit of true history is once more an American possession, and for that very reason Prof. Tyler is correct when he maintains that the results of his survey will be "eirenic rather than polemic" on "both sides of the ocean."

The biography of John Trumbull is the most distinct contribution of the book; much material has been drawn from hitherto unpublished papers, and it is by far the best account of the man that has yet appeared. If Prof. Tyler would elaborate this one sketch into a separate book, it would be a very interesting and valuable addition to what is now accessible concerning the young poet.

We observe that, in the consideration of Thomas Paine, the author discredits the apocryphal contributions to the *Pennsylvania Magazine* which were included, without the slightest proof of Paine's authorship, in the latest edition of his writings, and he might have gone still further by pointing out that Paine distinctly disavowed one of the pieces included in this edition (the "Montgomery Ghost Dialogue") in a letter to the newspapers in 1776. The popularity and influence of his 'Common Sense' are graphically set forth, though a careful study of the conditions must lead the historian to concur with Francis Lightfoot Lee when he wrote to Landon Carter in May, 1776, "I agree with you that the arbitrary and cruel proceedings of the British Court . . . hath made more independents than Common Sense"; a sentiment echoed by Gen. Charles Lee in the statement that the effects of 'Common Sense' "are trifling, conparitively [*sic*], with the outrageous folly, insanity, and villany of the King and Ministry." The great value of 'Common Sense' was not so much in its advocacy of independency as in its answers to the problems that independence involved: Could we successfully fight Great Britain? And, granting that we could, what was to become of us when we had gained our freedom? No writer has yet come forward to discriminate the conflict for democratic power from the conflict for independence, but when the subject is properly taken up, the popularity of 'Common Sense' will be found to consist largely in its strong democracy. Paine has been blamed for his terming King George "a royal brute," but, to the already powerful party of democracy in America, no single element appealed so strongly as the pamphleteer's philippic against kings and kingcraft. We note that one of the ablest replies to the famous pamphlet, entitled 'The True Merits of a Late Treatise . . . by a Late Member of the Continental Congress,' written by a Southerner, and probably by a South Carolinian, has not been discovered by Prof. Tyler.

All these suggestions are not made, however, in criticism, for the literature is a vast one, incapable of full treatment in any such space as the author has allowed himself. Every essential controversy of the time has been adequately treated, and a very large and very rare class of books has been most interestingly discussed. The words of the great penmen of the Revolution have been so treated that, in reading the book, one gains a clearer perception of the causes and growth of the Revolution than is to be obtained in many of the histories devoted to the recording of events. Prof. Tyler refers to the fact that American history is now being rewritten in a far deeper and broader manner, and his own book is evidence sufficient for the statement.

WÜLFING'S SYNTAX OF ALFRED THE GREAT.

Die Syntax in den Werken Alfreds des Grossen. Von Dr. J. Ernst Wülfing. Erster Theil: Hauptwort, Artikel, Eigenschaftswort, Zahlwort, Fürwort. 8vo, pp. xxix, 491. 1894. Zweiten Theiles erste Hälfte: Zeitwort. 8vo, pp. xiv, 250. 1897. Bonn: P. Hanstein.

One might reasonably expect that two large volumes bearing this title would not only contain a clear account of King Alfred's idiom, but would lay the foundation for a thoroughly scientific treatment of English syntax. The work before us, however, is little more than a catalogue of the syntactical constructions found in the prose translations usually assigned to Alfred, with notes on the apparent anomalies, and occasional comments on the various readings of the printed texts. In standpoint, treatment, and style the book is very much like a huge doctor-dissertation. A rubric, a number of citations, a note; another rubric, more citations, a statement that Prof. So-and-so has written to the author to say that he thinks, etc.—and so on through some 700 pages, and the work little more than half done. There can be no doubt, however, that the author deserves the thanks of English students for having taken up a subject at once so important and so difficult. For what with the prevalence of vague notions as to the aim and method of syntax study, and the lack of critical texts to work with, and the want of historical knowledge of the vulgar idiom, and the neglect that the subject has suffered at the hands of scholars, English syntax is a field beset with an unusual number of difficulties.

That these have proved too great for him is apparent from even a cursory examination of Wülfing's work. Having undertaken a treatise on Alfred's syntax, it would seem necessary first of all to settle definitely the question of the genuineness and probable chronological order of the works usually ascribed to Alfred. In the introduction to the first volume the question of origin and order is indeed treated, but in a most superficial way. No new light is thrown on the subject, no new evidence presented. The Beda translation and the prose part of the Paris Psalter are retained as Alfred's, though even at the time when the introduction was written (1894) there was a great deal of doubt about the genuineness of the former, and the best scholars were inclined to abandon the theory of Alfred's authorship of the latter. A new arrangement is given based on reasons like those which follow: The 'Cura' cannot be an early work "because it is a faithful and literal version of Gregory's Latin, and a beginner in the art of translation passes over the difficult parts, or only tries to give their probable meaning." On the other hand, the Boethius translation, which is conspicuous for its omissions and its free handling of the original, is one of the King's later works "because it would have been too difficult for him to undertake before he had had some experience in translating Latin, and this would have been apparent to him from Asser's gloss and explanation of the text." Reasoning in this way, Wülfing decides upon the following order for the works which he considers genuine: the Translation of Beda's History, the Orosius Version, the Translation of Gregory's 'Cura Pastoralis,' the Paraphrase of Boethius, the 'Blooms.' To these he adds the Laws of King Alfred. This gives us a new theory—the ninth!—and suggests an interesting problem: If fourteen scholars arrange the same five works in nine different ways during a period of a hundred years, how long will it be until the question is settled? And then, after all, there is the probability that some of these translations were not made by the King himself, but only executed at his command, and that they do not form a series at all.

When we come to consider Wülfing's investigations in detail, we find that they suffer from a variety of causes. He follows the traditional system of formal classification which has come down from vol. iv. of Grimm's 'Grammatik.' In Grimm's time such an arrangement of material was, perhaps, the only one possible; and Grimm's subject was the syntax of the Germanic dialects, not that of Alfred's works. We are now certainly far enough advanced in our study of English to be able to treat its syntax according to a method logical as well as historical. As our knowledge widens, we come to see more clearly what an elastic medium of expression English is; how in the course of its history ambiguous and cumbrous idioms give place to clearer and simpler forms of expression; how parts of speech adapt themselves to new forms of expression; how analogy extends the usefulness of types of inflection. A treatment of English Syntax, therefore, should be based upon material and not upon formal distinctions. If convenience of reference is desired, an index like the one at the end of Wülfing's first volume would fully serve the purpose.

The traditional system in our author's hands is more embarrassing than ever, for he begins his work with nouns, and not with verbs, as Grimm did. This gives rise to a great deal of repetition. For instance, on p. 5 of volume i., the genitive after the adjective *georn* falls under division 2 of group A ("The genitive with adjectives") in a class

whose rubric runs "The genitive with adjectives like 'desirous' ("begierig"), 'careless' ("sorglos"), . . . and similar adjectives"; while the genitive with *geornfulnes* is found on p. 45 of volume i., in an entirely different group of genitive constructions, viz., group D ("The genitive with nouns"), under the rubric "The genitive of the object of the action implied in the noun"; and the genitive after *girnan* falls in still another group, viz., group C ("The genitive with verbs"), p. 12, div. 1, as a "genitive after verbs indicating *effort*, etc." Here we have the same phenomenon entered in three unconnected and distinct categories.

The confusions due to the author's system are just as unhappy. In volume i., 298, the first chapter of the first division of numerals has to do with the numeral *án*. The first division is "*án* used as an adjective"; the first section of this treats of "*án* before the noun," and brings together the following idioms: *on ánum gefeohte* ("in a single battle") *néah án gethéode* ("nearly the same language"), *ánne finger & ánne* ("one finger after another"), *wille áne onsendań* ("I will send one," *i. e.*, one of the books), *ich eom ána god*, which the author translates "[Ich bin] der einzige Gott." If syntax has anything to do with the meaning and use of forms of expression, a classification that includes such idioms as these under one head, without distinguishing them from one another, is surely little better than no classification at all.

Again, in many parts of the book, there is a lack of fine discrimination, which produces mechanical arrangement: *e. g.*, under "Der Genitiv bei Zeitwörtern" we have a rubric (I, p. 14) "Der Genitiv erscheint bei Zeitwörtern der mündlichen Aeusserung irgendwelcher Art" (The genitive after verbs expressing some sort of assertion), including eight different verbs all but one or two of which are stragglers from other commands. Finally, the citations are not always exhaustive; *e. g.*, on p. 18 of the second volume we are told that only *sceamian* ('to be ashamed of') occurs with a reflexive genitive, as, *hit is cyn thæt wé úre scomigen*, 'it is seemly that we be ashamed of ourselves.' But in the 'Cura,' p. 220 (Sweet), we have such a genitive with *waldan* ('to control one's self'); also in the Boethius, p. 64 (Cardale), a similar idiom with *gehelpan* 'to help one's self'), and another in the 'Cura,' p. 228, with *plion* ('to risk one's self'). The reflexive genitive in Alfred's works is not such a rarity, therefore, as it appears to be from Wülfing's statement.

There are many other faults of detail, as indeed there must be in a work made up largely of citations; but there are many excellences too, and much evidence of painstaking care. The greatest defect is the want of a clear and definite system of classification founded upon a familiarity with English syntax in all its periods. Alfred, it is true, brings to his work an idiom but lately used to celebrate the deeds of Germanic heroes, and it is well not to lose sight of this fact; yet it is an idiom already English in its main characteristics, and destined to remain so. As we find it in the 'Cura' or in the Boethius cheek by jowl with classic Latin, struggling to do the task set for its more cultured brother, we see in its directness, its seriousness, its simplicity the prophecy of Chaucer and Shakspere. When Alfred changes the academic "quid sit igitur æternitas consideremus" into the direct question "Thá cwæth ic, 'Hwæt is écnes?'" we know we are on English ground. We know, too, how Wiclyf and Tyndal will translate Pilate's question, and how Shakspere will put *Hamlet's*. Such a language is a living language, and cannot be fruitfully studied in reference to the categories of a dead one. What we want, therefore, is a clear, concise treatment of English syntax, from an English standpoint, following the history of the English language as it has been used to express the development of English thought; a book whose chief interest shall be the living, growing tree itself, and not its grafts and dead branches.

True Stories of New England Captives, carried to Canada during the old French and Indian wars. By C. Alice Baker. Cambridge, Mass.: The Author. 1897. Pp. 407.

Miss Baker deserves credit for original research in a virgin field, and through some avenues of approach which man could not enter. Accordingly, she has fitly dedicated her narratives "to the nuns and priests by whom she had been kindly helped." Born in Deerfield, the first of New England towns to be burnt by French and Indians, and from which they carried off more victims than from any other, the words "carried to Canada whence they came not back" described some of her own ancestors. Hence her longing to know the fate of the unknown was intensified. This wish, as she tells us, "became a purpose, and she took it upon her as a mission to open the door for their return." She made more than one journey to the new Dominion, and stood as an eye-witness in every spot where the exiles she chronicles had lived. She shows us—sometimes in photographic facsimile—the manuscript annals of their baptisms, marriages, deaths, new names, etc. Detecting and gathering fragments which previous searchers had given up for lost, she has pieced them together in mosaics which supplement and make doubly vivid many a passage in Parkman's 'Half-Century of Conflict.' Nor is our author, like many original explorers, ignorant or contemptuous of the materials already provided to lighten her task. Her authorities are more than a score, and the best among them—the Massachusetts manuscript archives—are quoted more than thirty times. Home studies had added a precious seeing to her eye abroad in convent, church, and hospital, by flood and field.

The leading heroines of her story are six, Christine Otis, Esther Wheelwright, Eunice Williams, Abigail Nims, Abigail Stebbins, and Martha French. Christine Otis, captivated in New Hampshire when an infant, was married in 1705 at sixteen to a Frenchman. After his death she fell in with a Yankee lover, and in 1714 escaped with him to Boston, but could never rescue her children. Esther Wheelwright, in 1703, at the age of seven, was carried off from Maine. After four years in a wigwam she was taken into the Quebec convent of Ursulines, where she ultimately became the Mother Superior. Her portrait, dating from 1761, forms Miss Baker's frontispiece. The other four involuntary travellers to Montreal were all from Deerfield, Mass., and all left there in 1704. Eunice Williams, eight years old when expatriated, was never yielded to the French by her Indian captor. Had she been mindful of the country whence she came out, she could have returned. She did go thither more than once, but refused to be ransomed. She married an Indian, and her grandson Eleazer, in the last generation, made no small stir as the lost French Prince, or "a Bourbon among us." Abigail Stebbins was a bride of three weeks when made prisoner, and, with her husband, who was a Frenchman, lived near Montreal till her death in 1740, and her posterity were discovered by Miss Baker still in the same hamlet. One of her children, however, when permitted in boyhood to visit Deerfield, refused to return, and became one of Miss Baker's ancestors. Abigail Nims, four years old when her sisters were scalped, was taken North with her mother, who was killed on the march. What became of her was never ascertained before the search-lights of Miss Baker were turned on. It could have been proved by Boston archives that Abigail, who, though taught in a French school, clung to her Indian master, had been carried down to Deerfield and bought at a cost of £40. She soon vanished, and was never heard of there any more. But, thanks to some prehistoric underground railroad, she reached Canada again. An official document—a find of Miss Baker's—shows that on July 29, 1715, she was married in the church at Lorette to a boy who, eleven years before, had been brought with her from Massachusetts. One of their issue became head of the nuns of the Congregation. Martha French, an eight-years-old prisoner, was married to two French husbands. Her daughter Louise bore a son who rose to be the first Archbishop of Quebec.

It must be evident, even from this meagre outline, that few careers can be fraught with more romantic incidents than the lives of these half-dozen girls, tragically torn away from their childhood homes. Equally plain is it that such girls were at once in demand among Frenchmen of character and position. Rarity heightened value. Female emigrants from France were few, and the most attractive had become nuns. Carrying off maidens from New England was thus not without analogies to the Roman rape of the Sabine women. Nor was their captivity such a curse as it seemed. Like the grain of gravel which comes chafingly into the oyster-shell, it was transformed into pearl. The stealing of boys was also profitable. It not only sapped the Yankee fighting force, but it furnished braves and even chiefs to the aborigines. In another volume, now in preparation, Miss Baker will make this point clear. She was first to ferret out the true New England descent of an Abenaki leader whose descendant, Judge Gill of the Montreal Superior Court, had essayed that task in vain.

The predatory system of the French was inhuman, but yet their best weapon. It retained the Indians as catspaws. Both in war and in peace, it saved Canadians from fur-traders who were more than their match, and from fighters who were tenfold their numbers. It spoke with more effect than Canute to the swelling tide of settlement in New Hampshire and Vermont. It made a solitude and called it peace. The French played a game in which they were sure to beat. Six hundred Yankees ranged the frontier a whole winter and never discovered one Indian; three times as many all through summer had little better success. There was often peace between the mother countries, but Indian depredations knew no peace. Wherever guards were careless, the savages

killed all they could not lead into bondage. Captives brought £8 apiece and scalps half price. When envoys demanded redress, the French answer was that it was beyond their power to grant it. Thus: "Les sauvages de Canada son entierment libres, et ils ne sont point comptable de leur actions de qui que ce soit" (p. 346).

It seems incredible that the raids on New England could be viewed as missionary enterprises, but such was the fact. The experience of Pope Gregory when, beholding the blond slave boys from Britain, he exclaimed "*Angli*—why not *Angeli?*" repeated itself. Canadian priests would gladly have preached in Deerfield. They could not; but that Deerfield should come to them was the next best thing. With as good reason their contemporaries among us defended the kidnapping of negroes from Guinea who were thus brought within the sound of church-bells and gospel privileges. This proselytism was, of course, to the Puritan the unkindest cut of all—that his children were brought up under another gospel, which, according to his conviction, was not another. It ought to be better known than it is that Dartmouth College was founded, and that as far north as possible, solely as a retaliatory nursery of Indian missionaries who were to evangelize Canada. Some of its first students were imported from the self-same spots where Deerfield's darlings had been perverted. See those rare pamphlets, President Wheelock's reports, onward from 1761. Miss Baker puts herself in the place equally of Puritan and Papist, and so does justice to both. She has made a book which no historical student can fail to prize. The citations *verbatim et literatim* of quaint manuscripts which were milestones and street-lamps in her progress, add alike to the raciness and authority of her writing.

In the next edition, which we hope to welcome in the near future, some oversights will be corrected. Rutland will not appear as in Vermont (p. 335), nor portholes for loopholes (p. 42), nor 1667 for 1677 (p. 114). The index cannot fail to be fourfold more copious; the narrative will be condensed—vain repetitions struck out and perhaps seventy pages of appendix omitted, which handicap a book now too large to be held in the hand and read by the fire.

Latin Manuscripts. By Harold W. Johnston. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. 1897.

This manual of 130 pages is the outcome of a course of lectures on Palæography, Hermeneutics, and Criticism delivered at the last session of the Summer School of Indiana University by Prof. H. W. Johnston of that University. The author tells us that it is an "elementary manual," and that it has been prepared, in reponse to the wish of teachers in Latin, for use in the high schools. We learn with gratified surprise that "questions relating to Palæography and Criticism" are common in the secondary schools of Indiana. "I hope," says Prof. Johnston, "that this volume contains all that students in high schools . . . will need in order to understand the critical notes found in the text-books commonly used." Happy secondary-school teachers of Indiana—*sua si bona norint!* If they have solved the problem how, with the high-school course, to produce Latin scholars, we wish they would confide their method to the teachers in the other States. At any rate, we welcome this effort to excite at an early stage scholarly interest and ambition—motives that are, for the most part, conspicuously absent from the make-up of the average secondary-school student of Latin. If such a student should be induced, by the beautiful reproductions of the MSS. and the general attractiveness of Mr. Johnston's book, to look into it, it may be trusted to create the taste by which it is to be enjoyed. At the least he will regard his 'Kelsey's Ovid,' or his 'Allen and Greenough's Cæsar,' with a more imaginative eye when he learns whence and how—through what strange channels and with what hairbreadth escapes—they have reached his unwilling hands.

It is no slight to Mr. Johnston's work to say that its most interesting page, at the present moment, is the facsimile plate of the new MS. of Catullus, the Codex Romanus discovered last year in the Vatican Library, hidden under a wrong number. Mr. Johnston was fortunate enough to secure from its discoverer, Prof. W. G. Hale, the privilege of publishing, for the first time, a facsimile page of this MS. For the information of those who are looking with interest for Mr. Hale's promised collation, and the Vatican facsimile shortly to be published, we may say that the date of the MS. is fourteenth century; the writing is minuscule, the hand North Italian Gothic. The MS. contains Catullus only, a rare circumstance in the case of MSS. of this author. The specimen page shows careful execution, and the elaborate initial letters and the writing are of peculiar beauty.

Mr. Johnston's book has three main divisions. The first treats of the history of the MSS., and describes their materials and manufacture, their publication, their transmission down to the present day, and their preservation in the libraries of Europe. The second and perhaps most interesting section deals with the science of Palæography, and gives the styles of writing, the various national "hands," the forms of the letters, and a fairly full treatment of the errors of scribes. In the third section Mr. Johnston defines the science of criticism, its methods and terminology, and gives useful illustrations of textual criticism, individual criticism *(Individual-Kritik)*—which term he rightly prefers to "Higher Criticism"—the limits of emendation, etc. Finally, he gives a description of the sixteen reproductions of Latin MSS., which are one of the best features of the book.

The main authority followed in the first section is, of course, Birt's 'Antikes Buchwesen' (1882); the plates are taken from Chatelain's 'Paléographie des Classiques Latines' (1884), with the exception of the Codex Romanus described above. A bibliography of Philological Criticism is a good deal to ask of an elementary manual; still, we regret its absence. One or two points call for further comment. We should not have said that the authorship of the treatise 'On the Sublime' is "generally attributed to Dionysius of Halicarnassus" (p. 115). On p. 83, for "fugibus" read *frugibus;* on p. 85, for "Voleanus" read *Volcanus.*

Juvenile Offenders. By W. Douglas Morrison. D. Appleton & Co. 1897.

Some years ago, in reviewing Mr. Morrison's 'Crime and Its Causes,' we commented on his remarkable capacity for dealing with statistical returns, as manifested in his destructive criticism of the view that crime was rapidly diminishing in England. It is gratifying to know, as Mr. Morrison, with pardonable pride, assures us, that his arguments have since then been admitted to be conclusive, and have resulted in a revision of the Criminal Returns for England and Wales that makes them now comparatively satisfactory. They are satisfactory, however, only from the statistical point of view; for they establish the fact that the proportion of habitual criminals in the criminal population is steadily increasing, and was never so high as it is now. The same is known to be true in France, Germany, and Italy, and, according to Mr. Morrison, "it means that, as far as the bulk of the criminal population is concerned, penal law and penal administration have completely broken down."

The supreme object of a properly constituted penal system, he continues, is to prevent the offender who has once been convicted from repeating the offence. To fail in this, as the English system fails, is to subject the community to the loss, disquietude, and danger arising from the existence in its midst of a compact and formidable body of habitual criminals. When the penal system fails to prevent the repetition of offences, it involves the necessity of maintaining a large body of police. Such a body costs much more for maintenance than all the convicts in jail; in England, the expense for police is ten times that for prisons. Moreover, the expense for police is but a part of that which precaution advises. When we consider the cost of private watchmen, burglar-alarms, safes, bolts, bars, and locks, we see that the furtive propensity constitutes a frightful burden on society.

Mr. Morrison's experience has convinced him that the habitual criminal, as a rule, begins young. There is a pretty clear line between occasional and habitual offenders, and the occasional criminal does not often degenerate into the habitual criminal, unless he acquires criminal habits in youth—generally before, frequently long before, attaining manhood. Hence the most effective method of dealing with habitual crime is to prevent the juvenile offender from acquiring confirmed criminal habits. To accomplish this it is necessary in the first place to understand the conditions that produce juvenile delinquency. A large part of this book is devoted to a study of these conditions, which Mr. Morrison classifies as individual and social. The chief individual conditions are the sex, the age, the bodily and mental characteristics of the juvenile offender. The most important social conditions are parental and economic. On all these points Mr. Morrison's investigations are of the greatest value, and deserve the attention of philanthropists in general.

The second part of the book is devoted to showing how existing methods of dealing with juvenile offenders may be better adapted to the end of diminishing the causes which produce juvenile crime. In Mr. Morrison's opinion, punitive methods, although to a certain extent indispensable, are of comparatively little service as instruments of social security. The difficulty is that these methods tend to aggravate the adverse conditions that produce juvenile crime. They make more criminals than they cure. The great problem is to bring ameliorative influences to bear on individual offenders,

and, what is more important, to improve the unfavorable conditions under which a considerable part of the youth of mankind are born and have to live. As Mr. Morrison says, "hitherto Christian charity has in the main directed its beneficent energies towards the alleviation of individual miseries. In the future its efforts must be more and more directed towards removing the causes by which these miseries are produced."

We can only speak in terms of general commendation of the manner in which Mr. Morrison addresses himself to these great problems. Many of his suggestions are of irresistible force, and his book as a whole deserves to be adopted as a manual by penologists. But we cannot resist the temptation to illustrate the author's merits by citing a few of his observations on the common theory that crime is principally caused by drunkenness. On this Mr. Morrison comments as follows:

"It is hardly possible for any one who looks at the connection between age and crime to take up this extreme position. Among children under the age of sixteen, it may be said, if the criminal returns are to be taken as a test, that such a thing as intemperance hardly exists. In 1894, in a total of nearly 100,000 convictions for being drunk, only about forty cases occurred among children under sixteen. Among the adult population between the ages of thirty and forty more than 50,000 convictions for drunkenness occurred. According to the theory that drink and crime inevitably go together, we ought to find the population between the ages of thirty and forty committing a great many more offences of an indictable character than the population under the age of sixteen. But as a matter of fact we do not find anything of the sort. Among juveniles under sixteen who are not addicted to the habit of drink, there are 261 indictable offenders to every 100,000 of the juvenile population under sixteen. On the other hand, among the population between thirty and forty who are largely addicted to drink there are only 200 indictable offenders to every 100,000 of the population of a similar age. In other words, there is less indictable crime among the drunken than among the sober section of the population."

The same conclusion follows from a comparison of the relatively sober population between sixteen and twenty-one with that between thirty and forty, the convictions for indictable offences being as 330 to 200. While these figures, as Mr. Morrison points out, do not tell the whole story, they are enough to correct the hasty generalizations of the prohibitionists; and their presentation is enough to prove the truth of our assertion that Mr. Morrison possesses the rare capacity of dealing with statistics according to the recognized methods of inductive science.

Navaho Legends. Collected and translated by Washington Matthews, M.D., LL.D. With introduction, notes, illustrations, texts, interlinear translations, and melodies. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. 299.

Among those who have made scientific conquest of our Southwest for American scholarship there is no more substantial name than that of Dr. Washington Matthews, U. S. A. Dean (by years in service) of that brave little school of field students which has defined the aboriginal tribes of our arid zone more precisely than any other tribes have yet been defined by American ethnography, he antedates even Bandelier. Without Bandelier's consummate documentary knowledge, unparalleled actual intimacy with the aborigines of two continents, and generic horizon, Dr. Matthews has the same specific, ingrained sincerity and sanity of observation, the same judicial prudence. Of field students of detail among the North American Indians there has been one more dazzling, but none quite so safe. Dr. Matthews misses alike the peaks and the pitfalls of the imaginative temperament. His work displays almost a genius for common sense; and the prophecy is not precarious that future knowledge will take fewer liberties with his results than with those of almost any other specialist of detail among our aborigines.

Dr. Matthews's 'Navaho Legends' is the most important Southwestern monograph since Bandelier's 'Final Report.' Only those who have learned the difficulties of studying Indian religious myths in fact (as contrasted with the collection of Indian tales from missionary and post-trader) will remotely guess for how much of patience and of learning this unpretentious record of the Navajo creation-myth really stands. There is no atmosphere of the oracle, no air of impressive generalization. Even the translucent kinship of Naithkíshi and Nayénezgani with the basic (and probably ancestral) Pueblo myth of the Hero brothers, twin-children of the Sun, he does not step aside to mark. He has appointed to himself the task of record, not of correlation. American ethnology is, in fact, in far more imminent need of field students than of comparative scientists. The evidence, once recorded, will always be ponderable; but time for the cross-examination of the living witnesses is all too short. The disintegration, among our Indian tribes, of whatever can profit ethnology is now fearfully rapid.

The harshest stricture that can be passed upon Dr. Matthews's monumental (though partial) volume concerns the spelling, into which he has been dragooned against his custom of years and apparently also his personal judgment. "Navaho" in place of the time-honored and etymologically sound "Navajo," "Moki" for "Moqui," and the like are vain concessions to ignorance. These are Spanish words learned by our scientists from their predecessors by centuries. Even the railroad "folders" do not butcher them; even the emigrant tourist learns to pronounce them. Dr. Matthews's audience is no less teachable. He does not write "San Whon" and "San Hosay" and "Santa Fay" and "Pweblo" for San Juan, San José, Santa Fé, and Pueblo. Why, then, distort words just as definitively fixed in our geography and our history? These awkward modern impertinences with words immortalized by students centuries before we came upon the scene, in no wise remedy the average American mind. To the scholar there could hardly be a ruder barbarism than "Navaho" for a Spanish word of powerful aspirate, and "Navahoes" for its plural; and how is the average lay reader to know if he shall call it Na-vah'-ho, Na-vā'-ho, Navva-ho', or what not?

The Bureau of Ethnology is responsible for these innovations—as also for the ingenious Washington alphabet it has devised for the representation of Indian vocables; an alphabet which makes even so lucid a book as this practically intolerable to the general reader. It is to be noted that not one scientist of the very first class, whose Indian was acquired in the field and not in the library, has ever voluntarily adopted this extraordinary literal jargon, nor yet the "Englished" proper names. When there is such speed to "reform" the safe and invariable Spanish spelling, why must we have familiar English sounds hidden behind unfamiliar symbols? When *d*=th, and *s*=sh, and *ts*=ch, why, in the name of reason, may we not have th and sh and ch? There is no sound attempted to be conveyed by this alien alphabet which could not be as well or better conveyed by the letters and symbols in every printer's "case." Even if we have to employ the apostrophe for that curious hiatus so common in some of our aboriginal tongues, and its Greek reverse for certain aspirates, and in desperate cases (rarer in Navajo than in other Southwestern tongues) the not recondite umlaut, it would still be a vast gain in legibility. As a matter of common sense, the scheme of pronunciation for an aboriginal tongue must be based on Continental values. To try to define unknown sounds on an English key is palpably impossible. The only Continental standard which has historic application to our aborigines is Spanish. The Spanish nomenclature has become in three centuries crystallized upon the Southwest, its history, its literature, its science, the daily speech of half a million of its American citizens; and there is something parvenu in replacing it with the inexact and esoteric cacography invented by theorists to whom Dr. Matthews certainly should not stand in the relation of pupil.

Mon Vieux Paris. Deuxième Série. Par Édouard Drumont. 100 dessins de Gaston Coindre. Paris: Ernest Flammarion; New York: Brentano.

M. Drumont's continuation of 'Mon Vieux Paris' is a kind of 'Twenty Years After.' The first volume appeared in 1878, and the intervening time has accentuated the author's devotion to the past by increasing his disgust for the present. His tone reminds one of Talleyrand's valedictory remark that to know how pleasant life can be, one must have lived under the *ancien régime*. M. Drumont, possibly to heighten the effect of his narrative, but more probably from genuine antiquarian feeling, launches innuendoes and even diatribes on every page against the "germanisation" of Paris during the past twenty-five years, and against the modern lack of good taste in urban construction. The Germans naturally catch it the hardest. "L'Allemand a pris possession de la capitale: il a eu ses quatre corps d'armée pour l'invasion comme en 1870: les Philosophes à la Schopenhauer, les Financiers voleurs, les Musiciens et les Vendeurs de bocks." One must open Hare's 'Walks' in the various Italian towns to find such bitterness of spirit concerning modern changes and governments. Even Hare, when assailing the "Sardinian kingdom," is hardly so abusive as M. Drumont becomes in criticising the shortcomings of the Third Republic. According to him, it has repudiated its promise to bring in the reign of general fraternity and justice, and has nothing to show "qu'une longue suite d'humiliations, de turpitudes et de scandales." From a deserted Palais Royal, a deformed Champs-Élysées, and huge brasseries "décorées avec un luxe criard," he turns for relief to the Paris which was picturesque before the influx of strangers had taken it from the French and handed it over to a "colluvies omnium gentium."

M. Drumont's "vieux Paris" of the present series is not a very ancient one. So far from attempting to discuss the misty and forgotten Lutetia, he is chary about venturing even into the Valois period. His chapters are separate studies, and almost all of them begin with the Revolution. The most useful to the historical reader (though its symmetry is marred by too long and frequent extracts from the *Journal de Paris*) is that which traces the wanderings of successive legislative assemblies during the last hundred years. M. Drumont begins with the Salle des États-Généraux at Versailles, and comes down to the Republican gathering at the Luxembourg after Sedan. The theme affords him a favorable opportunity (of which he takes full advantage) to slate the constitutional bodies of the first Revolution. He has collected a great deal of acceptable information, but it is interlarded with such constant detraction that one is almost forced to read between the lines and see in what purports to be archæology a political animus. Other leading chapters take up the Palais Royal, the Tuileries, the Champs-Élysées, the Trocadéro, and the Hôtel de Ville. The heading, "Alexandre Lenoir et le Musée des Monuments Français" introduces a purely artistic subject, and "L'Hôtel de Sens" revives the illustrious Tristan de Salazar, the scandals of Duprat, and the gallantries of Marguerite de Valois. To show the width of M. Drumont's range we may mention also two pieces which, in their present context, are somewhat unexpected, though beyond criticism on account of their value: the one an analysis of the municipal budget in 1774, and the other an analysis of the accounts kept by Denys-Marie Armand from the 20th Ventôse to the 20th Thermidor of the year II.

Among the symptoms of M. Drumont's discontent with French ideals of the moment is dislike of international exhibitions. After running over his remarks on the national shortsightedness in promoting them, no one can accuse him of having published this work that it may sell largely among those who are already preparing to visit Paris in 1900. He maintains that the French, by revealing their methods of manufacture, have cut the tree to get its fruit; have killed the goose to get her golden eggs. He holds that a world's fair is organized for the benefit of the large, well-established businesses, of the Paris shops, and of the hotels. It flourishes at the expense of the small producer. Yet, though M. Drumont may despise foreign visitors to Paris as much as he censures those who exploit them, his book in both its parts ought to prove extremely serviceable to the intelligent tourist. It is Gallic in its terseness and lucidity; Gallic, too, in its ignorance of other countries and in its vaunting strain. M. Drumont calls a former English owner of the Hôtel de Noailles, "sir Egerton," and appears to have only just learned from Paul Bourget that in America towns of 100,000 inhabitants spring up suddenly. Were his knowledge of other capitals wider he might soften an occasional superlative.

We must accord special praise to the beautiful illustrations of Gaston Coindre with which these pages are studded. M. Drumont neatly observes in the preface that when he espies the earlier volume on a table, he sometimes forgets that he has written the text, and, carried away by M. Coindre's sketches, exclaims, "Quel joli petit livre!" Their delicacy is indeed admirable, and they are a relief to the monotony of current photographic reproduction. The proof-reading is of a lower quality. Slips like *resbytère* for *presbytère*, and *Place ou Carrousel* for *Place du Carrousel* are too frequent in an edition which has pretensions to neatness. We have mentioned all the cavils that need be made, and can conclude by stating that the second series of 'Mon Vieux Paris' is one of those books which render the Dingley bill a weariness to the flesh.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arnold, Birch. A New Aristocracy. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Caro, Madam. Bitter Fruits. F. T. Neely.
Champion, Edme. La France d'après les Cahiers de 1789. Paris: Colin & Cie.
Clarke, M. The Story of Troy. American Book Co. 60c.
Coakley, T. W. Keef: A Life-Story in Nine Phases. Boston: C. E. Brown & Co. $1.
Colton, Calvin. Works of Henry Clay. 7 vols. New York: Henry Clay Publishing Co.
Cooke, Frances E. England. [History for Young Readers.] Appletons. 60c.
Courthope, Prof. W. J. A History of English Poetry. Vol. II. Macmillan. $2.50.
Cranch, C. P. Translation of the Æneid. Books I.-III. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
Crozier, J. B. History of Intellectual Development. Vol. I. Longmans, Green & Co. $4.50.
Daudet, Alphonse. La Fédor: Pages de la Vie. Paris: Flammarion; New York: Dyrsen & Pfeiffer.
Derr, W. L. Block-Signal Operation. D. Van Nostrand Co. $1.50.
Gardiner, Prof. S. R. Cromwell's Place in History. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.
Griffin, Prof. W. H. Dobson's Handbook of English Literature. New ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.50.
Habel, Jean. Ansichten aus Südamerika. Berlin: Dietrich Reimer.
Hallowell, Elisabeth M. Elementary Drawing. Macmillan.
Hart, Prof. A. B. American History Told by Contemporaries. Vol. I. Era of Colonization, 1492-1689. Macmillan. $2.
Hatton, Joseph. The Dagger and the Cross. P. F. Collier.
Johnson, Helen K. Woman and the Republic. Appletons. $1.50.
Kitton, F. G. The Novels of Charles Dickens: A Bibliography and Sketch. London: Elliot Stock; New York: A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.25.
Kroeker, Kate F. Germany. [History for Young Readers.] Appletons. 60c.
Lameda, L., and Rosales, M. L. Historia Militar y Política del General Joaquin Crespo. Vol I. Caracas: Imprenta Bolivar.
Larned, J. N. A Talk about Books. Buffalo: Peter Paul Book Co.
Mason, A. E. W. The Philanderers. Macmillan. $1.25.
Odgers, W. B. An Outline of the Law of Libel. Macmillan. $1.
Bosanquet, B. Psychology of the Moral Self. Macmillan. $1.25.
Snaith, J. C. Fierceheart the Soldier: A Romance of 1745. Appletons. $1.
Spofford, Harriet P. In Titian's Garden, and Other Poems. Boston: Copeland & Day.
Sprigge, S. S. The Life and Times of Thomas Wakley. Longmans, Green & Co. $6.
Steevens, G. W. The Land of the Dollar. Dodd, Mead & Co.
Stephens, Kate. Johnson's Pope. Harpers.
Stevens, C. E. The Romance of Arenfels, and Other Tales of the Rhine. Putnams. $1.25.
Stock, St. George. Lectures in the Lyceum; or, Aristotle's Ethics for English Readers. Longmans. $2.50.
Temple, O. P. The Covenanter, the Cavalier, and the Puritan. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. $1.50.
Tennyson, Lord. The Princess. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 30c.
"The Century." Nov., 1896—April, 1897. The Century Co.
Turk, Prof. M. H. De Quincey's Flight of a Tartar Tribe. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 25c.
Voynich, E. L. The Gadfly. Henry Holt & Co. $1.25.
Welch, Alfred. Extracts from the Diary of Moritz Svengali. Henry Holt & Co. 50c.
Wells, Prof. Webster. Essentials of Algebra. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn. $1.10.
Winfield, Arthur M. Schooldays of Fred Harley. New York: W. L. Allison Co.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 17, 1897.

The Week.

It is now conceded by all that the Senate will not accept the recommendations of the finance committee for increased taxes on beer and tobacco and a duty on tea, to obtain the $32,000,000 of additional revenue which Mr. Aldrich has declared necessary in order to secure a surplus of less than $3,000,000. The Senate committee is now discussing the proposition for a stamp tax on bank checks, but the Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* reports that such a measure is generally considered excusable only in time of war, and that "it can be put down as certain that the House will not consent to it." It is not strange that Congressmen should shrink from imposing a tax of this sort after refusing to increase the tax on beer and tobacco. A stamp tax is a good way of raising revenue, but that fact does not commend it to our national legislators. Their theory seems to be that any tax which will raise revenue is for that reason not to be thought of, and so they go on adopting prohibitory rates of duty and condemning every proposed change which would bring money into the Treasury.

The truth is that Senator Aldrich has put the Republican party "in a hole" by his reference to revenue taxes in his speech last month. After showing the absolute necessity of securing at least $24,000,000 more from internal-revenue taxes, as well as $8,000,000 from a duty on tea, he demonstrated the propriety of obtaining this $24,000,000 from heavier rates on beer and tobacco. "Assuming that the necessity for additional revenue exists," he said, "there can be no question, no economic reason, and none that affects the public interests, why beer and tobacco should not bear their share of additional taxation." Nobody has ever disputed this statement. No economic reason, no reason that affects the public interest, has been given why the beer tax should not be increased. Everybody knows that there is only one reason why this wise policy is not adopted, and that is because the Republican managers do not want to run the risk of offending the brewing interest. Such a surrender is as foolish politically as economically. Instead of insuring a Republican victory in Ohio, the Philadelphia *Ledger* warns the party that, "with the proposed abject surrender of the majority of the Senate to such influences, the result of the election in that and in some of the Western States may reasonably be considered doubtful."

All that the Senate positively did on Friday was to increase, by a majority of only two votes, the differential in favor of refined sugar—and so, of course, in favor of the Sugar Trust. The very narrowness of the majority will, we should suppose, incite the House to make a fight for its own lower rates. But the most significant thing in the day's proceedings was Senator Allison's frank avowal that the sugar schedule was not intended to be a revenue schedule. He said openly, "I wish to disclaim any responsibility for this duty as a revenue duty." What it was meant for was to shut out foreign sugar altogether, and lead to our producing ourselves all we consume. In other words, Mr. Allison and the finance committee accept the platform of the beet-sugar growers. This means the repeal of the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty, the levying of a surtax on German and Austrian sugar, and the inauguration of a tariff war with those countries.

The action of the Senate regarding barley last week showed the utter contempt which the Republicans of that body feel for the protests of their own party against the prohibitive rates of duty which the pending bill so frequently imposes. The existing rate on barley is 30 per cent. ad valorem, which, at the present value of barley, is less than 10 cents per bushel. Under this rate importations have practically ceased, and yet the pending bill raises the duty to 30 cents per bushel, which must be absolutely prohibitive. The Republican business men and newspapers of Oswego, N. Y., rose in revolt against this proposition when they first heard of it, and the *Times* of that city a few days ago expressed the opinion that "when a candid examination of this item in the tariff bill, as now proposed, is made, there will be no hesitation in modifying the rate to conform to the principles of protective tariff legislation as expounded by Senator Aldrich himself," in his speech introducing the bill, when he said that "in the readjustment of rates suggested the committee have tried in every instance to make them sufficiently protective to domestic interests, without being prohibitive." But when this part of the bill was reached on June 1, the prohibitive rates were sustained, and the Oswego Republicans were notified that Mr. Aldrich's words were not intended to be taken seriously—as they ought to have known from the start.

We regret to have to record a great breach made in the protective theory on Thursday by the defeat of the proposed bounty on agricultural exports. It is well known that protection is a system of pure logic. All its parts hang together in beautiful coördination and dependence, and all you have to do to get a new protective tax is to show that it is strictly logical. Sugar was made free in 1890 because the logic of protection called for it; and it will be taxed in 1897 for the same reason. Now the Lubin doctrine of really protecting farmers by paying them bounties can be shown to be a necessary and logical part of protection. Lubin has challenged the American Tariff League to meet him in joint debate on that subject, for a stake of $1,000, but they have not dared pick up his glove. Nor were the arguments of the bounty advocates answered in the Senate on Thursday; they could not be. They were simply voted down. Logic could do nothing against brute numbers. Mr. Lubin's inference is that protection is, therefore, not what it professes to be, but a one-sided, humbugging, and fraudulent affair. It needs not a *Dogberry* to affirm that this has now been clearly proved, and that it will go hard but it will soon be believed.

With the certainty that some kind of tariff bill will get through the Senate, speculation about the conference committee—who will compose it and what they will do—is getting to be the subject of first interest at Washington. It has been a tacit protectionist maxim from of old, "Let who will make the House tariff or the Senate tariff, provided I may make the conference-committee tariff." The subtle art of compromise has never had more wonderful exhibitions than in this committee. It was in the tariff of 1883, we believe, that the House voted for a duty of 50 cents a ton on coal and the Senate for 25 cents; this divergence of views was harmonized in committee by agreeing on a duty of 75 cents. When asked how they came to split the difference in this somewhat puzzling way, one of the conferees explained that "Mahone wanted it." Mahone was not even on the committee, but he stuck his head in at the door, asked for a 75-cent duty, and got it. This illustrates the majesty as well as the mystery of a conference committee, and explains the anxiety of the wool-growers as to how they may fare there. They are said to be much alarmed just now over rumors that Senator Quay is reserving his "strategy" for the conference committee. He is going to lull them into a false security by letting them get their high duties on carpet wools through the Senate, and then, in the interest of the Philadelphia carpet-

manufacturers, have them cut in two in conference. The Pennsylvania Senator will no doubt bear watching in any question of tariff strategy; as Voltaire said of Habbakuk, he is *capable de tout*. And the worst of it is, from the wool-growers' point of view, that the conference committee, if made up according to precedent, will consist almost wholly of Eastern Representatives and Senators, who cannot be depended upon always to do the right thing by the American sheep.

The weekly imports at New York, as hitherto reported, showed that the culmination of the import movement here came in the first and second weeks of June; since then, the weekly importations had decreased 40 per cent. But Tuesday's returns for the entire United States prove that the general movement culminated even before last month. From the April aggregate of $101,305,131, the country's total import trade dropped suddenly in May to $79,321,827. These May returns, it is true, are still above the normal average, alike of earlier months this year and of the same month in preceding years. But there is no such startling difference as was presented by the April record, and, moreover, the returns of New York's weekly importations, falling from $18,382,000 in the opening week of May to $10,906,907 last week, prove that the total June returns will be still smaller. Meantime, it will be noticed that the country's export figures for the month of May show a further increase. They exceed the May exports of 1896 by upwards of $11,000,000, and they have never been approached in any spring month of our history. The balance of international trade in merchandise, which in April turned to $23,579,431 excess of imports over exports, in May presented an import excess of only $1,559,343. The export balance for the eleven completed months of the fiscal year still reaches $298,180,659, which was not approached, within forty or fifty millions, even in years of such enormous outward trade as 1879 and 1892.

In no State have the Populists made such a failure of administration as in Kansas. They secured practically complete control of the government, and they did practically nothing. While this was very satisfactory to the conservative part of the community, it was of course discouraging to sincere Populists. They might well be disappointed that they could pass none of the tremendous measures demanded by their principles; they could better endure that the measures should fail of their effect when enacted than fail to be enacted at all. But in one respect they were not disappointed. They secured a Superintendent of Insurance who showed a genuine and implacable hostility to all the corporations that he could get at. Among other feats he banned the companies that insured against damage from tornadoes and wind-storms. Possibly he possesses the enthusiastic patriotism of Burke, who replied to a casual questioner concerning the waste and desolate regions of Ireland: "You are a liar and a scoundrel. There are no such regions in Ireland." But if the Kansas Superintendent of Insurance thought that the State was exempt from wind-storms, he was mistaken, for two days after he drove the insurance companies out, destructive gales swept over the western part of Kansas, destroying thousands of acres of wheat which the farmers had been prevented from insuring.

The worst feature of State universities is their dependence upon the will of legislative majorities. There is probably nothing for which the modern lawmaker is worse fitted than the construction of an educational course or the selection of instructors, and yet questions of this sort are always liable to be raised in the State-house. The Texas Legislature last week spent hours in discussing the university of that commonwealth, a controversy having been precipitated by the charge that the professor of political economy was teaching "Northern ideas" regarding the struggle which ended in the civil war. The University of Washington, which was just gaining a respectable footing, has been utterly demoralized by the triumph of Populism last fall. The Portland *Oregonian* draws this melancholy picture of its present situation: "Deprived of the head to whom all its late and slow growth was due, made the spoil of patronage-traders and the refuge of place-seekers, defiled with nepotism by the Governor, whose chief charge it should be, and delivered bound and helpless to be stripped and torn and devoured by a flock of vulgar and greedy harpies forced into the board of regents, it has lost all standing as a place of learning and become the dirty nest of a brood of worthless sinecurists." The outlook is only less gloomy, according to the same authority, in Oregon, where the university "has had to fight for its very life against drowning in the dirty pool of State and local politics, and the outcome of the struggle is still in doubt." In Missouri and West Virginia, also, political bigotry is disorganizing the State educational institutions.

It is a healthy sign of the times that the Legislature of Illinois should have repealed, without any serious opposition, the law which requires the display of the national flag on all schools and public buildings. The statute was passed in Illinois, like similar ones in other States, during recent years, under a sort of craze which swept over the country. These laws were based upon the theory that the only way to develop patriotism among the young was to keep the flag constantly before their eyes, and that we could not expect to have men ready to volunteer in case of war unless they saluted the colors at frequent intervals while they were boys. The impudence of this plea was only enhanced by the fact that we have still hundreds of thousands of survivors of the army which sprang to the defence of the Union in 1861, and which was composed of men who seldom saw the stars and stripes except on gala occasions. The truth is that the national flag is really cheapened by making it common, and that it is much more impressive to the young when it is displayed only on a national holiday, or on the anniversary of some historic event, than when they see it flying over the schoolhouse every day. The example of the Illinois Legislature in undoing the blunder of flag legislation merits general imitation.

The refusal of the Court of Appeals to grant a rehearing in the Brooklyn civil-service case was generally anticipated. A few weeks ago it would have been the final and serious decision of the most critical matter connected with the service, but the passage of Gov. Black's bill puts a new face on the whole question. He is introducing (except so far as his efforts are thwarted by city heads of departments who, like Messrs. Scott and Waring, surrender to the old City Commission their new powers) a totally novel system, which may turn out to be entirely unconstitutional. The Civil-Service Association will, as soon as possible, make a test case and let the courts determine whether the bill embodies a "competitive" system or not. The Court of Appeals in its late decision intimated that the Legislature had complete control of the details, but the judges have never held that this would permit the establishment of a system of sham competition, in which "merit" is distinguished from "fitness," and a board is directed to rate applicants while the right to determine the force of the rating is lodged in the appointing power, thus rendering the whole scheme nugatory. If this is competition, what is favoritism?

Mr. Low's strength as a candidate for the mayoralty of Greater New York is shown with especial clearness when one considers the straits to which it will put Tammany in the finding of an opponent to him. If Tammany nominates a man who is weak on the money question, it will send all the hard-money Democrats over to Mr. Low, to whom they are inclined naturally anyway. If it nominates a hard-money Democrat, it

will be in danger of losing a considerable body of Bryanite voters. If it nominates a German in order to attract German supporters because of dislike of the Raines law, there is likely to be trouble with the Irish vote. Yet it will have difficulty in getting the German vote without a candidate of that nationality. If it nominates a highly respectable man in order to gain the confidence of the respectable Democratic vote, there is danger of dissatisfaction and possible revolt among the masses who follow Tammany because it professes to be so "close to the people." The fact is that Mr. Low, by standing so preëminently for the issue of good government, and being so remarkably free from partisanship of any kind, is a natural magnet for the intelligent vote of all parties and of all nationalities. Thousands of Democrats will find it very hard to discover an excuse for not voting for him, especially with a Tammany candidate as the only alternative.

Mustapha Bey, the Turkish Minister at Washington, will have another chance to score off American sympathizers with the victims of the Sultan. He referred the other day to the Urbana lynching, when asked about Turkish outrages, and presently an even more brutal and shocking affair occurred in Maryland. A negro actually under sentence of death was torn from the officers of the law and kicked and strangled to death in broad daylight by an infuriated mob, not one man of whom even deigned to disguise himself. The Judge who had just sentenced the criminal to death, rushed out to implore the mob to let the law take its course, but was lucky to get off himself without lynching. These occurrences certainly give a queer look to our horror at Armenian massacres. If we content ourselves with protesting against our own lynchings, and disowning them, we are no better than the Sultan; he always protests against his own murderous exploits. If some of that Princess Anne mob cannot be brought to justice, why should any sentence of any court, or any law on the statute-book, be any longer respected or heeded in Maryland?

The remarks of Mr. Wilfred Laurier, the Canadian Premier, on British imperial unity are of the very highest significance. Most of the English colonies have been represented by their public men as anxious for an imperial customs union, under which England should impose duties on imports from foreign countries, while the colonies should retain their own protective systems. This policy has been the object of some coquettish sympathy on the part of the Tories, but, as the first step to be taken under it would be to levy a tax upon the bread of the English people, it has never assumed a very definite shape. Mr. Chamberlain has been supposed to favor it, as he has intimated that he had something magnificent in view in the way of colonial policy; but if he has had any such plan in mind it would be ridiculous to propose it after Mr. Laurier's speech. That statesman declared plainly that a "Zollverein" was nothing but a name for protection, and that protection was an injurious humbug. It has been, as he said, the curse and bane of Canada, and it would be the greatest possible mistake for England and the empire. Canada has now turned her back on this pernicious fallacy, and has no disposition to ask England to adopt it, with the result of weakening herself and thereby injuring the whole empire, Canada included. "By our tariff," declared Mr. Laurier, "we in Canada give you preference as a free gift. We ask nothing in return; we do not desire you to abandon the grand principles of free trade; we desire rather to follow in your free-trade lead, trading where trading is most natural." As to the grand schemes of imperial naval defence, under which the West Indies are being fortified, and which have been supported by arguments very familiar to American ears, Mr. Laurier was equally chilling. The only country, he said, with which Canada could ever be at war would be the United States, and such a war would be a crime against humanity which he would not consider as a possibility against which precautions should be taken.

The return of the Conservative candidate for the Petersfield district of Hampshire by a majority of 420 in a poll of 7,076 is another indication, like the trouble over Crewe, of the drift away from the foreign policy of Lord Salisbury. In the last election, which settled the fate of home rule, the Conservative candidate was returned without opposition, and there was no evidence in this canvass of any dissatisfaction with the home policy of the Government. Indeed, the Nonconformist Unionist Association urged the support of Mr. W. G. Nicholson, the Conservative candidate, on the express ground that home rule must never again be allowed to show its head, while the campaign of his opponent, Mr. John Bonham-Carter, was made on foreign questions. Hampshire is naturally a Tory county, and the success of Mr. Nicholson by a small majority there cannot be very encouraging to his party. There is no trace yet in England of anything but dissatisfaction with the part it is playing in Europe.

The suicide of the man who for the last ten years has been the great diamond millionaire and operator of the world fixes public attention for a few hours upon a very remarkable career. It is one of those careers which "read like a fairy story" or a tale of the Arabian Nights. The rise, splendor, and downfall of the hero show the ease with which wealth in our day is rapidly acquired, brings in its wake sudden fame and position, and is as suddenly followed by total ruin and collapse. Barney never cared much for respectability, but he dearly liked the notice of respectable people, for that was the one thing he had never had in his early days. He got it in abundance. Not only all the bankers and "financiers," but many of the dwellers in the great London houses, came to see and honor him, and, but for his own somewhat natural incapacity for taking himself seriously, he might gradually have outgrown even his name, and become Sir Barnet Barnato, or sunk it altogether in a title. He seems to have thought of paving the way for a creditable old age by giving out a "history of his life," in which he claimed a good family connection, and accounted for the earlier years of his life as having been passed in the care of "private tutors." But the joke was too good to keep to himself, and he spoilt the effect of his biography by laughing over it with his friends. The climax of this part of his career came when he was entertained at the Mansion House by the Lord Mayor, and heard himself and his operations lauded to the skies. At that moment he was one of the most powerful men in the world.

Defenders of the duel may well be pleased with the result of the meeting which took place on June 2 between Count de Montesquiou and Henri de Regnier. It seems that De Regnier's sister-in-law, at a *conversazione*, "turned the conversation on a cane carried by the Count," remarking that it was "just the sort of cane that might have been used at the Charity Bazaar fire to beat the ladies," *innuendo*, as the lawyers say, that the Count was one of the brutes who maltreated women in order to escape. The remark was resented by the Count, and he at once challenged De Regnier, who had been present when it was made. De Regnier, who appears to be a sensible man, allowed his seconds to propose an arbitration; upon which the Count "branded" him as a coward, and, according to French ideas, practically forced him to fight. The duel was a real one, but the Count was disabled by a wound in the hand, and so, unluckily for him, escaped death. To those interested in social survivals, it is curious to notice how freely the ladies' names were dragged into the affair and bandied about. The old idea that men engaged in a quarrel caused by a woman should be careful to keep her out of it—sometimes pushed so far that a different cause of quarrel was invented in order to shelter the lady—seems to be quite out of date.

MR. McKINLEY'S HAWAIIAN POLICY.

All accounts agree that the President will send to the Senate a treaty for the annexation of the Hawaiian Islands. Just when he will do it, and just in what terms the treaty will be couched, are, of course, secrets as yet. But they are unimportant secrets. The main thing is the deliberate entrance by the Administration upon a policy of annexation and colonial expansion. At the time of the Hawaiian flurry four years ago, a vast amount of partisan intrigue and passion entered into the question. Baffled conspirators and foiled plunderers always rage and lift up their voices when they see their prey plucked from between their very jaws, and much of the hysterics over President Cleveland's Hawaiian policy was but the sincere anguish of men who saw good things, and, as they had thought, sure things, slipping away from them. But all that heat is past. The original conspiracy to overthrow the Hawaiian Government and steal away the islands, in which the American Minister participated, does not now enter directly into the question. With the slate sponged clean, Mr. McKinley has undertaken to write on it a policy entirely new for the United States.

To what motives or to what pressure he has yielded it is not for us to say. He had given many to understand that he was radically opposed to annexation. When, in his inaugural address, he warned his countrymen against "the temptation of territorial aggression," he was thought to have Hawaii in mind. His choice of a Secretary of State who was on record against annexation was supposed to look the same way. In private he has given assurances which were taken to mean uncompromising hostility to all kinds of foreign embroilment and to Hawaiian annexation in particular. But the country has found out, what students of McKinley's career were well persuaded of, that his faculty of adapting his words to his hearers does not at all imply that he has a will of his own against Congress or against the masterful leaders of his party. Boileau was once discussing a grammatical point with the Prince of Condé, who grew violent. The poet sarcastically apologized, saying, "I shall hereafter always take good care to agree wth you when you are angry." Mr. McKinley always agrees with conventions and parties—and even visitors—that are really angry.

Though time has taken most of the fury out of the Hawaiian question, it has not in the least diminished the objections to Hawaiian annexation. These objections relate both to the annexation itself and to what it signifies for the future. No one pretends that the population of the islands is a desirable addition. According to the latest census, taken within a year, it consists of 109,020 souls, of whom the full-blooded natives number 31,000, the Japanese 24,000, the Chinese 22,000, the Portuguese 15,000, half-breed Hawaiians 8,000, with scattering Americans, English, Germans, etc. What are we going to do with these mixed races? Evidently the Chinese and Japanese will have to go. Any treaty must leave the laws of the United States supreme over the territory annexed, and our laws do not admit of the incoming of Chinese laborers, or, constructively, of Japanese. So the first thing we should have to do would be to give these 50,000 Orientals a week's notice to quit. Then we could, with fresh enthusiasm, pass resolutions against the expulsion of the Jews from Russia and the Armenian deportations. Hawaii is to be given a "territorial government," it is said. But is this to be under the present laws practically disfranchising the natives? Are the Portuguese to retain the suffrage, and be allowed to outvote the handful of Americans? And how long will it be before Hawaii is a full-fledged State, and before our Presidential elections will turn on the ability of Hawaiian bosses to "swing" the Portuguese or the Hula vote?

These are only a few of the practical difficulties of annexation that leap to every one's mind. But the objections to annexation *per se*, strong as they are, weigh little compared with those to the policy of which annexation is but the first step. In the first place, it will give a new fillip to our already excessive and alarming national extravagance and overweening arrogance and aggressiveness. Eager Congressmen, with the usual contractors behind them, are already exulting over Hawaii as a splendid place to spend money. There are harbors to be improved and fortified, and channels to be dredged, and railroads to be built, and cables to be laid, and coaling stations to be provided. All this means more ships and more bumptiousness. One little group of islands will do very well for a while, but soon others will have to be exploited, and we shall enter upon a glorious course of "land-grabbing." Cuba will come in, of course, and San Domingo and Hayti and St. Thomas; nor will the mainland of Central and South America long escape our covetous eyes. There may still be a United States, but it will not be the United States we now know.

People talk about the grand civilizing and protecting mission of the United States. We are not to shrink selfishly and timidly within our own borders, but are to go forth, as a state-errant, to redress the wrongs of other countries, to rescue the oppressed, and, incidentally, to take their land. That is what is called the "reason of state" which has to override the ordinary reasons. But reason of state is a Machiavellian phrase which, as John Morley said in his recent lecture on the author of 'The Prince,' is translated in practice into reason of party, and that into reason of plunder. That is the great difficulty with this theory of our international mission. The mission is a grandiose conception, but there is nothing grandiose about the missionaries who are to execute it. What they have in their minds is a remorseless trampling upon native rights, opportunities for personal enrichment, readiness to pick a quarrel with every nation that gets in their way, and an era of general national extravagance and waste and oppressive taxation. That, in plain terms, is what the benevolent mission of the United States will come to in execution—its tender mercies proving cruel—and that is the end to which the Hawaiian beginning will surely conduct us.

A SOUTH AMERICAN ERROR.

Most of the speeches made at the Pan-American dinner here last Thursday were essentially the same speeches that have been made at other banquets of the same kind before. There was the funny speech about the "dark-eyed señoritas" from our witty Mayor; there was the familiar speech—this time from Mr. Romero—pointing out that one reason why we have so little trade with South America is that Americans "do not pack goods in convenient form," and "do not consult the taste of the people to whose wants they are trying to cater," and "do not give the banking facilities and credits that are cheerfully allowed by England." Seth Low made the speech pointing out that "foreign trade broadens the national mind." Arthur Hitchins of Rio predicted that trade was increasing and would increase. Ex-Mayor Grace reminded his audience that the people of Spanish America were "always eager for whatever is good and useful," and declared that we would see that they had it. Mr. Fernandez of Costa Rica lamented the lack of steamship lines. Mr. Oscar Straus made the speech in favor of international arbitration, pointing out that the historical tie which binds South America to us is founded upon our intervention in 1823 against the Holy Alliance, that our mission is a peaceful one, that "America for the Americans" does not mean a bellicose but a peaceful policy, and that the true way to build up trade and to strengthen our hold in this hemisphere is to improve our consular and diplomatic service. Mr. Warner Miller repeated, in his own fascinating way, what the others had said before.

It was a glorious occasion, and will, we have no doubt, like the Philadelphia festivity at which the President explained his views on the same subject, do much to encourage all good Pan-Americans. What we miss, however, is a speech elucidating to the South Ame-

rican mind a point which both Señor Mendonça and Señor Romero have evidently failed to grasp—that we have a system of trade and commerce which we are extending and applying as fast as possible, that it is one which is novel and peculiar, and that its nature makes our method of extending trade on this continent different from that fostered by European nations.

The South Americans are clearly of opinion that a nation which wants to trade with another can go to work only in one way, by encouraging the building of ships to carry its products, by establishing a thoroughly good consular and diplomatic service so that it may have the best sources of official information, and by so arranging its tariff as to tax lightly all the imports which form the raw materials of its manufactures. This is the European way, and the Europeans, by pursuing it steadily for fifty years, have filled South American ports with their ships, established everywhere markets for their manufactures, become the bankers and moneylenders of all South American countries, and have made the connection between South America and Europe as close as ours is distant and shadowy.

But was it to be expected that we would lightly admit that the European way was the only way? Not by any means. We have a system of our own, which has not really had a chance yet, but which is in operation, and must very soon produce some striking effects. We will endeavor to describe it.

Every one admits that what is wanted is to build up trade with South America, and this means that we must have a great export of manufactures to South America. It would be idle to learn how to pack goods to suit the taste of the Venezuelans or Brazilians if they don't want our goods at all. We have hardly any merchant marine, and to wait to build up trade till we have one, especially when the ships of all the world are ready to carry our cargoes, would be the height of folly. For the same reason, although our diplomatic and consular service might be improved, trade cannot wait for that; if trade is ready, the improved consuls and ministers must follow in its wake.

For this reason every one is agreed that we must stimulate imports. The error of the South Americans and even of our own statesmen like Warner Miller lies in not seeing that we are stimulating imports. No doubt they have some excuse. The old object of protection was to keep out imports, and, by keeping them out, to stimulate the employment of American capital and American labor in the production of things needed for the American market. But the tariff at the present day is used for a purpose entirely different. A modern tariff has two main objects. One is to get money to elect a worthy President, the other is the even higher and nobler aim of forcing people to import. The moment the fact is stated, the truth of the observation must be apparent to every impartial person. We have now had a tariff in preparation for several months, and the main questions involved are what taxes shall be laid on wool and sugar. No sooner had the discussion begun than the wool ships began to crowd into Boston and the sugar ships into Philadelphia. Fleet upon fleet came crowding in, until it is said that we have enough wool in the country to supply the mills for three years and enough sugar to supply the refiners for a year. What is true of wool and sugar is also true of hides and lumber and all the varied products of the earth. This was the object of the retroactive clause.

This is Trade. It makes no difference how the things come in if they do come in. The European way may do very well in Europe, but the South Americans must not expect us to introduce it here. We prefer our own way, which is to threaten to change our whole tariff about every four years and to threaten such monstrous rates of duty as to drive every one who has got a mill or a factory in this country to import like mad. and "stock up" with material enough to last him until the next change. This works in two ways. He must import, while he can, in advance, but the great merit of this scheme is that he *must sell* before the next election. A man who not only must import but must sell cannot avoid trading.

This is our system. It may not be perfect, but we like it and shall not hastily change it for Señor Romero, or Señor Mendonça, or any other "dago" minister. To whom it first occurred we do not know, but Dingley brought it to perfection, and is said to have stocked his own mill under it. It ought to make this country the "workshop of the world," as England has been hitherto. It is wiping out the deficit at the same time. The great beauty of the system is that it does not conflict with any other branch of American polity. Formerly we used to be warned against the dastardly business of importing goods to compete with American manufacturers. But those goods supply the material for American manufacturers. As

> The stately ships go on to their haven under the hill,

we can gloat, as we watch them, over the fact that they are all foreign bottoms, that they all fly European flags, and yet all bring grist to our mills. Under this system we shall, in fact, never require any ships at all, and as trade is really made compulsory we do not need any improved consuls or ministers. Our manufacturers, too, will probably in turn learn how to pack, for that is one of the necessities of trade, and must follow it. Nor will the system interfere with the "new navy." We can have as many ironclads as we like, and can send them about the world, with patriot officers to shout defiance at our customers from behind big guns in every port in Christendom.

A FREE-WOOL LESSON FROM GERMANY.

"Made in Germany" has come to be regarded as synonymous with cheapness. The rapid stimulation of manufactures in the Empire soon led to a production greater than the domestic markets could absorb, and a vent in foreign lands became necessary. The task of obtaining a hold in neutral markets was undertaken systematically and intelligently, and was supported by grants of money from the imperial Government. Everywhere the activity and persistence of the trained "drummer" of Germany were felt, and even in English mercantile houses in South America the German clerk found a ready admittance. His training and singleness of purpose made him valuable as an ally and dangerous as a rival. As a result of this combination of commercial education and Government recognition, Germany has built up a great export trade in manufactured articles, and nearly two-thirds of the value of her entire exports is represented by these articles. That the basis of this trade is in a measure artificial cannot be denied; but eliminating what is factitious, there remains enough to excite our admiration at the rapid industrial development of Germany.

This development rests notably upon the fact that Germany recognizes to the fullest extent the necessity for admitting the raw materials of manufactures free of any duty or charge. All the great articles of the world's commerce in a crude or raw condition are admitted into Germany free of duty; and extreme as the protective policy of the Empire is and has been, these materials have escaped taxation. With the growth of an export trade in finished products there has been an even greater growth in the imports of raw materials; and this has without doubt done much to recommend German manufactures to countries which had raw materials to sell. Nothing could do more to open foreign markets than a policy of free raw materials, and there is little question that our competitors have gained more by such a political instrument than the United States can ever hope to gain under a combination of a protective tariff and a nondescript and impracticable "reciprocity" system. As ex-Secretary Olney recently said in Philadelphia, foreign markets are rarely, almost never, effectively shut to the United States by the direct action of any foreign country:

> "When the doors are really closed, it is almost always by our own act, by legislation which seems offensive to foreign States, which puts their products under a sort of

ban and excludes them from our markets, and which disables their citizens from buying of us by disabling them from selling to us. Surely any such policy effectually arrests the development of trade, and, if ever justified by extraordinary and temporary conditions, is to be strictly limited by the requirements of these conditions."

With this deliberate policy of enabling the German manufacturer to make his goods cheaply, at a low cost, it is natural to find Germany of great commercial importance wherever an opening is offered. The measure of the true reduction of duties on manufactures of wool made by our tariff of 1894 may be obtained from the resulting movements in German woollens. In the last ten years the highest value of wool manufactures (other than yarn) was reached in 1888 with $59,024,000. The greatest weight of these goods was sent out in 1892—65,285,000 pounds—but the value represented was only $50,932,000. The exports for 1895 showed an increase in weight over 1892—70,000,000 pounds—and a small increase in total value, $51,646,000. Measured in bulk, the movement in 1895 was larger than ever before, but measured in value it was much less than in 1888. This was to be expected because of the great fall in prices throughout the world since 1893.

How far this general increase of exports was reflected in the special exports to the United States may be seen from the following comparison of quantities of the leading items in 1892 and 1895:

	1892. Lbs.	1895. Lbs.
Felts	1,540	1,980
Plushes	29,780	143,220
Fringes and button coverings	128,920	85,580
Knit goods, printed	1,320	6,380
Knit goods, unprinted	616,440	1,206,040
Dress goods, printed	121,660	155,420
Dress goods, unprinted	6,220,060	10,412,160
Shawls	6,160	4,400
Laces, etc.	1,540	3,740
Foot Mats	14,520	71,720

In testing this apparent growth of exports to the United States allowance must be made for the economic conditions prevailing in 1892 and 1895. In the former year the situation here encouraged large imports, for the unwholesome stimulus of overproduction under the tariff law of 1890 was making itself felt. Every branch of import trade was feverishly excited, and the amount of goods brought in was exaggerated by the zeal of the many seeking to take advantage of the good prices. A reaction followed, and in 1894 the exports of woollens to the United States were as far below a normal average as those of 1892 had been above it. In 1895 an effort was made to make up for a part of this difference, and the imports for that year were really the imports for nearly one and one-half years. In that view the figures are not excessive in most of the articles. In others, the increase may be explained by fashion and a true cheapness of production attained by a careful study of technical detail and by the free admission of raw wools.

Turning to the trade returns of the United States, the figures may be brought down to a later date. In 1895 the imports of woollens from Germany were valued at $8,577,097, which was only $80,000 greater than the value of the imports of 1892. The "starved" condition of markets due to the exhausting influence of a financial crisis and a bitter contest over the tariff was not made good in 1895, and the small imports of 1894 ($5,123,441) were not balanced till 1896, when $11,658,949 in woollens were imported. Since last July the imports have been much less than in the corresponding period of 1895-'96, showing that there is no danger of a "flooding" of our market, as the high protectionist claims.

Whatever has been the advantage gained in our markets by the woolmanufacturers of Germany is due to the admission of raw wools into that country free of duty. Without that advantage they would have been unable to compete with England and France, for the fall in the price of raw wools since 1893 would have increased the burden of their disadvantage. Without free wool they would have been confined to their own home markets, and that would mean widespread ruin and eventually a concentration of the industry in a Trust combination. Yet this is exactly what Congress is imposing upon the United States by the proposed specific duties on raw wools. The prices of Australian wool may fall one-half, but the American manufacturer finds little advantage in it, as the duty has been doubled in burden. He is incapable of meeting his foreign competitor in foreign markets, and he depends upon Congress for protection against foreign goods in his own market. He cannot choose his wools to suit his cloth, for the duties are prohibitory on certain grades; so he cannot hope to avail himself of every circumstance of supply as can his rivals. He finds domestic production stimulated and the margin of profit reduced by the domestic competition, by which he loses the advantages expected of the home market. In short, he is heavily handicapped, and all at the demand of an industry that no possible tariff can benefit.

MAXIMS.

A fondness for maxims and a readiness in applying them in situations of doubt and difficulty have always been marks of political intelligence. By maxims we do not mean common proverbs, such as "A fool and his money are soon parted," or "A man is known by the company he keeps," or "You can't eat your cake and have it"—these are in general use, and are applied constantly, with great force and point, by very ordinary, plain people in the way of criticism of the doings of their friends and neighbors. We have in mind maxims or gnomic sayings of a higher order, aphorisms which only guides and teachers utter. They are usually couched in carefully considered language, are sometimes pointed by means of alliteration and antithesis, and are uttered only on important occasions. They are generally designed to encourage, warn, cheer, instruct, and throw light on practical questions, and there can be no doubt that in politics they are every year playing a more and more striking part. Their use is not confined to either party, but for some reason the Republicans are, just now, far more adept in their use than the Democrats. Indeed, with that boldness for which they are famous, they invented one some years ago which was employed to discredit at one blow all the pestilential heresies of free trade and the economic phrases in which it masquerades. "The tariff is a question of markets, not of maxims." It was a great man who said this, great enough to risk the retort that his phrase itself was a maxim. Another saying, the echo of which has not yet died away, was that a cheap coat might cover a cheap man. Never uttered before, no sooner did it fall upon the ears of a listening party than they cried with a loud voice, That settles it.

In a period of maxims it always happens that some thinkers develop especial talent for their production. For some reason the great maxim periods have always been those in which popular government has flourished, no doubt because popular government, being wiser than any other, produces more evidences of wisdom. At any rate, aristocracies and monarchies have produced few great maxim-makers. In the United States if we ask ourselves from what quarter it would be most likely that maxims should come, and who would be likely to be best at them, we should not be wrong in considering it probable that the President himself, under certain circumstances, would be likely to be especially gifted in this way. He stands in a peculiar relation to the people, being elected by them to carry out a platform which is drawn up by somebody else, and to do this by means of a Legislature over which he has little or no control. This situation of trust and confidence, combined with a certain sense of impotence, tends to reflection. He ponders on high affairs of state, and is looked to somewhat irrationally to settle the Cuban question, or to introduce bimetallism, to see a tariff passed, to have the currency reformed, and in general to restore "prosperity," though those who hang upon every word which comes from him really have intrusted these matters in great part to representatives of their own over whom he has little influence. Under these circumstances, some Presidents have said almost nothing. Washington and Cleveland became more and more silent as time went on. Lincoln diverted attention by making jokes. Mr. McKinley

has obviously perceived that the true resource of a good man in such a situation is maxims.

He began, however, when he was a candidate for the Presidency, with campaign maxims, which are of a different sort. When he said, "It is better to open the mills than to open the mints," a whole campaign may be said to have been summed up. It was mildly put, yet it embodied a truth which was undeniable. Even Bryan had not the hardihood to attempt refutation. Blackburn, armed to the teeth, would have hesitated to maintain that it was better to close the mills, or a matter of no consequence whether they were open or not, or that opening the mints would make mills unnecessary. They had no reply to make except the argument that opening the mints would open the mills. But, too stupid to think of saying that, all that they could do was to cry, "You shall not crucify labor upon a cross of gold"; but this was a metaphor, and a metaphor cannot refute a maxim. On the whole, this maxim must stand as one of the most effective in the history of the country. It brought the issues clearly before the minds of the public, without stating them at all, or binding anybody to any particular scheme, and put the Democrats in a false position.

A post-election maxim, as we have said, is not of this kind. It is not so pointed or witty, and is designed, not for victory, but for meditation. It encourages hope rather than struggle, and reconciles the mind to the inevitable. But, as in the case of all good maxims, it is incontrovertible. Some of the wisest and best post-election maxims ever produced have been uttered since his inauguration by Mr. McKinley. A very striking one occurred in his speech on "Prosperity" at Philadelphia—"The maker must find the taker." This means that there cannot be any considerable product of manufactures unless there are consumers ready, *i. e.*, provided with ample capital, to purchase them. That this is the true signification is enforced by the amplification, "You will not employ labor to make a product unless you can find a buyer for that product after labor has made it"; but, with the keen instinct of the orator, Mr. McKinley perceived that a paraphrase like this would not fasten itself in the mind and memory even of a Philadelphian audience, and hence an antithesis must be flashed on the screen. Here is one coined for all time and any occasion: "The maker must find the taker." It is so true that even the converse cannot be disputed. It is also true that the taker must find the maker.

Another maxim of importance occurs in the same speech: "Resuscitation will not be promoted by recrimination." This is at once a maxim and a metaphor. It means that if you desire to revive a subject from collapse, the chances of success will not be enhanced by a quarrel over the cause of the collapse. The orator sees before him the corpse of American prosperity, and hears two sets of political doctors quarrelling with one another, and each accusing the other of having caused the fatality. He sees at once that this course is fraught with danger, and recalls the country to a sense of the real nature of the situation. Who ever heard of resuscitation being promoted by recrimination? Yet who ever said it before?

"The distrust of the present will not be removed by a distrust of the future" has the incontrovertibility of the best maxims, and it also may be reversed, for it is equally true that distrust of the future will not be removed by distrust of the present; but as the words present and future do not begin with the same letter, it is not as pointed as the next: "A patriot makes a better citizen than a pessimist." This is the pure milk of the word. The passage ends with a fine burst—"The country is not going backwards, but forwards." This, however, is not a maxim, but a peroration. The antithesis between the patriot and the pessimist is, we believe, wholly new, and, once stated, needs no argument to enforce it. It throws the burden on the other side. Let the rascal come forward who maintains that the pessimist makes a better citizen than a patriot. Let him, if he can, support his contention. How will he do it? Where will he find hearers? How will he avoid contempt when he is heard?

MR. BAYARD'S ADMONITION.

The reception given on Saturday night to Mr. Bayard by the National Civic Club of Brooklyn was in every respect gratifying. It would not be easy to name any American who so well as Mr. Bayard represents the statesmanship of an earlier, and in some vital particulars a better, day in our national development. His long political career began in the time of republican simplicity, when the functions of the general Government were regarded as strictly limited by the Constitution, and when the extravagant expenditure and oppressive taxation from which we now suffer would have almost caused a popular rebellion. The political traditions in which he was trained were those of freedom. He was brought up in a school of statesmanship which held to the theory that government, as it involved the restraint of citizens by authority, should be carefully restricted to such measures as were universally admitted to be necessary, and should not be allowed to employ its coercive powers in the interest of particular classes or particular individuals. This fundamental doctrine, the fundamental doctrine of the Democratic party, and indeed the fundamental principle of sound popular government, is by the present leaders of both parties either openly repudiated or quietly abandoned. That its oldest and most dignified representative should be selected for especial honor by an association of earnest and patriotic reformers, is a sign that we need not despair of the republic.

The statesmanship of which Mr. Bayard is a type differs also from the present style in that it implies true leadership. When we consider the position of many of our public men, even the most prominent of them, we are reminded of the story of the French revolutionist who pointed to a group of men at a barricade, exclaiming, "Il faut bien les suivre! Je suis leur chef." The aim of those who for the present take the place of leaders is to find out what is popular, to learn what cry will be most taking with the press and the politicians, and to join in that. Mr. Bayard still preserves the traditions of a period when public men appeared as the advocates of principles which they explained to and urged upon the people, instead of posturing as mere vehicles of supposed popular demands. The maxim of modern statesmen in too many cases seems to be, "Find out what the people desire, and proclaim that they must have it," instead of, "Find out what the people really need, and insist that they must learn to desire it." It was hardly to be expected that a statesman accustomed to these old standards, and devoted to the exposure of the fallacies of protection, should suppress his convictions even at his post as Ambassador, merely because of a sudden change in the political complexion of Congress.

As to our present situation, Mr. Bayard's words were singularly forcible and impressive. His declaration that the most dangerous abuse of our government consists in taking public property for private use, is one of those effective generalizations that will pass into the common speech of men. It is this abuse that especially threatens the stability of institutions founded on the theory of equal rights, and that especially injures the weaker members of the community. "There must be some hand to hold the scales aloft out of the reach of the strong and the rapacious and the ambitious, otherwise the weak, feeble, and poorer members of society have an additional weight added to their inequalities." The true nobility of the American system lay in its just recognition of manhood and denial of privilege. Standing on this firm foundation, Mr. Bayard made an appeal to his countrymen which may well be taken as a summary of democratic doctrine.

"The great charter excludes 'titles of nobility,' and the whole instrument is luminous with the intent to prevent unequal favors or unequal burdens among its citizens. Therefore, I earnestly insist and prayerfully entreat my countrymen to take firm, early, and uncompromising stand in opposition to and denial of every claim by

legislative or executive power which contains the fatal principle that the sovereign power of taxation can be controlled or used for private advantage; and any law which is stained by such purposes and has such results should be removed from the statute-books. It is a law of political health that the results of lawful industry should inure to the hand or brain that worked to produce them, and when the powers of government are substituted for individual endeavor, the virus of socialistic interference and the tyranny which is its inevitable companion enter the veins of the body politic. I say this with the present proceedings of Congress in full view, and in a session in which the corner-stone of public safety, the very keystone of public credit, has not only not received the cold respect of a passing notice, but such measures of cruel and excessive taxation are pending, with threatened success, as must decrease our foreign commerce, increase our commercial isolation, and cause retaliatory legislation by nations who are seeking friendly and reciprocal relations with our people. Such measures are the fruitful parents of just discontent among the wage-earning and agricultural classes of our countrymen, and blind are those who will not see the immediate danger they constitute to the public credit."

Mr. Bayard's account of his foreign stewardship is simple and dignified. He declined, as he said, to recognize the distinction which had been made by those who had referred to him as the Ambassador of good feeling rather than of diplomacy. He has distinguished himself and honored his country not in being the representative of the passions and jealousies and animosities of his countrymen, or of the ambitions, prejudices, or selfish interests of individuals or classes, but in being the exponent in courtesy and in good faith of the kindly affections and natural affinities of the two great English-speaking nations. He may justly say that this policy has promoted international good will and good understanding, and that there are to-day no questions between us and Great Britain that do not admit of easy settlement. Such purposes as these, pursued as Mr. Bayard has pursued them, will indeed create an international tranquillity; but we cannot altogether concede that "the personal fame and renown of the agent will disappear in the calm sea of public safety, welfare, and content." To have maintained diplomatic intercourse on the high plane on which Mr. Bayard has maintained it under the trying conditions of the last few years, is an achievement that his countrymen will not forget.

THE GLUT OF TALENT.

The approaching Jubilee has, of course, started many pens summing up Victorian this, that, and the other, from drinking habits to telegraphing, from ships to books. Victorian literature has been a favorite subject for this kind of extensive viewing, and as good a thing in that line as we have seen is Mr. H. D. Traill's article in the June *Fortnightly*. He makes out roughly three periods of twenty years each, the first of which, 1837 to 1857, was marked by, on the whole, the best work of Tennyson, Browning, Carlyle, Macaulay, Dickens, Thackeray, and Ruskin. Then came two decades of comparative sterility, literature appearing, with a few great exceptions, to be "hanging in the wind." The last twenty years, Mr. Traill declares, are chiefly notable for the rise of a large class of second-rate writers. Poets were never so numerous who, with all their technical facility and excellence, must still be called minor; prose-writers have enormously increased, and display by the thousand a competent workmanship which requires a careful examination if one is to discriminate between the merits of the form and the demerits of the matter.

This great and general improvement in writing English, merely as writing, seems fairly made out. As Mr. Traill remarks, the descent from a writer of the first class to one of the second is not to-day so long and abrupt a step as it was in the beginning of the century. Our best poets are only a little better than our second-best; whereas, thirty or forty years ago, to pass from Tennyson to the minor poets of the time was "to feel as if you had been kicked down a long flight of steps and had alighted in the Poet's Corner of an obscure provincial newspaper." As for the extraordinary development and spread of novel-writing, in plausible forms which it takes an expert to tell from the genuine article, every one knows, many from a sad experience, about that. Whether popular education, democracy, the *Zeit-Geist*, or the Prince of Darkness is chiefly responsible for all this, it is not necessary to inquire. More important is it for us to understand the perils of this literary phenomenon, and one of the greatest of these Mr. Traill points out in the following judicious language:

> "Undoubtedly it is upon the critic who strives to keep a level head and a judgment free from prejudice that the present condition of English literature most embarrassingly tells. For if the democratic movement has made for the wider diffusion of the literary faculty, it has on the other hand infected the published estimates of literary productions with the peculiar and characteristic vices of democracy—with its vehemence, its ignorance, its inconsistency, its insatiable thirst for the sensational, its vulgar admiration for artistic vulgarity, its utter lack of measure and reserve. From the exaggerated eulogy, the shameless *réclame* which attends even the most moderate of contemporary successes in literature, sober criticism revolts. The artistic extravagances and violences into which every new writer, whether with ability or without, is tempted by the drum-beating showman of the press to endeavor to catch the popular taste, unceasingly multiply; and it needs a determined fairmindedness on the part of the critic to refrain from judging the whole literary movement of the time by these repellent incidents."

The argument of our big-drum critics seems to be that because we have so much talent we must have a good deal of genius. In the days when there were undoubted giants in the land, there were but few others who could write passably well; now that so many can write passably well, there must be many of the full stature of genius. At any rate, let us say so. Let us not be caught napping. By crowning every new writer as a genius, we shall escape the ignominy of letting a genius grow up among us unacclaimed. Our critical laurels are so easily transferred from head to head that clapping them on the wrong brows time after time does not really matter. Everybody will have forgotten our prophecies and our adjectives of a year ago, and they can be applied with just as triumphant an air of fresh discovery to the next man. Above all, let us be insistent and unqualified and noisy—in other words, import the methods of the Salvation Army into criticism.

The loudest clashing of the big cymbals that we have lately had to listen to is in the article in the June *Forum* on "Contemporary American Essayists." We say nothing about the fact that the essay is a literary form as extinct as the Dodo. We have monographs; we have lectures and "articles" and meditations and studies and scrapings from our commonplace books; but the Essay, properly speaking, we do not have any more. Waiving all these matters of definition, however, the generous assignment of literary immortality which this *Forum* writer makes is too much. It is too good to be true. We have not a word to say against any of the essayists invited in such crowds into the Pantheon, but we are sure that not all of them could get in or would feel at home there if they could. In fact, the writer himself seems conscious that he has overdone it, and admits that "perhaps none among us is making such permanent contributions to literature as Emerson or Lowell or Poe"; but he hastens to add: "Yet one cannot resist a suspicion that these profit a little by distance, and that as our own writers recede there may remain work done in this decade that, as criticism, may rank with the very best."

This is delightful—the best test and proof of solid merit turned into a gentle disparagement. Why have not Tupper and Bailey, why have not Willis and Halleck, profited by distance? They have "receded" into that maw of time and oblivion whither the productions of all mere talent hurry; whither they hurry in these days of a glut of talent faster than ever; whither nine out of ten of the books mentioned by the *Forum* writer have already gone irrecoverably. *Les morts vont vite*, and the death-rate among books is something appalling in our time; especially are contemporary American essayists a bad risk. Hardly have our Salvation-Army critics done shouting over the genius who is to live for ever, before he is gone and the memory of him blotted out. Mr. Traill is right. We must keep our heads in spite of the din. The trick of writing well is easily

caught; but if a man has nothing to say, he might as well never have got beyond sign-language. There are critical standards not yet swept away by the critics' floods of verbiage; and the resolute clinging to them is the first literary duty of the hour.

IRISH AFFAIRS.

DUBLIN, June 1, 1897.

In 1886 Lord Randolph Churchill, as leader of the Conservatives in the House of Commons, said: "The great sign-posts of our policy in Ireland are equality, similarity, and simultaneity of treatment, as far as is practicable, in the establishment of a universally popular system of local government in all the four countries which form the United Kingdom." Two years later he charged his late colleagues with deliberate breach of faith in this matter, and now, nine years later still, Ireland still has a promise dangled twelve months in advance before her.

The one subject on which there has been an abundance of legislation during the last thirty years is the land question, and of that our lawgivers have made a most hopeless muddle. English reformers of the stamp of John Bright and Richard Cobden taught that "free trade in land" must be the basis of any sound system of land tenure. Cobden maintained that the interests of landlord and tenant must necessarily be antagonistic. The Royal Commission that preceded the great Land Act of 1881 pointed out that to set landlords and tenants at law with each other would never settle the land question. Representative landlords like Lord Dufferin and The O'Conor Don, who took part in that inquiry, expressed the same opinion. The Land League proposed a large but gradual scheme of expropriation of the landlord class; Mr. Parnell over and over again warned the English Government that the interests of landlord and tenant were irreconcilable, and that the periodical settlement of fair rents by Government tribunals would end in failure. Twenty-five Irish land acts have been passed at Westminster in the last thirty years, their contested passage having occupied a most undue proportion of Parliamentary time, and yet the Irish land question remains a thorn in the side of Parliament, as unsettled as ever. Neither the theories of English reformers nor the wishes of the Irish people have been attended to. One remarkable result of all this legislation is that landlords' estates have been made absolutely unmarketable. The art of selling great estates, as Mr. Sexton once said in Parliament, is a lost one, and as for Bright's free trade in land, the transfer of real estate is as troublesome and costly as ever. The landlord class is doubly hit, first by the reduction of rents, due to the general fall in prices; secondly because their lowered rents have become unsalable, and are no longer a security on which loans can be obtained at almost any rate of interest, although in England the rate of interest on mortgages has fallen to nearly half what it used to be.

As a class, the landlords have opposed every reform that was ever proposed, and the mutilation in the House of Lords of such measures as got through the House of Commons has tended to keep up the agitation against them, as well as against the system of which they are a part. A case now before the Court of Bankruptcy illustrates the effect of the system under which Irish landlords take no part in the management of their estates, but leave the only management there is, the collection of rents, to land-agents. The bankrupt in the present case was one of the largest, best known, and most unpopular agents in the eastern counties. He stated in his examination that for eight years he was under close protection by police and military. At least three of his employers were members of the House of Lords; but, while pressing the tenants to pay with extreme harshness, he was appropriating a considerable share of the profits of the estates to his own private use. In the period to which the examination referred he admitted the appropriation to his own purposes of $40,000 of his employers' rents. He held upwards of forty-six agencies, and it appears to have been a common practice to exact for his own use fines or premiums in addition to the rent when letting vacant farms. He thus had a very direct interest in making farms vacant by eviction, and but for the bankruptcy proceedings these frauds would never have been discovered by his clients.

The land act passed last year has now been nine months in operation. It was intended, and so far as words could make the issue clear it directed the land courts, to separate distinctly the property of the tenant, in such improvements as he had made, from the landlord's property in the land itself. The courts have, however, minimized its effect, and in practice little change has been made. But the landlords, taking advice from Lord Salisbury, have commenced an agitation against both the law and its administration. The Government has promised a royal commission to investigate the matter. The same course was pursued in 1882; no sooner was the act of 1881 in operation than the landlords had a committee of the House of Lords appointed to condemn the administration of the courts. The result was that in 1887 more than one Land Commissioner admitted that impossibly high rents had been fixed because the courts were intimidated by the action of the House of Lords.

It may seem surprising that men in a judicial position could be intimidated or controlled by the Government, for the theory of the British Constitution is that such persons are independent of the Crown and Government of the day. The Assistant Land Commissioners, however, are practically removable at will; most of them are appointed for one year, and their appointment is renewed or not each year at the will of the Government; some are employed and paid by the day. The "removable" magistrates under the Coercion Act were another example of the same principle. There have been several instances of these removable Commissioners being discharged at the end of a year of office without any fault alleged, but it was well known that complaints had been secretly made to the Government by landlords who thought themselves aggrieved. Nearly all the present Commissioners have been appointed by the Conservative Government, and yet the landlords, the thick-and-thin supporters of this Government, are denouncing the decisions of these men as unjust, and calling for an intimidatory inquiry into their proceedings.

On the eve of the celebration of the sixtieth year of Queen Victoria's reign, the Irish Nationalist members have issued a manifesto recognizing the propriety for Great Britain of "this jubilation over the development of the principles of self-government, over that establishment of institutions broad-based upon the people's will, over that growth in numbers, comfort, strength, prosperity, and wealth, over that progress in manufactures, trade, and commerce which have marked this era in Britain and the colonies," and contrasting with these the continued government of Ireland "not according to, but against, her people's will; under a centralized and autocratic system, evil always, but growing more and more intolerable as the bounds of freedom have been wider set elsewhere." This certainly expresses the general feeling in Ireland, whose story for the last sixty years has in the main been one of famine, eviction, disaffection, coercion, and a very marked refusal by Parliament in latter years to extend to Ireland those principles of self-government which are the pride and boast of Englishmen.

In spite of internal dissensions the Irish members of Parliament manage to stand with their faces to the enemy, though with their backs to each other; and in my opinion the honest differences among them are more wholesome than absolute unity under a dictator, or submission to a clique. Want of unity, however, offers an opportunity to the Government to play off one set against another, and enables it to adhere to the old principle of *divide et impera*. The proposed grant to the landlords which is to accompany the local-government bill of next session will probably buy off their opposition to the extension of the local franchise. The grant will be equivalent to a capital sum of at least ten millions sterling, which the masses will have to pay to secure a right granted to every English citizen without charge. An attempt will doubtless be made to limit the franchise, to put checks on its exercise that will still enable the minority to rule. The majority of the Irish members who follow John Dillon's leadership have received Balfour's proposal with reserve, abstaining from expressing approval till the details of the scheme are put on paper; Timothy Healy, on the other hand, favors its acceptance frankly, on the assumption that it is honestly intended to be a measure of equality and similarity with the rest of Great Britain. He recommends that it shall be brought in first in the House of Lords, to avoid the labor, friction, and waste of time in passing a difficult measure through the Commons, to be rejected, mutilated, or transformed when it gets to the Lords.

Useful discussion of this promised reform is now impossible, for it is most unlikely that any of its details will be made known until the bill is produced next session. Even with the extended franchise in England the Radicals are far from satisfied; the complications of the system of registration of voters keep many citizens off the rolls. Voting qualifications can still be manufactured. One franchise for all elections, "one man and one vote," is what radical reformers aim at.

AN IRISHMAN.

AUSTRALIAN FEDERATION.

SYDNEY, May 10, 1897.

Australia is at present passing through an historical period, or a period which may be-

come one of supreme interest in its history. We are attempting to raise ourselves from a congeries of small States, all fighting against one another, to the status of a nation, with one central government and one common aim. Federation has been a dream of some of our statesmen for many years past, almost since the 50s, when we first attained to the dignity of governing ourselves under constitutions granted by the British Parliament. But it was only some eight or ten years ago that these dreams took any practical form, when the late Sir Henry Parkes, one of the foremost of our public men and the Premier at that time of New South Wales, instituted a movement for giving effect to the proposal. A preliminary conference of leading politicians from the various colonies was held in Melbourne in 1889, and as a result a convention of delegates from each colony, elected by the respective parliaments, took place in Sydney in 1891. At this convention—which was undoubtedly the finest intellectual combination ever got together in Australasia, and included many men since dead or who have dropped out of public life—a draft bill was prepared for submission to the various parliaments, putting forward a form of constitution to provide for federal union. This draft bill was a splendid piece of legislative work, and embodied in the main a sound scheme of federation; but somehow, no one quite knows how, it was never accepted seriously by the various parliaments, and, though never rejected by any, it was never passed. The ostensible reason given for this attitude was that the bill was not acceptable, having been drafted by delegates not directly elected by the people, but the real reason was that in some of the colonies local politics absorbed all attention for the time, and thus practically federation was shelved.

In the early part of last year a new turn was given to the federal wheel by the fact that a new set of ministers had, in the main, taken office in the various colonies, and some, at least, desired to bring the question of federation again to the front. A conference of premiers was held, and a draft enabling-bill agreed upon between them for submission to the various parliaments, authorizing the election by the people of each colony of ten delegates, who should meet in convention and draft a new form of constitution bill. This measure, it was provided, should, when agreed upon, be submitted to the various parliaments for revision, and the amendments here made were to be again considered by the convention. The draft, as finally adopted by the convention, was then to be submitted to a plébiscite of the whole of the people, for acceptance or rejection, and if accepted to be sent forward for the royal assent. Under this scheme there could be no doubt as to the voice of the people being heard, and there could be no complaint that the people had no choice in the matter.

The danger felt was, that in a convention of delegates elected upon a one-man-one-vote basis, as proposed, many of the best men might be excluded, and their places taken by frothy windbags. But in the main this prediction was not verified. Even in the most democratic colonies the people seem to have realized the importance of the occasion, and the delegates were, with possibly half-a-dozen exceptions, the very best men in our public life, and the conservative or safe element greatly predominated. But the convention was not as fully representative as was hoped. New Zealand, which is situated 1,200 miles from the mainland of Australia, did not take part in the movement from the outset, and this left only the five continental colonies of Queensland, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Western Australia, and the island colony of Tasmania. Four of these, New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, and Tasmania, passed the bill and duly elected delegates, but, for some reason, not quite clear, Queensland stood out altogether, and Western Australia at first followed suit. At the last moment, however, the Parliament of Western Australia hurriedly met, and itself elected ten delegates to represent the colony, who arrived after the convention sittings had opened and left before their close.

The convention, which met at the end of March, and closed its first session after just a month's work, thus consisted of fifty delegates, representing five colonies. The meeting-place was Adelaide, the capital city of South Australia, a town of some 140,000 inhabitants. To follow the work of the convention, it must be borne in mind that the great mass of the population is centred in two colonies, New South Wales and Victoria, the former of which has about 1,300,000 and the latter about 1,200,000 people, while, of the others represented, South Australia has about 360,000 inhabitants; Tasmania, 160,000; and Western Australia, 130,000. It will thus be seen that either of the two larger colonies has in itself a population almost double that of the three smaller colonies combined, and even had Queensland, with its population of 470,000, adhered, the larger colonies would still have been in the ascendant. This fact exercised a powerful influence on the whole deliberations of the convention, and though the debates were of a very high order, and the oratory very fine, the struggles between the delegates from the larger and smaller colonies were decidedly keen. But, in the end, compromise and good sense prevailed, and though at one time it appeared that the whole thing would fall to the ground, a scheme was evolved which, with some slight alterations, may be accepted by all the colonies. It was but natural that the experience of other federations should guide the delegates in their work, and of course your own system was largely drawn upon for precedents. Indeed, it may be said that, of all existing federations, that of the United States, the oldest, was generally conceded to have the most stable elements, and was, where applicable, the most largely followed.

Speaking generally of the scheme proposed, it may be stated that it was decided to name the federation the Commonwealth of Australia, that it should be a federation under the Crown, with a Governor-General nominated by the Queen, and that its legislature should consist of two houses—the Senate, representing the States as such, and the House of Representatives, representing the people of the States. In our nomenclature we are following you to this extent. The great struggles of the convention arose over the constitution and powers of the Senate. Some of the delegates from the larger colonies wished to have the members chosen upon a population basis, but those from the smaller States were unanimous in stating that if this principle was adopted, and unless equal representation for each State was granted, they would not come in, and federation would thus be impossible. So the latter gained the day, and it was decided that each State should have six Senators, three of whom should retire every three years. In this decision the Constitution of the United States again afforded a partial precedent, and the fame of its Senate was largely quoted in favor of the equal representation system. But in the method of electing Senators a departure was made from your scheme, and it was decided that they be elected by the people direct in one constituency of the whole colony. The conservative element opposed this principle, but, after the results of the late convention elections, where the same principle was adopted, there is not so much reason to fear the results. The House of Representatives will be elected on a population basis, but there shall be as nearly as possible two members of this House to every one in the Senate, and it is expected that this basis will give about one member to every 50,000 inhabitants. The voting for both houses will be under manhood suffrage, with only one vote for each elector.

The great fight arose over the respective powers of the two houses. These necessarily differ greatly from your own. It was decided at the outset that our present system of responsible government should, as far as possible, be adopted, under which ministers would be nominated by the Governor-General, and be responsible to the House of Representatives, and, as at present, be able to appeal to the electors in the event of not possessing a majority in that chamber. The delegates from the larger colonies contended that, being the responsible chamber, the House of Representatives should have the dominating influence with respect to taxation and appropriation bills, but that on other matters both houses should have coordinate powers. The delegates from the smaller colonies as strongly protested that the Senate should be the powerful dominating chamber, and, as they were in a numerical majority, it was believed they would succeed, which would probably have meant the loss of federation, as the large colonies would not agree to accept these conditions. But eventually a compromise was arrived at. It was agreed that while upon all other subjects than finance the houses should have equal powers, the House of Representatives should initiate all money and taxation bills, and the Senate should have the power of rejecting these or first suggesting amendments in them, but not of making amendments. With this the matter was settled and a lion in the path removed.

The powers of the federal Parliament will be very full. It alone will deal with customs and excise taxation, defence, postal and telegraph matters, navigation, and all matters affecting relations with outside peoples, marriage and divorce, etc. It will not have power at the outset to take over the State debts or the railways, and, indeed, this matter of finance is one of the difficulties which do not appear to have been fully solved by the convention. But probably a suitable scheme will be evolved before the question is finally submitted to the people. One of the most important decisions of the convention was that to establish a final federal court of appeal, and do away with the right of appeal to the British Privy Council. In this matter a step is proposed upon which there is much

diversity of opinion, and it is possible the convention's proposal may not be accepted.

It has not been possible in the space at disposal to give more than a brief outline of the provisions of the measure, but the salient features have been sketched, and to Americans, with their experience of federal institutions, the significance of these will be more apparent, perhaps, than even to the majority of Australians. The bill put forward by the convention will be considered almost immediately by the various local parliaments, and the convention will sit again in Sydney in September, to put the last touches to it before it is submitted for the final decision of the people. What that decision may be it is difficult yet to say, but there is strong hope for believing that, as a result, we may enter into a federal union which may raise us to the status of a nation, and enable us to take a higher place in the affairs of the world. M. S.

MORLEY ON MACHIAVELLI.

OXFORD, June 4, 1897.

Mr. John Morley, as the Romanes lecturer of this year, delivered on Wednesday last, before a crowded audience in the Sheldonian Theatre at Oxford, a very remarkable discourse upon Machiavelli. His lecture opened with a skilful and broadly outlined account of the atmosphere of excessive blame and exaggerated praise in which the memory of the great Florentine publicist and diplomatist has survived up to the present day. At the close he reënforced his introductory remarks by bringing them to bear upon a brilliant and studiously restrained account of the living problems in statecraft raised and brought home to the statesmen of to-day by a thoughtful and impartial consideration of Machiavelli's various dicta. This peroration, remarkable for the dexterity with which the lecturer avoided anything like definite allusions to current events or to the actual policy of England in the concert of Europe, was immediately preceded by a vivid picture of the career of Cæsar Borgia, while the exordium was followed by a personal sketch of Machiavelli, noticeable less for striking originality of detail than for wonderful fair-mindedness of view and a practised mastery in the arrangement and combination of topics. The great merit of this academic utterance was not primarily a scholarly one, unimpeachable though its scholarship was. The lecturer, by studiously fixing the thoughts of his audience, whom he carried with him throughout, and by carefully avoiding all direct reference to contemporary events, left them in a state of perplexity at the end, and forced them to deal with the present situation without his direct aid. And yet the drift of his carefully considered and powerfully phrased general considerations cannot but sweep those who deal frankly with their own thoughts into a mood of national self-scrutiny and criticism which will bear the fruits of moderation, and do much to check the tide of careless complacency to which the upholders of the pro-Turkish *status quo* in the East are for the moment especially inclined.

Not by accident came the first note in Mr. Morley's exordium. It was Dante's eloquent arraignment of worldly fame, "il mondan romore," which burst from his lips when he was traversing the first ledge of the Mountain of Purgatory, where those who had sinned through pride were doing penance. The lecturer's quotation was from the end of the eleventh canto, but it implied to those familiar with Dante the beautiful opening lines, which are an inspired paraphrase of the Lord's prayer. Thus we may say with a certain ideal truth that the lecture opened with a prayer for deliverance from worldly pride. "From every quarter, and all the points of the historical compass," said the lecturer, "the veering gusts of public judgment have carried incessantly along, from country to country and from generation to generation, with countless mutations of aspect and of innuendo, the sinister renown of Machiavelli." Before he had been dead fifty years, the author of the 'Prince' had begun to haunt men's minds in all the great countries of the West "like some unholy necromancer, bewildering reason and conscience by riddles and paradox"; and thirty years after his death his works were on the Index at Rome, where, up to that time, his writings had met with toleration if not with approval. Upon him was concentrated a full measure of that unmeasured vituperation of the sixteenth century which has never been surpassed, and men "reproached, confuted, and cursed, but never read." The foes of every ecclesiastical faction in turn were branded as Machiavellists. "In England Royalists called him an atheist, and Roundheads called him a Jesuit, while Hudibras found in his Christian name the origin of our domestic title for the devil." He was pilloried with Averroes and denounced with Tacitus. More recently the disappearance of the temporal power, unification in Italy and Germany, revolutions in France, and the realization of the idea of the armed people—Machiavelli's idea—have led to an equally extravagant over-appreciation. Bacon hailed in "Machiavel" one who wrote "what men do, not what they ought to do." Hobbes had many points in common with him, and Harrington studied him more faithfully than any other Englishman, while Hume criticised his general statements in politics as premature because made before the world had as yet had political experience of three thousand years. Nor was Montesquieu, though in most respects to be contrasted with Machiavelli, at all neglectful of him. At this point the lecturer's preliminary survey, which occupied nearly a quarter of the whole discourse, closed with a quotation from Tréverret, who said, "Montesquieu's book is a study, Machiavelli's is a political act, an attempt at political resurrection."

From this point the lecturer devoted himself during the space of rather more than half an hour to a consideration of Machiavelli's life, of his style and his method, as well as of the materials which he used. This whole discussion was rounded out with the life of Cæsar Borgia, a brief and effective sketch belonging equally to the concrete account of Machiavelli which preceded it, and to the considerations of universal political expediency with which the lecture closed. Throughout this part of Mr. Morley's address the clearness and effectiveness of his argument depended upon a reading which is, as all the world knows, very broad.

Neither English, Italian, nor German critics and authorities have been neglected; but still the prevailing note, giving lucidity and lending lightness, came to him from his exceptional familiarity with French writers, and the final impression was what we should have expected from the author of well-known and justly celebrated accounts of Rousseau and Voltaire. Mr. Morley's crisp and clear recital of the facts in Machiavelli's life centred in a quotation from his letter to Francesco Vettori, a description given by Machiavelli in 1513 of his life on the farm where he endeavored to console himself for political disgrace "nelle antiche conti degli antichi uomini." Symonds's translation of this letter, used by the lecturer, is also an abridgment, but, apart from the omission of certain shades of local color, Symonds is faithful, and the use made of it just at this point is admirable. A fuller citation would, however, have enforced more completely the lecturer's remark that "Machiavelli was not meant either by temperament or principle to be a willing martyr," and would have given additional point to his fine contrast between Machiavelli's mood and "the stern virtue of Dante." Exceedingly discriminating was Mr. Morley's not too admiring account of Machiavelli's comic vein, in giving reins to which he repaid Fortune "with her own banter," as well as the characterization he gave of his author's 'Art of War,' written "to induce his countrymen to substitute for mercenary armies a national militia." Turning from the author's life to his mind, Mr. Morley strikingly portrayed the narrow range of Machiavelli's reading, and eloquently showed what might have been learned from "that first great chapter in European literature, still, indeed, the greatest of its kind, of reflections on a revolution," if Machiavelli had read Thucydides. Then followed a contrast and a parallel between the Italy of Machiavelli's day and the Hellas of the Peloponnesian war, focussed finally in what was not so much a description as a moving apostrophe to Michael Angelo's figures of Twilight and Dawn, Night and Day.

But it was Machiavelli's method that Mr. Morley pronounced to be his "merit in the history of political literature." In spite of an uncritical simplicity which belonged to the mind of his day, Machiavelli "withdrew politics from scholasticism, and based their consideration upon observation and experience." Though full of palpable contradictions, his work was more systematic than that of Retz or Commynes, though less so than that of Hobbes. "Human things," Mr. Morley went on to say, "have many sides and many aspects, and an observant man of the world does not confine himself to one way of looking at them from fear of being thought inconsistent." De Sanctis qualifies Machiavelli's prose as "divine," "and perhaps we should not differ from him," said the lecturer, adding, however, the pertinent question, "Only, what word is then left for the really great writers who to intellectual strength add moral grandeur?" and then he quoted Napoleon's standard of generalship—his demand that a general should indulge in no mental pictures, but look at the thing clearly as through a field-glass.

"Machiavelli's is the style of the field-glass," said Mr. Morley. "He has the highest of all the virtues that prose writing can possess—save the half-dozen cases in literature of genius with unconquerable wings: he is simple, unaffected, direct, vivid, and rational. . . . He uses few of our loud, easy words of praise or blame, he is not often sorry or glad, he does not smile and he does not scold, he is seldom indignant and he is never surprised. He has not even

the mastering human infirmity of trying to persuade. His business is that of the clinical lecturer, explaining the nature of the malady, the proper treatment, and the chances of recovery. He strips away the flowing garments of convention and commonplace."

Just here Mr. Morley put in his caveat, striking the clear note of hope and progress which he misses in the great Florentine's faith and ideal. "Commonplace, after all," said he, "is exactly what contains the truths that are indispensable," and, amid all "the confused clamor against Machiavelli, people knew what they meant, and their instinct was not unsound. Mankind, and well they know it, are far too profoundly concerned in right and wrong, in mercy and cruelty, in justice and oppression, to favor a teacher who, even for a scientific purpose of his own, forgets the awful difference." These points were then reinforced by apt quotations from Machiavelli's works, and, for the sake of scrupulous fairness, much was made of the closing chapter of the 'Prince,' and of the Florentine's arguments against a military dictator, as well as of his declaration that the ruler, whether hereditary or a usurper, can have no safety unless he founds himself on popular favor and goodwill. Finally, Mr. Morley pointed out the great flaw in Machiavelli's ideal, namely, that he did not look to the future but to the past, and sought to revive the free Roman commonwealth. He also made it clear that something more hopeful and progressive must command our adhesion than the faith of Machiavelli in the changeless persistence of human nature, in the faults and frailties which he pitilessly discovered in his own time, echoing (without knowing them) the despairing comments of Thucydides upon the factions of Greece in the days of Nicias and Alcibiades. At the same time, Mr. Morley showed that his author had nothing to do with "that most brilliant and illustrious of living German scholars" who "idolizes Julius Cæsar, dispatches Cato as a pedant and Cicero as a coxcomb." Finally he pointed out that Mommsen's account of Sulla offers a profound and concrete commentary upon Machiavelli's 'Prince,' and then gave one far more telling in Cæsar Borgia, put forward by Machiavelli himself "as a model for such as climb to power by good fortune and the help of others."

Turning at the last to the problems which Machiavelli raises, Mr. Morley observed that in one sense we are shocked by his maxims "in proportion to our ignorance of history," and urged that we should do well to take care lest in blaming Machiavelli for openly prescribing hypocrisy, we "slip unperceived into something like hypocrisy of our own." There have been only two perfect princes in the world. "If you add to princes," he here interjected, not a little to the amusement of the house, "presidents and prime ministers, the percentage might still be low." Then followed a discursive account of the various forms of insincerity and hypocrisy to which highly famed rulers in various lands have had recourse, with only the plea of "reasons of state" to give them color of justification. At this point came the searching questions whether the State was means or end. How far does citizenship dominate all other relations and duties? What are we to think of D'Alembert's motto for a virtuous man: "I prefer my family to myself, my country to my family, and humanity to my country"? Then the lecturer detailed marks of progress, such as the mitigation of the usages of war, the fact that "diplomacy, though it is said even now not to be wholly purged of lying, fraud, and duplicity, still is conscious of having a character to keep up for truth and plain dealing, so far as circumstances allow." It is interesting to note that the audience accepted this tribute, and made for themselves a certain practical application of it to recent events. This led them to break into a hilarity which, though by no means extreme, was still significant. Mr. Morley commented further upon the recognition of duty towards inferior races marked by the Berlin and Brussels Conferences, and insisted, with historical facts to prove the point, that "all these improvements in the character of nations were in the minds of the best men in Machiavelli's day." Therefore he concluded that, in the great cycles of human change, Machiavelli can have no place among the strong thinkers and orators and writers who have elevated the conception of the State, and humanized the methods and maxims of government, and raised citizenship "to be a partnership in every virtue and in all perfection." Indeed, Machiavelli's idea of reconstructing a society "that had once been saturated with the great ruling conceptions of the thirteenth century, by trying to awaken the social energy of ancient Rome," was characterized by the lecturer as quite "as much of an anachronism as Julian the Apostate." We may venture to add that, if Machiavelli had here again been able to look far enough back, he would have found in many places, say in the fifth book of Plato's laws, that very ideal of citizenship which Mr. Morley desiderates.

Here again the lack of breadth in culture which made Thucydides a closed book to the Florentine writer, is conspicuous in his defects. But even with the restricted outlook of Machiavelli's day, it was possible for a man to realize the importance of those "living forces by which societies subsist and governments are strong," which Machiavelli set aside as irrelevant. And here, at the very close of his lecture, Mr. John Morley evoked, as a companion figure to set over against Cæsar Borgia, John Calvin and the republic of Geneva, champions, and victorious ones, of the triumph of moral force. This was done the more effectively because there was no attempt to disguise the readiness of Calvin to resort to carnal weapons, no apology for his vindictiveness in persecution. The sixteenth century in Italy, with all its resemblance to the eighteenth century in France, yet lacked, said the lecturer, what was characteristic of the latter, "belief in the better elements of mankind." Was this belief a worse illusion, he asked, than Machiavelli's dream that he could build on a foundation of "cunning, jealousy, perfidy, ingratitude, dupery"—the only qualities he recognized in human society?

"It is true to say," so began the closing period of the lecture, "that Machiavelli represents certain living forces in our actual world; that science, with its survival of the fittest, unconsciously lends him illegitimate aid; that, in Lord Acton's words, 'he is not a vanishing type, but a constant and contemporary influence.' This is because energy, force, will, violence, skill, keep alive in the world their resistance to the control of justice and conscience, humanity and right. In so far as he represents one side in that eternal struggle, and suggests one set of considerations about it, he retains a place in the literature of modern political systems and of European morals."

LOUIS DYER.

Correspondence.

LONDON DAILIES IN BOSTON LIBRARIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your comment upon the 'List of Periodicals, Newspapers, Transactions, etc.,' published by the Boston Public Library, you have, not through your own fault, fallen into error regarding the symbols used to designate the various institutions represented in this list. You have been led to suppose that the Boston Athenæum alone takes currently the London *Times* and the *Daily News*, whereas these and four other London dailies are taken at the Public Library. "News. Room" is an abbreviation for the newspaper room of the institution, but it was neglect not to have said so.

It is of interest to add that this list was printed and bound under the roof of the Boston Public Library, and that the material was also all put into type by the use of the linotype machine. This would not now be so remarkable, except for the fact that in setting up titles in such a variety of languages, a large number of unusual accents and other "sorts" were necessary. The machine fonts now in use by this library comprise over five hundred distinct characters, and enable it to undertake the printing of almost any catalogue, with the added advantage of mechanical swiftness.

I may say, in answer to your wish that some information had been furnished in regard to the condition of files of periodicals, that this desirable feature was omitted for the sake of economy of space, and from the fear lest confusion should arise from an over-widening of titles. Some day there ought to be a full list of serial literature, past as well as present, with full bibliographical and literary data. Possibly the present achievement will stimulate some one to the greater task.

Respectfully, LINDSAY SWIFT.

PUBLIC LIBRARY OF THE CITY OF BOSTON,
June 9, 1897.

Notes.

Macmillan Co. have in preparation a 'Dictionary of Architecture,' to be published in three large octavo volumes, under the direction of Russell Sturgis, author of 'European Architecture: An Historical Study.' The work will include special articles by many of the leading architects, sculptors, engineers, mural painters, and other men having practical knowledge of the arts about which they write. Biography is part of the scheme, and one may expect to find definitions of terms, history and criticism of styles, together with some account of building as an art, materials and their employment, construction (practical and scientific), modern appliances to meet novel requirements, modern and ancient practice in the application of painting and sculpture to buildings, landscape gardening in connection with architecture, etc., etc. The volumes will be abundantly illustrated.

The same firm announce for early publi-

cation an edition, in six volumes (a book to each), of Spenser's 'Faerie Queene,' edited with introduction and glossary by K. M. Warren; and 'The Observations of a Foster Parent,' in respect to many problems of education.

Joseph Henry Allen's addresses and essays, bound together under the title 'Sequel to "Our Liberal Movement,"' will be published by Roberts Brothers.

D. Appleton & Co. will very shortly bring out 'The Private Life of the Queen,' by a member of the royal household; 'Peter the Great,' by K. Waliszewski, author of the 'Romance of an Empress, Catharine II. of Russia'; a new historical novel by Conan Doyle, 'Uncle Bernac'; 'His Majesty's Greatest Subject,' by S. S. Thorburn; and 'Equality,' by Edward Bellamy.

The Century Company will have ready in the autumn a patriotic itinerary, 'The Century Book of the American Revolution,' by Elbridge S. Brooks.

Flood & Vincent, Meadville, announce among their Chautauqua text-books 'Imperial Germany,' by Sidney Whitman; 'Roman Life in Pliny's Time,' from the French of Maurice Pellisson, by Miss Maud Wilkinson; and 'The Social Spirit in America,' by Prof. C. R. Henderson of the University of Chicago.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, conclude this month their library edition, in fourteen volumes, of Catharine Charlotte Lady Jackson's works, with 'The Court of the Tuileries' in two volumes.

Ginn & Co., Boston, are preparing to publish during the present month the *Zoölogical Bulletin*, a companion serial to the *Journal of Morphology*, but with no illustrations beyond text-figures, and with no bibliographical lists. The editors are C. O. Whitman and W. M. Wheeler. Each volume will contain six numbers.

'The Chatelaine,' experiences of travel, by G. E. X., will be published by the Peter Paul Book Co., Buffalo.

Stone & Kimball will have ready early in September the second issue of Edwin Emerson, jr.'s, 'College Year-Book and Athletic Record,' greatly improved.

'The Story of the Union Jack,' told by Barlow Cumberland for the Jubilee year, will bear the imprint of William Briggs, Toronto.

The great protectionist reaction through which we are now passing has apparently prompted the Henry Clay Publishing Company of this city to start into being on a capital of the plates of the Rev. Calvin Colton's Life, Correspondence and Speeches of Clay in three, one, and two volumes respectively. These have been reprinted and bound uniformly, and embellished with numerous portraits of Clay himself and of other public characters, his contemporaries. Moreover, the publishers have procured of Speaker Reed a not lengthy introduction to the reprint, followed by a very unworkmanlike bibliography, for which the Speaker seems to claim, if not authorship, at least a modest responsibility. This matter is placed at the front of volume i. A thin seventh volume has been wholly composed by Mr. McKinley (whose preface just antedates his nomination last year), and purports to be a history of tariff legislation from 1812 to 1896. We must for the present leave our readers to enjoy for themselves these additions to the original series. They can profitably engage also in a comparison of the protection idea as enunciated by Clay with that which now haunts the brain of Dingley and Aldrich. At our leisure we may return to the subject.

The latest scholarly edition of Gibbon's 'Decline and Fall' proceeds with a becoming slowness. We now have volume three (London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan). Prof. Bury's additions to the author's footnotes are again supplemented in an appendix in which there are many learned discussions of great interest. Such are those concerning the Picts and Scots, the origin of the Huns, the libraries of Alexandria, Alaric in Greece and in Italy (first invasion), and the Procopian legends. With the help of Prof. Dowden, an allusion to Voltaire—as "a poet far superior to Claudian"—is first explained; its interjection by Gibbon makes it all the more curious.

The sixth volume of the "Outward Bound" edition of Kipling's Writings in prose and verse (Scribners) comprises seventeen of the shorter tales and dramas, in three groupings. The elder Kipling's regulation three illustrations in relief are of very even merit, and the first, "Wee Willie Winkie," has much the charm of a carving in ivory.

The bound volume of the *Century* for the six months ending in April last contains nothing more certain to be reread, perhaps, than Gen. Porter's "Campaigning with General Grant." We might except Capt. Mahan's foretastes of his Life of Nelson, three papers on as many famous engagements; and Dr. Weir Mitchell's "Hugh Wynne, Free Quaker," the leading serial, may be counted on to find readers in book form. Of transient yet of no slight interest is the "symposium" on the reasons for the failure of the Confederacy; and to ponder once more Mr. Buel's "Our Fellow-Citizen of the White House," a plain account of the cares assumed by a conscientious and independent executive like Mr. Cleveland, will be salutary occupation for anybody. Washington, both by reason of the change of administration and of the completion of the National Library building, cuts a considerable figure in this volume.

A like revolution of time (December-May) brings us the sixth volume of Mr. Charles F. Lummis's 'Land of Sunshine' (Los Angeles), with its customary store of camera illustration, and with the beginning of the editor's scholarly translation, with facsimile, of the 'Reglamento para el Gobierno de la Provincia de Californias' (Mexico, 1784). Nature in such views as those of the palms of San Fernando or the sycamore and mistletoe, the Wonderful Rock of Katzimo (surpassing any Old World acropolis), or the eroded pinnacles called the Navajo Church, the falls in Cataract Cañon, Arizona, together with old Spanish monuments, "Camulos Rancho" (associated with Helen Hunt Jackson's 'Ramona'), views of Pacific Coast industries and fêtes, of native and foreign population—all this makes a forcible appeal to the curiosity of the untravelled. The contributed articles offer a very varied interest, and the editorial pages are racy and plain-spoken as heretofore.

The *Harvard Graduates' Magazine* for June possesses no salient feature. The anonymous review of Mahan's 'Nelson' and the brief paper on the Röntgen rays, both among the leading articles, might seem alien to the scope of the magazine; but Capt. Mahan bears an honorary degree from Harvard, and Prof. Trowbridge intimates in a very interesting way what direction the Jefferson Physical Laboratory is giving to the development of Röntgen's discovery. There are pleas for a greater endowment of the Medical School in view of the numerical proportion of its students in the university total, and for contentment with the persistent smallness of the Divinity School pending a recognition of its aims and its unique position among theological institutions. Mr. Noble's article on "The Choice of Overseers" proves a marked conservatism on the part of the youngest graduates who have a hand in nominating or electing the members of that body. Reëlection seems almost a prescriptive right if desired. Dr. William James's short address on Agassiz will be succeeded in the next number by his fine performance at the Shaw memorial exercises in Boston last month. The house of John Harvard's mother at Stratford and a portrait of Mr. R. C. Lehmann, the new Oxford boating coach, are the illustrations of the magazine.

In the April number of *Art et Décoration* (Boston: *American Architect*) will be found photographic memoranda of Jean-Paul Laurens's huge "decorative panel" in the Champs-Élysées, "Le Lauraguais," commented on last week in our Paris letter on the Salons. It must be thought to suffer much in this reproduction; and the weak rather than the strong points of Aman-Jean's triptych are likewise emphasized in a smaller copy. There are some capital bits of furniture design in this number; nothing more charming than the child's chair of M. Dampt on p. 74.

Better executed samples of the Salon are to be had in the *Figaro-Salon* now beginning to come to us from Boussod, Valadon & Cie., No. 303 Fifth Avenue, with the customary loose large colored plate in addition to those bound up with the text. M. Debat-Ponson's "Le Sillon" offers a poetic criticism on J. P. Laurens's analogous theme.

Parts 11 and 12 of Paul Langhans's 'Deutscher Kolonial-Atlas' (Gotha: Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) exhibit German colonization eastward from the mother country (1) in the Danube region; the Togo and Cameroon protectorates (three last of the four sheets); and, in an entire map of Africa, Germany's civilizing efforts (*Kulturbestrebungen*) on that continent, with a side-map showing her exploratory share in the solution of the Nile problem. These charts are all skilfully colored for statistical and other purposes.

From the same source comes to us the twelfth edition of 'Berghaus's Chart of the World,' on Mercator's projection, the standard exhibit of trade routes by land and sea, ocean currents and wind zones, drift-ice, continental railroad and telegraph systems, etc. The trader and navigator being first in mind, the Chart is edited in English. Some of the novelties are the modifications of the arctic map in consequence of Jackson's exploration of Franz-Josef Land, Nansen's voyage in the *Fram*, and the Russian surveys of the Ob and Yenisei deltas; the course and progress of the Trans-Siberian Railway. Politically, too, the Chart is up-to-date, as appears from the provincial subdivisions of Canada, the map of Africa, etc. The four oblong sheets are capable of being mounted.

Beginning with the present year, the Archæological Institute of America will publish uniformly and regularly its papers, reports, and other documents, converting to its use the existing *American Journal of Ar-*

chæology, and styling it "second series." It will be conducted by an editorial board representing the Institute and the Schools of Classical Studies at Athens and at Rome. It will be issued six times a year by Macmillan Co., and the bi-monthly parts will be sold separately, as will reprints of important papers. Prof. John H. Wright of Harvard will be editor-in-chief for 1897.

The American School of Classical Studies in Rome will open, for its third year, on October 15, 1897, under the direction of Prof. Clement L. Smith of Harvard, and with Mr. Richard Norton of Bryn Mawr for Professor of Archæology. Pursuit of the course on palæography will secure the privilege of studying MSS. in the Vatican and other libraries. There will also be courses in epigraphy, numismatics, the catacombs, and Pompeii. The school year will close August 15, 1898, with opportunity for study, for limitted periods, in other parts of Italy and in Greece. The school building is on the corner of the Via Gaeta and Via Palestro. There is no tuition fee. Further particulars must be sought of Prof. Smith (at Cambridge, Mass., till August 1, and, after that date, care of Sebasti & Reali, Rome), or of Prof. W. G. Hale, chairman of the managing committee, University of Chicago.

—The eighth volume of Mr. Paul Leicester Ford's edition of Jefferson's Writings (Putnams) embraces the whole of his first Presidential term, and leaves him, in the first year of the second, confronted with Burr's conspiracy. This situation was hardly more trying than that which he had to face on succeeding John Adams, under the profound irritation caused by that President's clapping into office as many of his fellow-partisans as possible on the very eve of going out himself. Nothing is more striking than the close resemblance between Jefferson's position about removals and that assumed afterwards by Mr. Cleveland as to the display of offensive partisanship by Federal office-holders, the theory of "due participation (or proportion) of office" or "equilibrium in office" in view of an existing monopoly by the party last in power, etc. Jefferson cherished in his mind a proposal to enjoin executive officers from intermeddling with elections. He thought he could set himself right before his opponents by maintaining "the justice of making vacancies in order to introduce a participation of office," but he found them suspicious of his motives, and prompt to meet his numerical statistics with comparisons of the pecuniary worth of the offices held by perhaps a minority of Republicans and those held by a majority of Federalists. Like Cleveland, he made the mistake not of expelling indecent partisans, but of admitting new men to take their places *as* partisans. He held, at least as a matter of convenience in the case of Callender, that public offices were not confided to him to give away as charities; yet in the case of John Page, as Mr. Ford shows at length, he endeavored to provide this friend with sinecure offices which might become hereditary in the family. This undemocratic procedure was in progress when the great head of the unterrified Democracy was counselling Charles Wilson Peale, about to exhibit his mammoth abroad, not to jumble his audiences together—"the decent part of them" with "pickpockets, chimney-sweeps, etc.," but to "set three different divisions of the day at three different prices," for the beau monde, merchants and respectable citizens, and "the lower description."

—As a sequel to the Virginia insurrection of 1800, there is a good deal in this volume concerning schemes of colonizing the blacks, in the West Indies or in Sierra Leone rather than within the limits of the United States. In 1805 Jefferson writes that he had long since given up expectation of any early provision for extinguishing slavery, and believed that nothing short of a general slave uprising would spur the country to such a step. In his first message to Congress he took the position, in which he had Gallatin's hearty approval, that "sound principles will not justify our taxing the industry of our fellow-citizens to accumulate treasure for wars to happen we know not when, and which might not, perhaps, happen but from the temptations offered by that treasure." Like Darwin, Jefferson lost his relish for poetry as he grew older, but he records the fact in language amazingly flowery. "The purists of New England" made him nervous as to the style of his first message, which he begs Madison to revise for him so as to observe strictness of grammar where it does not weaken expression. "But," he adds, "where by small grammatical negligences the energy of an idea is condensed, or a word stands for a sentence, I hold grammatical rigor in contempt." This has not prevented Jefferson from being quoted more frequently in the Oxford Dictionary than, we believe, any one if not all of his critics. We remark, finally, that there is a suggestion of Montaigne in the confession (respecting speculations concerning a future life), "I have for many years . . . reposed my head on that pillow of ignorance which a benevolent Creator has made so soft for us, knowing how much we should be forced to use it."

—An address delivered November 27, 1895, by A. C. Goodell, jr., before the Massachusetts Society of Colonial Wars, "in commemoration of the six hundredth anniversary of the first summoning of citizens and burgesses to the Parliament of England," has been printed in a thin volume daintily bound in white and blue. Mr. Goodell's aim, as the sub-title of his address tells us, was to sketch the history of the House of Commons and compare the development of the legislatures of Great Britain and of Massachusetts. The two parts of the address do not hang together very well, but such comparison as there is is quite to the advantage of Massachusetts. We cannot share, however, Mr. Goodell's view of the progress of representative government in England. It is, of course, easy to show that the House of Commons was not, until a late period, a truly representative body in the modern sense; where Mr Goodell errs, we think, is in failing to see that the appearance of a new political theory, as in the case of the Parliaments of 1265 and 1295, was of itself a matter of great importance, in spite of the fact that the general application of the theory was long delayed. Nor can we endorse the author's rather extreme depreciation of the character and work of Simon de Montfort, or quite admit that the latter "remains a romantic myth in the dim past to tempt credulous lovers of the picturesque in history to use him as a glittering foil to the dreary, vacant background of the unknown." We note that Mr. Goodell speaks of the document known as *De Tallagio non Concedendo* as a statute, although such is no longer the received opinion.

—There is not a more lucid and trustworthy writer on music in England than Mr. F. Corder, and his most valuable contribution to musical literature is 'The Orchestra and How to Write for It' (E. Schuberth & Co.). It condenses into 111 pages a vast amount of useful and often curious and striking information, very much of which cannot be found elsewhere. It differs from most other works on instrumentation and orchestration in being serviceable not only to those who have studied all the other branches of composition, but also to "the less gifted," who may, as the author remarks, "at one time or another, write a song, a valse, a march, an operetta, or a cantata, and have an opportunity of getting it performed by a more or less complete orchestra." And whereas other books on this subject treat only of full orchestra and small orchestra, Mr. Corder does not disdain to include in his consideration brass bands, theatre bands, and other of the humbler combinations of instruments. For the unskilled he has facilitated matters by giving in the examples the real notes of the transposing instruments. Another point in which Mr. Corder's treatise differs favorably from most of its predecessors is in the great catholicity of choice of examples, from the earliest times to the present day—from Bach to Grieg and Johann Strauss. The following lines from the pages on the viola give a good idea of Mr. Corder's treatment of his subject:

"It is of increasing importance in the present day to have the Violas numerous and good, as composers sometimes avail themselves of the gloomy and characteristic tone to give this instrument the top part. No one would do this throughout an entire work as Méhul did in his opera 'Uthal' (1803); but Wagner has frequently done it for an entire scene ('Tristan,' act ii., sc. 2, 'Walküre,' act i., sc. 3, etc.), and Brahms has written a serenade for orchestra (op. 16 in A) with Violas in place of Violins. For a few bars the effect is far more pleasing than for longer. One of the few existing important solos for Viola is Berlioz's 'Harold in Italy' symphony, which has a Viola obligato all through; but the obligato to Annchen's song in the second act of Weber's 'Freischütz' is a far better specimen of how to write effectually for the instrument. To these actual solos I will add the quotation of a very beautiful one from Liszt, the opening of the slow movement of the 'Faust' symphony."

—The representation of musical sounds by numbers expressing the relative lengths of a given string or tube required to produce them has been, from antiquity, the delight of ingenious mathematicians. This interesting subject is once more treated of in a thesis entitled 'Musical Pitch and the Measurement of Intervals among the Ancient Greeks,' which was presented for the Doctorate in Philology in the Johns Hopkins University by Mr. Charles W. L. Johnson, and which deserves recognition for the ability and industry displayed in it. The first half of the pamphlet is taken up with an elaborate analysis of ancient definitions of "pitch" and "interval" which are superfluous even to the most exhaustive discussion of the subject announced, and are mainly, like most ancient definitions, unscientific, even for their own age, and of no practical value whatever in ours. But in an essay born and cradled in academic halls much must be allowed to the *genius*

loci, and especially this sort of conservation of learned texts. At any rate, in his discussion of these texts from Greek writers on music, the essayist has employed the only method of interpretation which offers any reasonable hope of clearing up certain perplexed points in ancient music—namely, that of ascertaining the meaning of certain words by tabulating all the passages where they occur in the same author, and in others of the same age and school. Such words as *tonos*, *tropos*, *eidos*, *chroa*, for example, need to be thus ascertained for every period of ancient musical science, and we believe that the unknown date of several of those writers could be approximately fixed by their use of certain of these words in one or another sense. The selection, for a doctor's thesis, of a subject so intricate and so laborious is a promising sign. The time is evidently at hand when we may expect occasionally to find in the thesis of an American student, as we already find in many German and French doctors' theses, valuable contributions to the knowledge of the subject discussed.

—Eleonora Duse's triumphant appearance at last on the Parisian stage, challenging (as here in New York) comparison with Sarah Bernhardt, has led Jules Claretie to write about her at some length in the *Temps*. She had, he says, attracted the attention of the younger Dumas by securing for his "Princess of Bagdad" a great success in Italy, whereas in Paris the play proved all but a failure. It does not appear certain that the playwright and the actress ever met, though they had corresponded with each other, and he often desired a French counterpart of her for his service. It was in the "Dame aux Camélias" that M. Claretie himself first saw Duse act, some four years ago, in London, when he had for his companion the great French actress, Mlle. Bartet. He relates his own immediate conquest by Duse, and then tells of the effect on Mlle. Bartet of Duse's simulation of being fatally stricken: "She is ill. They will have to interrupt the play, and I cannot attend to-morrow, for I must act myself. How unlucky!" The consummate art she was witnessing had deceived, or thrown off its guard, her professional sense of dramatic unreality; and, as M. Claretie observes, Duse, perhaps, never won a greater triumph.

AN AMERICAN EXPLORER IN EAST AFRICA.

Through Unknown African Countries: The First Expedition from Somaliland to Lake [Rudolf and] Lamu. By A. Donaldson Smith, M.D., F.R.G.S. Illustrated. Edward Arnold. 6 maps. 8vo, pp. xvi, 471.

The region between the Indian Ocean and the Nile is now the most interesting part of unexplored Africa. The coast districts are comparatively well known, but the interior has been traversed only here and there by a few expeditions, while an extensive tract still remains absolutely unknown. In this lies hidden the solution of some important geological and orographical problems, and, judging from the adjacent lands, it probably has an extraordinarily rich fauna and flora, containing species, especially of birds, unknown to science. The whole region is a sportsman's paradise, its plains being almost the last refuge of many characteristic African animals, while its human inhabitants are of the most varied types, from the pigmy representative of the aboriginal race to the half-civilized Abyssinian. Though some of it is waterless desert, a large part is a fertile wilderness, so elevated as to be apparently fitted for white colonization, and its hills give evidence of great mineral wealth. It is interesting politically, also, as the possible battle-ground where, in the not distant future, England and Abyssinia may contend for possession.

The chief obstacle to its exploration is the hostility of the natives to all strangers. Inveterate raiders themselves of their neighbors, they naturally regard every man not of their own village or tribe as an enemy. Unfortunately, the conduct of some white sportsmen has intensified this feeling. If native accounts are to be credited, the expeditions of Prince Ruspoli and Capt. Bottego especially differed little from those of avowed raiders. These Italian adventurers attacked and plundered the people through whose territory they passed, leaving behind them a fierce hatred for all the white race. Mainly from this cause the route from the north and east through this region to Lake Rudolf was held three years ago to be impracticable for the ordinary traveller. The success of our countryman, Dr. Donaldson Smith, therefore, in traversing it with a comparatively small number of men is very notable, and gives him a high rank among African explorers.

Our satisfaction, however, it should be added, is somewhat lessened by the fact that he was obliged several times to resort to force. It is true that he only defended himself when attacked, that he paid for the camels and cattle which he seized, and that he invariably freed with rich presents the natives whom he captured. But it is difficult to see anything but an unjustifiable disregard of natural rights in his forcing his way against the will of the inhabitants. In a country where at certain seasons food and water are barely sufficient for the wants of the people living in it, the passage of a caravan of one hundred men and as many animals may prove an intolerable scourge, to be prevented, if possible. The mapping the course of a dozen rivers, the securing scores of specimens new to science, the traversing hundreds of miles of unknown country—does not outweigh the life of a single native sacrificed in defence of his herds and his wells. Whether Dr. Smith could have gained his end peacefully through the exercise of greater tact and patience we cannot say, but the experience of other travellers, especially of Thomson with the Masai, as fiercely hostile to whites certainly as the Boran and Arbore, leads us to believe in its possibility.

With this exception, then,we have nothing but praise for the courage, endurance of no ordinary hardships, and persistence against great obstacles which characterized Dr. Smith in the adventurous journey described in this interesting volume. With a costly expedition, organized and maintained at his own expense, he travelled some four thousand miles, much of it through wholly unexplored territory. A sportsman, he subordinated hunting to the interests of science, and, by his numerous and careful observations, has contributed materially to our knowledge of the geography of East Africa. Among his collections, to quote from Sir William Flower's remarks at a meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, were six thousand specimens of insects, four new species of fish, eleven of reptiles and batrachians; and out of more than seven hundred specimens of birds there were "found no less than twenty-four species which were previously unknown to science." Of very great anthropological interest, also, is the discovery of a tribe of dwarfs "farther north than they have hitherto been met with."

Our author left Berbera, on the Gulf of Aden, in July, 1894, with two white companions and eighty-two Somali, his goal being Lake Rudolf, some six hundred miles to the southwest. The strip of coast-land under British protection having been crossed, he entered immediately into a region subject to the raids of the Abyssinians. A village on the border, with "great herds of fine cattle," was attacked a few days after he passed, and the "cattle driven off, the young girls taken as slaves, and the older people killed and mutilated." In this way a large tract of fertile country is rapidly being turned into an uninhabited wilderness. The Abyssinians themselves were not encountered until a district, nearly half-way to the lake, was reached, which was permanently occupied by them. Here the expedition was detained by the commanding general until the assent of the Emperor Menelek to its further progress could be obtained. In an interesting account of this man and his followers, Dr. Smith speaks highly of their soldierly qualities, but says that their morals are far below those of their heathen neighbors.

A few miles from the Abyssinian camp, the river Web cuts a passage through a defile in such a way that "the whole mountain appeared to be resting on a series of columns thirty to forty feet high and twenty to eighty feet apart, between which were spacious vaulted chambers, with their domes rising many feet higher; and then again many columns uniting formed long arched tunnels." In one of these chambers the natives had apparently been accustomed to offer sacrifices. "There was an enormous fireplace on one side, over and about which were hung various offerings that had been made to Wak, consisting principally of wooden vessels, strings of cowry shells, sheepskins, and leather straps."

The necessary permission for his further progress having been refused by the Emperor, in a courteous letter of which an interesting facsimile reproduction is given, Dr. Smith turned reluctantly back towards the coast, taking a more southerly route than the one by which he came. As soon as he was beyond the Abyssinian "sphere of influence," a fresh, and this time successful, attempt was made to reach the lake. The chief difficulties encountered in this region arose from the scarcity of food and water and the very natural reluctance of the inhabitants to give or sell them to the expedition. This was generally overcome by gifts of trading-goods, but at times violent measures, such as the seizing of animals and men, were used. In repelling one of the inevitable attacks upon the expedition under these circumstances, Dr. Smith says, "The punishment the natives received was terrible." The loss of the expedition was one boy. In this instance the assailants were the Boran, a numerous and powerful race who resembled the Abyssinians in their light copper color, "their long faces, broad foreheads, and generally intelligent cast of features." An indication of an advance in

their condition is the fact that while formerly they were divided up into many different tribes, they were now united under one king. There are also traces of an ancient civilization in some of their wells. One in a meadow was "approached by a winding passage a hundred yards long, which descends gradually to the bottom of a large round chamber fifty feet deep and opening straight to the top. The passageway and the chamber itself have both been cut through solid rock. In the latter are a series of basins for receiving the water as it is drawn up from a narrow opening dug another forty feet below the bottom of the chamber."

Another still more interesting race was the Dume, living in the hitherto unexplored country to the north of Lake Stephanie. These were dwarfs about five feet in height, or five or six inches taller than the pigmies of the great equatorial forest. This and their black color seem to show their mixed origin. About a thousand in number, they raise sheep and goats, and occasionally kill elephants with poisoned arrows. From the meagre description of them by Dr. Smith, we gather that they do not differ materially in condition from the neighboring races. A considerable mental development, indeed, is evident from the fact that they can count to thirty, if the list of words spoken by them, given in the appendix, can be relied upon.

Just a year after leaving the coast, Dr. Smith came in sight of Lake Rudolf, and thus "attained in a measure the greatest ambition" of his life. His explorations were not over, however, for, taking with him a few men, he followed the course of a river flowing into the northern end of the lake nearly a hundred miles. From a height at his furthest point he could see the mountains bordering on Abyssinia, and, stretching towards the Nile as far as the eye could reach, a grassy plain broken only by two ranges of low hills. A considerable part of this country was uninhabited, but here were numerous villages of the Mela, "the most sociable and hospitable black people we had yet seen," and interesting as being one of the few remaining African tribes apparently free from all influence, direct or indirect, of civilization. They cultivate the ground, raising coffee, tobacco, and grain, and have "sheep, goats, and chickens, a few donkeys, but no cattle." Their thatched houses are well built, and they cross the river on a bridge of boughs lashed together and suspended to the branches of two large trees. They wear a great variety of iron and ivory ornaments, and their hemp "baskets were models of skilled workmanship."

The return journey to the coast was marked by few incidents, the most noteworthy being the suffering from terrible heat and thirst during the three days passed in the volcanic region on the southeastern shore of Lake Rudolf. In October Dr. Smith reached the port of Lamu, bringing with him all but six of his Somali. This is a remarkably good record, considering the length and difficulties of the journey, and testifies to the care which he took of his men. A large part of his narrative is occupied with his hunting exploits, many of which were of an exciting character. They become monotonous, however, and most readers not sportsmen will tire of the frequent references to the efficiency of his "577." It should be said, nevertheless, that there is little or no evidence of the indiscriminate slaughter of harmless animals, in which some travellers have indulged. His main object was to secure rare specimens and supply the caravan with food. There seems to have been game wherever he went. The farther he penetrated into the unexplored country, the more abundant it became. On the shore of Lake Abaya, "the zebras and hartebeests were so numerous that they appeared to form one vast herd several miles long." At another time besides these animals there were to be seen on all sides "gazelles and ostriches, as well as many giraffes and rhinoceroses." The latter, in fact, were a positive source of danger from their frequent and unprovoked attacks on the caravan. Elephants were also met with in considerable numbers, and Dr. Smith records with pardonable pride the killing of one whose tusks weighed one hundred and eight and one hundred pounds respectively. He says very little of his scientific work, but the appendices, describing a part only of his collections, show its great extent and value.

His style is generally clear, but occasionally his inexperience as a writer is evident, and here and there are some very crude statements. A good geographer and excellent map-maker, he is not an especially keen observer of the natives and their habits, and, except in one or two hunting adventures with lions, he fails to picture in a graphic way the incidents of the life in camp or on the march. On the other hand, he is unnecessarily coarse in allusions to certain native customs about which travellers are generally silent. The book is very handsomely got up (though it is too heavy for comfortable reading), and contains numerous illustrations and an interesting series of route-maps. These are so admirable that we regret to call attention to discrepancies between the spelling of names in the text and on the maps. Turfa (p. 36) and Terfa are not of much importance, but this is not true of Gorgora (p. 48) and Crórgora. We have already noticed in the heading to this article an unfortunate omission on the title-page. These are but small blemishes, however, in a work which is a distinct and valuable contribution to the literature of African exploration.

RECENT ASSYRIOLOGICAL BOOKS.

Die Entstehung des ältesten Schriftsystems, oder der Ursprung der Keilschriftzeichen, dargelegt von Friedrich Delitzsch. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs. 1897. Pp. 240.

Assyrisches Handwörterbuch von Dr. Friedrich Delitzsch. Dritter und vierter (Schluss) Teil. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs. 1895, 1896.

A Concise Dictionary of the Assyrian Language (Assyrian-English-German). By W. Muss-Arnolt. Parts iv. and v., pp. 257, 320. Berlin: Reuther & Reichard; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1896.

The Tell el-Amarna Letters. By Hugo Winckler. Berlin: Reuther & Reichard; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 1896.

Assyrian and Babylonian Religious Texts. Copied from the Original Texts by James A. Craig, Professor of Semitic Languages, etc., University of Michigan. Vol. I. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs. 1895. Pp. viii, 83. [Assyriologische Bibliothek. Delitzsch und Haupt, xiii.]

With his usual enthusiasm, and with the manifest endeavor to observe strict scientific method, the teacher of most of the German Assyriologists, himself still young, addresses himself in his latest book, 'Die Entstehung des ältesten Schriftsystems,' to the fascinating problem of the origin of the cuneiform signs. It is fascinating as all exploration of obscure beginnings is fascinating, but especially so because it is, perhaps, as Delitzsch unhesitatingly calls it, the tracing of the origin of the oldest system of writing in the world, and because of the possible relation of that to later systems. It is interesting to the ethnologist as well as the epigraphist, because the oldest elements of the wedge-system represent pictorially objects and qualities which permit conclusions as to the habits of their inventors. Finally, to Assyriologists a special personal interest attaches to the book because in it Delitzsch definitely abandons all coquetry with the "Anti-Sumerians," and takes his stand again squarely on the position occupied by most sound scholars, that the signs were invented by a non-Semitic people and for a non-Semitic language. He gives unreserved credit to the Babylonian discoveries of the expedition sent from the University of Pennsylvania for the abundance of archaic material which has made possible a fruitful study into the origin of the signs, and he dedicates his work to the members of that expedition, Mr. J. H. Haynes, Prof. H. V. Hilprecht, and Dr. John P. Peters. This is not more than just. These discoveries afford the opportunity for tracing the development of the sign-forms during a period of three or four thousand years at least, and in some instances bring us very near to the time of the inventors themselves.

After a review and criticism of previous attempts, Delitzsch with little delay enters upon the process himself by the method of analysis. Beginning with signs long recognized as showing evidence of composition even in their latest Assyrian forms, and adding others whose composite structure becomes clear when older forms are examined, he is able to resolve into earlier elements, with much probability, forms hitherto supposed simple, to discern in many cases the significance of the elements, and the reason for the particular combinations, and to recognize certain definite laws or usages according to which signs are composed. The repetition of the same sign, once, twice, or thrice, to make a compound, the addition of unlike signs, the insertion of sign within sign, the employment of various stereotyped symbols or "motives" in manifold combination, are all abundantly illustrated in detail; and while much is still doubtful and obscure, and some of Delitzsch's particular opinions will need to be modified as discovery and study go on, the fruitfulness of his method seems well made out. He has taken a long stride in advance.

It would not be profitable to attempt here to follow him step by step. Attention may be called to the "Gunierung," or, as we may say, *gunation*, *gunû* being a group of three or four parallel wedges added to an existing sign, to give additional weight to the meaning, or, in other words, to intensify it in various ways. Delitzsch finds in this one (and far the most important) among several numeral-signs, used as elements to aid in expressing compound ideas. The "motives" of *opening*, *surrounding*, *cutting*, and of *light* and *wave-motion* will serve as specimens of another class of elements. It is particularly instructive to note how many of the simplest (and probably original) elements re-

present not objects, but characteristics. We find, no doubt, pictorial representations of star and sun, of eye and hand, of ox-head and fish, of arrow and bow, but also signs which, at the earliest attainable point, denote qualities, such as evenness, fulness, motion, depression, bending, length, extension, protection. If these can be maintained —and it seems likely that most of them can be—the confirmation of an important philological theory which they afford is very striking and convincing. The surprising agreement of some of Delitzsch's results with the arrangement of the signs in the native syllabaries, showing that the compilers of these syllabaries understood the origin and the proper affiliation of the signs, can be only alluded to. Delitzsch enumerates thirty-seven original signs at present recognizable, and expresses the belief that the entire number will not prove to exceed forty-five or fifty. From these the four hundred and more which meet us in the syllabaries and texts have been formed. By tabulating these primitive signs he is able to reach interesting conclusions as to the condition and habits of the people that invented the signs, according to which they enjoyed a relatively high degree of culture. The seven pages devoted to the exposition of these results will be to many the chief attraction of the book.

The least satisfactory part of the volume is the closing chapter, "Ausblick auf das phönikische Alphabet," in which Delitzsch suggests that the originators of the alphabet may have borrowed the acrophonic principle from Egypt, while influenced in the choice of objects to be represented, perhaps to some extent in the names of the characters, and even possibly in the selection of forms, by the Babylonian sign-system. It is unsatisfactory, not because of its view of the Phoenician alphabet as eclectic in origin —this seems by no means improbable—but partly because of its necessarily sketchy character, and partly because it leaves wholly out of account other possibilities, such, *e. g.*, as those cautiously suggested by Mr. Arthur Evans in his 'Cretan Pictographs and Præ-Phœnician Script' (reviewed in these columns a year ago). But this chapter is of the nature of an excursus, and its suggestions are doubtless worthy of being considered. The book is attractively made, in autograph, with good margins, and has an index of the cuneiform signs discussed.

The completion of Delitzsch's smaller Assyrian Dictionary has for the first time put into the hands of students a convenient and trustworthy lexical hand-book to the cuneiform literature. To finality it of course cannot lay claim, nor does Delitzsch himself suppose that it can. He expressly disavows this. The vocabulary is constantly increasing, and doubtful meanings are modified or wholly changed by the advance of study. But it will not lose its value for many years. It is at present simply indispensable. Its characteristics have been sufficiently considered by us on a former occasion. We add merely that the decided and positive attitude now taken by the author in the "Sumerian" question (see above) makes us regret afresh that etymological discussions have been excluded from his plan. But, even as it is, he has rendered a signal service to Assyriology and to Semitic science in general by this work, which has involved labor such as only dictionary-makers can understand. In his brief preface (appended to part iv.) he expresses the hope of enlarging and improving it from time to time. The project of completing his larger Assyrian Dictionary, also, seems not to be abandoned. One remark in this preface we notice with some regret:

"Der letzteren [*d. h.*, der assyriologischen Fachliteratur] konnte ich leider während der Vorbereitung und Ausarbeitung meines Handwörterbuches eingehendere Beachtung nicht schenken, da ich vom ersten Anfang an entschlossen war, dieses lexikalische Gebäude ganz nach eigenem Plan und eigener Methode im Grossen wie im Kleinen aufzuführen, selbst auf die Gefahr hin fehlzugehen, wo Andere vielleicht Richtigeres erkannt hatten."

That is to say, Delitzsch has not attended to the opinions of others, because he was determined to be independent even at the risk of mistakes. This ought, perhaps, to make us admire his work more, as the product of the unaided scholarship of one man, but it reminds us, rather, of his boast that the little dictionary appended to the third edition of his 'Assyrische Lesestücke' (1885) was written from memory. *Tours de force* of this kind are hardly in place in lexicography. It is a gratification to read further:

"Mit um so grösserem Eifer lasse ich es mir jetzt angelegen sein, die Arbeiten der Fachgenossen zu studieren und zu prüfen, um mit ihrer Hülfe, wo dies nöthig erscheint, die eigenen Aufstellungen zu modifizieren und zu korrigieren, und dann eines Jeden Priorität freudig anzuerkennen, wo immer in wichtigen Punkten das meines Erachtens Richtige bereits anderwärts ausgesprochen sich findet."

This may not be quite logical, but it is undoubtedly correct.

Muss-Arnolt's work, unlike Delitzsch's, abounds in references to Assyriological literature, and this is one of its valuable features. We should be glad of a more critical attitude toward the authorities he cites, and this is especially important from the student's standpoint; but, apart from this, its ample collection of references is of great service. This, and its etymological comparisons and remarks, give it an importance independent of Delitzsch's dictionary, although it cannot be regarded as a work of the same grade. The omission of the statement "To be completed in about [7—] 8 parts" from the cover of Part v. is ominous, but evidently truthful. Part v. does not finish the letter *Chett; i. e.*, on p. 320 it has reached the point which Delitzsch reached on p. 281. At this rate, Delitzsch's 716 pp. (exclusive of additions, corrections, etc.) will become more than 800 pp. in Muss-Arnolt's hands, and the work will run to twelve or thirteen parts. In view of this, and of the large resulting cost of the completed work, it is questionable whether the space employed by the use of both English and German definitions has been wisely used. But when all criticisms, including the more strictly philological ones, to which the book is doubtless open, have been made, it remains a painstaking and useful work, and there is no proper justification for the contemptuous treatment it has received in some quarters.

It is a great satisfaction to have the Tell el-Amarna letters published in accurate transcription and translation (as far as scholarship at present allows) in the compass of one handy volume. The significance of these documents is well known, and need not be here enlarged upon. Dr. Winckler has long been entitled to speak about them with as much authority as any man. The letters are arranged topically, without regard to their order in the publications of the texts hitherto made, though always with indication of their place in those publications. Thus we have I., Letters from Kings of Western Asia, and II., Letters from Phœnician and Canaanite Princes, with those between Egypt and Babylonia, Assyria and Egypt, Mitani and Egypt, and letters from Cyprus, grouped separately under the former head, in a manner convenient for reference and comparison. There are 296 letters in all, including (as No. 219) the solitary find at Tel-Hesy. After the usual 'Remarks and Corrections' there is a vocabulary and a list of the proper names.

As remarked above, this is not the place to repeat what is already known about the importance of these letters. But the book would have been more complete if a brief account of their discovery and value had been prefixed to it, and a more definite statement of their present whereabouts. Even without this, however, it will stand for a long time as the authoritative publication, for common use, of these remarkable epistles, which have for the last ten years been shedding such unaccustomed light on the relation of peoples and languages in Western Asia thirty-four hundred years ago.

The task which Prof. Craig has set himself is greatly needed. Much has been written about Assyrian and Babylonian Religion. Prof. Sayce gave a course of the Hibbert lectures on the subject a few years ago. Other discussions of the matter, comprehensive or special, are scattered about. The popular books speak confidently, and draw sweeping conclusions. But, in fact, the preliminary work needed before a sound treatment of the theme can be given is as yet very fragmentary. The texts which furnish the materials for our knowledge of the religion of these peoples need to be carefully and fully edited before a true presentation of that religion can be made. Prof. Craig undertakes to supply a part of the deficiency in this field. The materials are not in the form of treatises on theology. We have to reconstruct the beliefs of ancient peoples in large part out of such exercises of worship as have come down to us. We learn their religious conceptions by observing how they prayed and sang their praises. Hymns and prayers, liturgical formulas, and oracular responses, chants of conjuration and ritual provisions are the sources of much, perhaps most, of our trustworthy knowledge. Prof. Craig has therefore done well to edit these texts. They are neatly autographed, on one side of heavy paper with wide margin. Those in volume i. number about forty, in some cases put together laboriously from different fragments. They are mostly from the Kuyunjik collection and in the later Assyrian character; some belong to the time of Sennacherib, Esarhaddon, and Asurbanipal; but some are undoubtedly copies of older originals. The translation and comments are reserved for the second volume, but in the preface to volume i. Prof. Craig makes some statements about the nature of the religious belief of the Assyrians, and its relation to that of the Hebrews, which are worthy of all attention. It is true that the inference he seems to draw from the religious conceptions of the King to those of the common people is perhaps rather unguarded. It would be indeed a surprise to learn that the high spiritual thoughts of some of the royal prayers were widely shared by the populace. But the same thing would have

to be said concerning the Hebrews in the time of Hezekiah.

Reminiscences and Letters of Caroline C. Briggs. Edited by George S. Merriam. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

This book is of the family of those which admit us to the companionship of remarkable people who have no notoriety or reputation, and who encourage us with the assurance that there are many such. It will give great pleasure to the friends of Mrs. Briggs, however they may regret a touch of excessive intimacy here and there, and hardly less to many who impinge, at one point or another, on the wide circle of her friendships, experiences, and sympathies, and to those especially who look back regretfully to the simplicity of their early life, the homely work and cheer of circumstances which can never be restored. The student of social manners and development will find here a memoir so serviceable as to suggest comparisons with Mrs. Susan Leslie's 'Recollections of My Mother,' one of the most graphic pictures ever painted of the best social and domestic life that was developed in the interior towns of New England from seventy-five to fifty years ago. It is a fact of questionable import that the local situation here is the same as there. Both Mrs. Leslie and Mrs. Briggs were born and brought up in Northampton, Mass. But, however glad we might have been to be guided to fresh woods and pastures new, these are extremely pleasant; to see Judge Lyman's household from another point of view is a great satisfaction, and also to see Mrs. Leslie as others saw her with admiring eyes.

Mr. Merriam's work as an editor has been mainly one of selection; he has written only a few pages here and there. But it was he who instigated his friend to write the "Reminiscences," which cover 155 pages and are the most interesting part of the book. They are written in "that style which makes all our literary writing seem cheap," as Mr. Howells said of the memoirs of General Grant. It is strange that a literary instinct so marked never tempted or compelled its possessor into a literary career. The father was at once farmer and jailer, and we have the frankest possible description of his sturdy character and the manner of his life, of his wife also and of a beloved sister of Mrs. Briggs, while the servants, self-respecting New England women, and the neighbors and friends, and the whole order of domestic, social, and religious life are vividly portrayed. One of the most interesting chapters describes the religious life of a family consciously heretical, and a succession of Unitarian ministers, Hall, Ellis, Dwight, and Stearns, no one of whom has ever before been subjected to an appreciation at once so honest and so kind. But the family doctor, one of the many medical Flints, is described more lovingly than any of these, even John S. Dwight. "His eyes were blue as violets, and would fill with tears while a big oath was on his lips." As for the writer, she paints herself with a more absolute frankness than any of her sitters. Eager, passionate, wilful, affectionate, one is reminded strongly by her of Mary Ann Evans in her stormy early youth.

Her life went on for eleven years after her "Reminiscences" were written, and her letters give a profound and beautiful impression of her outward and her inward life. Great losses and sorrows came to her, but she bore them with the stoutest heart. Her piety was without any supernaturalist supports, but it was sufficient for her every need. There was something strongly individual in her perfect confidence in a future life. But in her life and thought there was not a hint of other-worldliness. No one ever rejoiced in the beauty of this world more heartily. Indeed, the dominant note is a passionate delight in nature; a keenly sensuous note, yet not unspiritual, because the beauty of the world was the sure ground of her confidence in "the eternal goodness," a revelation of that goodness to her heart. Taken as a whole, the book is one of the healthiest imaginable, and it must have a tonic influence on those who read it. Some of them will be made deservedly happy by such remarks as those upon Samuel May of Leicester; others may not enjoy their portion. We could wish that the editor had been more explicit in defining the persons engaged in the correspondence, and more exclusive of such matters as "rubbing," which, however joyous for the rubbed one, add nothing to the reader's happiness. But the defects are few, and in the main a task extremely delicate has been discharged in a manner equal to the sacredness of a friendship of no common breadth or height.

The Liquor Problem in its Legislative Aspects. By Frederick H. Wines and John Koren. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1897.

THIS book contains the results of investigations made for the "Sociological Group," a number of gentlemen interested in the study of our social conditions, who decided that the "drink problem" might properly receive immediate attention. The method employed has been historical rather than scientific; that is to say, the investigators have had no definite end set before them as a solution, no hypothesis to be tested. Of course, under such conditions, there is nothing to be done but to set down what is to be seen and heard, after the manner of the newspaper reporter or special correspondent. This work the investigators in the present case have done very well. They report on the conditions existing under eight different kinds of liquor legislation. They furnish no complete statistics, for there are none to be had, either of the amount of liquor consumed or of the number of arrests because of drunkenness. But they certainly make good their modest claim to furnish some evidence as to the success in promoting temperance of the various kinds of legislation described, as well as to exhibit their social and political effects.

The difficulties in the way of such researches are not trifling. The prejudices of witnesses are violent; the interests of those most competent to testify are against publicity. So far as opinion is concerned, it is possible to obtain every variety, and yet it is necessary to depend upon opinion when seeking to determine a moral question. There are some hard facts, such as that drunken people are frequently seen in Maine; that the United States Government issues about a thousand licenses to sell liquor there; that there are annually more than a thousand prosecutions for violations of the liquor laws, etc. But as to the general results of prohibition, it is easy for those who believe in it to say they are good, and for those who disbelieve in it to say they are bad. What the judgment of these investigators is, appears from this reference to some of its evils:

"The public have seen law defied, a whole generation of habitual lawbreakers schooled in evasion and shamelessness, courts ineffective through fluctuations of policy, delays, perjuries, negligences, and other miscarriages of justice, officers of the law double-faced and mercenary, legislators timid and insincere, candidates for office hypocritical and truckling, and office-holders unfaithful to pledges and to reasonable public expectation."

That these results have attended prohibitory legislation, that they have in general attended legislation in so far as it is prohibitory, are conclusions amply supported by evidence.

Much that is interesting and instructive concerning the working of the various systems of liquor legislation is to be found in these pages, and it is well that it should be laid before the public. But it would be better if the true nature of the problem were scientifically stated.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ade, George. Pink Marsh: A Story of the Streets and Town. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
A Fascinating Sinner. F. T. Neely.
Britton, Prof. N. L., and Brown, Addison. An Illustrated Flora of the Northern United States, Canada, and the British Possessions. Vol. II. Portulacaceæ to Meryanthaceæ. Scribners. $3.
Bury, Prof. J. B. Gibbon's Roman Empire. Vol. III. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Calamus: A Series of Letters by Walt Whitman to a Young Friend. Boston: Laurens Maynard. $1.
Carlyle, Thomas. Cromwell's Letters and Speeches. Vols. II. and III. [Centenary Edition.] Scribners. $2.50.
Carpenter, Prof. F. L. English Lyric Poetry, 1500-1700. London: Blackie & Son; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Douglas, Sir George. The "Blackwood" Group. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Elshemus, L. M. "Lady" Vere, and Other Narratives. New York: Eastman Lewis. $1.25.
Elshemus, L. M. Mammon, a Spirit-Song. New York: Eastman Lewis. $1.25.
FitzGerald, Edward. Rubáiyát of Omar Khayyám. St. Paul: E. W. Porter. $1.
Florio's Montaigne. Vol. III. [Temple Classics.] London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Gladstone, W. E. Later Gleanings: Theological and Ecclesiastical. Scribners. $1.25.
Hardy, W. J. Book-Plates. 2d ed. London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Howard, Clifford. Sex Worship. Washington: The Author. $1.25.
Kupfer, Grace H. Stories of Long Ago in a New Dress. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 35c.
Larned, W. C. Arnaud's Masterpiece: A Romance of the Pyrenees. Scribners. $1.25.
Lee, Albert. The Knave of Hearts. R. H. Russell. 50c.
Marryat, Capt. Snarleyyow. Macmillan. $1.50.
Matzke, Prof. J. E. First Spanish Readings. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. $1.
Maxwell, Sir Herbert. Memories of the Months: Being Pages from the Notebook of a Field Naturalist. Edward Arnold.
Omond, G. W. T. Fletcher of Saltoun. [Famous Scots.] Scribners. 75c.
Page, T. N. The Old Gentleman of the Black Stock. Scribners. 75c.
Pearson, Prof. Karl. The Chances of Death, and Other Studies in Evolution. 2 vols. Edward Arnold. $8.
Rathbone, St. George. A Bar Sinister. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Reed, V. Z. Tales of the Sun-Land. Continental Publishing Co. $1.25.
Rider, S. S. Soul-Liberty—Rhode Island's Gift to the Nation. Providence: S. S. Rider. $1.25.
Rider, S. S. The Forgeries connected with the Deed given by the Sachems Canonicus and Miantinomi to Roger Williams. Providence: The Author. $2.00.
Rossetti, Christina. Maude: Prose and Verse. Chicago: H. S. Stone & Co.
Russell, B. A. W. An Essay on the Foundations of Geometry. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Sargeant, Adelaide. Marjory Moore's Lovers. F. T. Neely. 50c.
Seth, Prof. Andrew. Man's Place in the Cosmos, and Other Essays. Scribners. $2.
Stiness, J. H. A Century of Lotteries in Rhode Island, 1744-1844. Providence: S. S. Rider. $2.25.
The Romance of Isabel Lady Burton. 2 vols. Dodd, Mead & Co. $7.50.
Thompson, Francis. New Poems. Boston: Copeland & Day.
Thomson, J. S. Estabelle, and Other Verse. Toronto: William Briggs.
Thomson, H. C. The Outgoing Turk: Impressions of a Journey through the Western Balkans. Appletons. $4.
Tooley, Sarah A. The Personal Life of Queen Victoria. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.
Totten, C. A. L. Our Inheritance in the Great Seal. New Haven: Our Race Publishing Co.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Drei Kleine Lustspiele. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30c.
Wells, Prof. B. W. Labiche and Martin's La Poudre aux Yeux. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 25c.
Wilcox, Ella W. Sweet Danger. F. T. Neely.

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 24, 1897.

The Week.

For several months dispatches from Washington have given a deplorable account of Mr. Sherman's mental condition, and within the past week the Hawaiian annexation treaty has furnished occasion for what is substantially an announcement to the world that the Secretary of State is in his dotage. The story of the contradictions in which he has involved himself about his own attitude to the treaty has been telegraphed everywhere, so that now not only every European foreign office, but every one who takes enough interest in what is going on to read the newspapers, knows that the gentleman who carries on our foreign affairs and is our official spokesman with every nation with which we have dealings, does not remember in the afternoon what he said in the morning. If all this were the result of an accident—if Mr. Sherman had been appointed when in the full possession of his faculties, and had subsequently lost them—it would be a serious public misfortune; but, far from such being the case, he was made Secretary of State with at least ample warning to the President and the Senate that his mind was going, and, in order that the affairs of the department might be carried on at all, an Ohio neighbor and confidant of the President, quite unknown to the country at large, was installed under him.

Such is the present condition of the Department of State, the most important department of the Government, and the head of which, in the case of the death of the President or Vice-President, stands next in succession to the Presidency. That is a remote chance, though it is one which it was the duty of the President to think of, but it is a minor matter compared with the confusion and embarrassments now being caused in the ordinary conduct of the Government itself. It comes at a time, too, when we have need of the very highest ability in our management of foreign affairs. Not only is the Administration undertaking to annex some islands in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, two thousand miles away, in complete departure from the traditional policy of the Government, settled by the practice of a hundred years; it is in the midst of a most irritating discussion with Spain as to Cuba, which has already involved us in the gravest responsibilities, and will probably lead to still worse complications, by means of which a large faction hope to egg the country into war. Not content with this, it intends, as was announced on Sunday, to reopen the negotiations for an arbitration treaty with England, while it is at the same time endeavoring to get that country to come into some new convention on the subject of the seals, although no secret is made of the Administration's inclination to withdraw from the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, and, by assuming a protectorate over a fortified canal route across the isthmus, demonstrate our utter indifference to any treaty obligations which conflict with our notions of our interest. While all this burden is thrown upon the State Department, owing to the peculiar views of foreign policy held by the President or his advisers, Congress is at work upon a tariff which, for the first time in the history of this country, puts us at odds with almost every European nation, and even with Japan, and brings from month to month protests or threats of retaliation from every foreign office in Europe. Such a situation obviously cannot last. Mr. Sherman must soon retire, or be deprived of all but a nominal connection with the State Department.

Some striking differences appear between the Hawaiian Treaty and message of four years ago and those of to-day. President Harrison's appeal was against the dangers of a monarchy which, he said, had become "effete," but which might be restored unless the United States stepped in and took the islands. Hence "prompt action upon this treaty is very desirable." But McKinley actually invites delay. Urging "due deliberation" upon the Senate is equivalent to saying, "For Heaven's sake, don't suppose I am in a hurry about this." But the most salient difference is in the treaty itself. Article iii. of the treaty of 1893 provided for the continuance of the existing Hawaiian government and laws until Congress should otherwise enact. Article iii. of the present year of grace turns the whole civil service of the islands over to the tender mercies of the spoilsmen. The two clauses in parallel columns will show how much more there is "in" the new treaty:

TREATY OF 1893.	TREATY OF 1897.
Until Congress shall otherwise provide, the existing government and laws of the Hawaiian Islands are hereby continued, subject to the paramount authority of the United States.	**Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands, all the civil, judicial, and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons, and shall be exercised in such manner, as the President of the United States shall direct,** *and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned.*

Is this vision of good things depended upon to placate the beet-sugar men?

Senator Davis, chairman of the committee on foreign affairs, frankly admits that the sending in of the Hawaiian treaty at this time was only a political juggle. He cheerfully announces that no effort to ratify the treaty will be made at this session. It is a good enough treaty until after the tariff is passed; what it will be then, no one can tell. Thus the evidence is complete that the Administration is simply playing fast and loose with the Hawaiians in order to crowd through its tariff at all hazards. For the same end, it is simultaneously announced that all attempts to get currency reform going have been abandoned for this session. On the strength of assurances to that effect the silver Senators are letting the tariff slip along. Hawaii, currency reform, economy—all these are thrown overboard to save the tariff, and that tariff one sure to result in a deficit!

The protest of the Japanese Minister at Washington against the Hawaiian treaty is based on the ground of its inhumanity. And the worst of it is that the treaty *is* inhuman. The President and his advisers have brought this Christian nation into the humiliating position of being exposed to just rebuke by a heathen country for proposing to trample on fundamental human rights. The case as set forth in the Japanese protest is clear and unanswerable. Under the treaty between Japan and Hawaii negotiated in 1871, Japanese citizens were guaranteed in the islands all the rights and privileges of other foreigners. Since that date they have freely gone to Hawaii, where they now number about 25,000 souls. Many of them have acquired property; have their wives and children with them; have become Hawaiian citizens by naturalization. But all their rights and privileges are to be remorselessly wiped out by Mr. McKinley's treaty. These heathen have no rights that a Christian is bound to respect. Their citizenship is to be extinguished by a stroke of the pen. Their right to migrate to this country is absolutely denied; their right to property, and to protection of the laws, is at least seriously imperilled. The best prospect before them is forced flight from the islands, with loss of legal rights and property and great incidental suffering. The situation of the Chinese in Hawaii will be even more pitiful when our inhuman treaty is ratified. There are 25,000 of them in the islands, and the treaty will practically deprive them instantly of liberty and the pursuit of happiness if not of life. They are there, and have been welcomed there as contract laborers; but no Chinese can labor under contract for one day under the laws of this

Christian people. Chinese in United States territory may freely move from place to place; but when Hawaii becomes United States territory, the Chinese cannot budge; a special provision of the treaty prevents it. They cannot work on the islands, they cannot come to the United States to find work. What can they do? This is what the Chinese Minister at Washington is asking the President.

We are more than pleased to hear that the American Ministers to France, Germany, Belgium, and Austria have been instructed to take a very high tone with the governments of those countries respecting the obstacles they put in the way of American agricultural exports. There is something peculiarly revolting to President McKinley about preventing foreign imports into a country, especially the necessaries of life; and he is going to see that the Europeans quit it, or know the reason why. Of course, we ourselves lay duties on agricultural imports, but that is only to fool the farmer; the Europeans actually protect their farmers without fooling them and keep our food exports out. We should not object to humbug duties, like our own; it is only the effective ones that are so offensive. It is certainly high time that a resolute protest was made against this foreign policy of laying taxes and getting up administrative laws and hygienic regulations so as to shut out imports; and Mr. McKinley is the ideal man to make it. One of his alliterative maxims levelled at the crowned heads would swiftly bring them to terms.

The Republican Senators caucused for two days in order to find some way to circumvent the laws of trade, and then solemnly gave up the job. They gave out their decision in the form of a great economic discovery—namely, that "if a tariff was to be reduced, importations would be held back; and if a tariff was to be raised, importations would be rushed in." Nobody but United States Senators would have needed to wrestle with the subject two days to reach that conclusion, but we must say that, for them, the time was well spent. In fact, it would be well for the country if they would caucus oftener and discuss the elementary principles of trade and finance. If the seal of caucus approval could be set on Gresham's law, for instance; if Senators would gravely vote that we could not make foreigners pay our taxes; if they would agree that a prohibitory duty cannot be at the same time a revenue duty; even if they would formally resolve that an expenditure of $525,000,000 on a revenue of $475,000,000 means a deficit, it would seem a great advance. But we are thankful and encouraged that eminent Republicans at last admit that there are such things as laws of trade. Dingley thought not.

Although nobody in the Senate has yet succeeded in proposing a popular method of securing revenue enough to meet the expenditures of the Government, and every new scheme that is brought forward for preventing a deficit meets bitter opposition, new appropriations are recommended as cheerfully as though there were a large surplus in the Treasury. The pension committee of the Senate has reported favorably a bill granting a pension of $8 a month to surviving soldiers and the widows of soldiers who participated in the various Indian wars. The committee admit that this measure would increase the expenditures on pension account by at least $7,500,000 a year, and experience indicates that the actual cost would be much larger. But the fact that there is not money enough in sight for the Government to pay its present pension bills without running in debt does not restrain the party in power from swelling the deficit by millions a year more, and this new pension bill will doubtless go through Congress as soon as it can be brought to a vote.

The million and a half in gold which went out by Tuesday's steamers raises the total shipments thus far in the year to something like $21,000,000. This total does not, however, run beyond the average for the period, even in years before the silver-purchase act. The spring gold exports, it will be remembered, caused acute alarm only after the currency experiments of 1890. It was in 1891 that the Treasury officers themselves began to express misgiving. Finally, in July, 1892, with gold going continuously out on export, and with practically none coming into the banks either from Washington or from the interior, the city institutions, threatened with utter exhaustion of their stock of specie, ceased to use gold for mutual settlements at the clearing-house, and thus drove sterling bankers back on the Treasury reserve. At the same time, the movement of new gold, alike into the Treasury and into the banks, was almost suspended; the gold was actually hoarded. The results we know; but those very results add interest to this season's wholly different phenomena. The Treasury reserve has, to be sure, been used again as a source for export gold; but while some $15,000,000 has been thus obtained, $2,560,000 has been provided by the banks from their own supplies. Meantime, the deposit of new gold with the Treasury in exchange for notes has again become heavy, and the net result of both these succors is very striking. Since April 1, the total gold exports from New York have footed up $18,480,000; yet the net decrease in the Treasury gold reserve during the period has been only $7,294,000. This is a very different situation from that which has prevailed during the spring gold export movements of the past five years.

Special interest is added to these incidents by the mint estimates of the country's gold production during 1896. Mr. Preston's preliminary report, issued early last week, figured last year's aggregate output of the United States mines at $53,088,000, as compared with $46,610,000 in 1895 and $39,500,000 in 1894. This increase, in his judgment, bids fair to be continuous, and sixty millions is not therefore an excessive estimate for 1897. Now, the striking fact in connection with these figures is, that in only four out of the last twenty-five years have net gold exports from this country exceeded even the new production during 1896. Three of those years of exceptionally heavy shipments followed the treasury-note inflation under the act of 1890; yet the country's total net loss of gold through export in the five years following 1890 has been less by nearly $40,000,000 than the ascertained production of the country's mines in the same period.

The question of a beer tax is before the Legislature of Pennsylvania, and it is as difficult a matter to handle at Harrisburg as at Washington. The first proposition was to put a tax of one cent per gallon upon all beer brewed outside of the State and sold within its borders, and the Senate actually passed this bill to a third reading, although it was in the plainest possible violation of the federal Constitution and of repeated decisions by the Supreme Court that a State cannot tax articles brought into it from another State any more than it taxes similar articles produced within the State. Even the Harrisburg lawmakers finally saw the folly of pushing this scheme, and on Wednesday week a substitute was proposed to make the tax apply to all beer, wherever brewed. It is estimated that the proposed tax on Pennsylvania beer alone would bring in over $1,000,000 a year, and an advocate of the project urged with force that it would look bad to "refuse to pass this bill and at the same tax dead men's estates and the property of widows and orphans, and reduce the public-school appropriations." But a Harrisburg correspondent reports that "the power of the beer interests is so great that it is difficult to predict the fate of this or any other measure proposing to tax malt liquors." The final decision will, of course, be made by the "Government" of the State, who is still detained in Washington by his Senatorial duties.

The meeting of the New Jersey Democratic State committee last week shows

that there, as elsewhere, the Bryanites have firm hold of the organization, and do not propose to relax their grasp. The more independent sentiment of this region prevents the managers from going to the extreme position taken by the similar committee in Kentucky recently, which refused a place in the caucus to anybody who would not accept the Chicago platform of 1896 and agree to abide by it. But the New Jersey leaders do not propose to let the Gold Democrats have any prominence in the organization. They are ready to accept the coöperation of such men at the polls, but only on the understanding that they will "vote and not talk"; they must swallow Bryanism, or they will not be considered Democrats. The men who have always believed in the traditional doctrines of Democracy regarding sound money now know what to expect in New Jersey. They should immediately recognize the fact that there is no question as to the course which self-respect will require them ultimately to adopt. They must maintain an organization based on the principles of the National Democratic platform, as men of the same mind in Kentucky have already decided to do.

Those distressed Americans in Cuba have been pretty thoroughly forgotten by the dear public since the dear public found out that there weren't any. But the consuls are doing their best to distribute the money which Congress voted in the dark. A newspaper of Sagua, the *Productor*, says that the American Consul there, not being able to find any needy countrymen, is giving away his quota to Chinamen and negroes. And the *Region* of Matanzas says that the same thing is going on in its neighborhood. It gives the names of some persons who were suffering Cuban *pacificos*, driven from their homes by the brutal Spaniards, until they heard of this fund for distressed Americans, whereupon they became distressed Americans on the spot. Really, the Organized Charities ought to send some of their circulars to President McKinley and Congress, warning them against being taken in by impostors.

It seems more and more doubtful if it is the "manifest destiny" of the United States to absorb Canada. The Sandwich Islands and the West Indies may be added to our territory, but the complacent idea of such statesmen as Mr. Depew, that Canada will some time drop into our lap "like a ripe pear," finds little support in present realities. The Dominion has taken an important step towards closer union with the mother country in reducing the duties on English goods; and this step is in a direction which will increase the effectiveness of the costly improvements in the means of transportation which are already in existence. Under the Tory governments, which have with one exception—more apparent than real—prevailed in Canada for thirty years, enormous sums have been spent on canals and railroads, the purpose of which was to enable the Canadians to export their products cheaply. At the same time the ridiculous policy of protection has hindered the sale of these products, and gone far to neutralize the increased facilities for transportation. Mr. Laurier's Government, it seems, proposes not only to diminish tariff hindrances, but also to establish a new line of twenty-knot mail steamers to ply weekly between England and some Canadian port. Connection by cable with the Australasian colonies will probably not be long delayed, and Canada may become the great thoroughfare of commerce between these colonies and England.

It is interesting to note, in connection with the Queen's Jubilee, that, in 1837, the year in which her reign began, the French Canadians were in armed rebellion against English rule. To-day Mr. Laurier, a Frenchman and a Catholic, not only is Premier of Canada, but is in England to present the congratulations of that country and the assurance of its loyalty to the British Queen. Such is the natural and legitimate result of the policy of granting political enfranchisement to the members of a race hostile by political and religious tradition to the English-speaking people of Canada. As is maintained by the correspondent of the London *Times*, it would be difficult to find a Canadian who would seriously urge Mr. Laurier's religion or his nationality as an argument against his holding his present office. The fact that Mr. Laurier has distinguished himself by his devotion to the principles of free trade, and has at last succeeded in committing the Dominion to those principles, gives additional emphasis to the changes that have taken place in the relations of the inhabitants of Upper and Lower Canada to each other and to the empire. Domestic unity and concord have been substantially attained, and imperial unity is in a fair way to become more and more complete. But we can hardly agree with the correspondent of the *Times* that the imagination of France will be touched by these circumstances. It may be true that "a genius essentially French once more directs the destiny of the Canada whose history is associated with the splendid names of Champlain, Frontenac, Laval, and Montcalm"; but that will hardly appear to Frenchmen, considering the character of this destiny, to be an occasion for indulging in sentiments of unmixed exultation.

The bimetallists are heroic optimists, but some of their whistling to keep their courage up comes very near outright misrepresentation. Thus, Lord Aldenham's letter to the English Bimetallic League, two weeks ago, boldly prophesied that "this year of Jubilee" was going to crown the hopes of the international bimetallists. Now prophecy is always irrefutable unless the prophet gives his reasons. If he does give them and you can refute them, it makes both him and his prophecy look silly. Lord Aldenham was incautious enough to give reasons, and said that "the greatest evidence" of the speedy coming of the bimetallist millennium was to be seen in "the famous resolution of Parliament in March, 1896, and the promises of the Chancellor of the Exchequer." But the real bimetallic resolution of March, 1896, was one asserting "that the establishment of international bimetallism would be beneficial to the best interests of the country." On this, however, the bimetallists, though they had introduced it, did not dare challenge a vote. The resolution which was passed without opposition had not a word about bimetallism in it, but expressed the hope that the Government would "do all in its power to secure by international agreement a stable monetary par of exchange between gold and silver." As for the Chancellor's "promises," they consisted in asserting that "we all [*i. e.*, all the members of the Government, even the bimetallic Balfour] agree in this, that we should not be justified in proposing or accepting a departure from the gold standard of the United Kingdom."

There is at last a fair prospect of the passage of a bill for reforming the land transfer system of England, a system so inconceivably expensive and cumbrous as to have drawn from Sir F. Pollock the remark that no one would believe that landowners could endure it did they not actually do so. The difficulties of reconstructing a mass of ancient technicalities, in the face of the united opposition of the only class that understood them, have hitherto been insuperable, although attempts have been made repeatedly for nearly seventy years. Now, the Incorporation Law Society and the associated provincial societies have given their approbation or at least consent to a tentative measure. Compulsory registration of titles is to be tried as an experiment first in a single county, subject to the approval of the County Council, and the experiment is not to be repeated until sufficient time has elapsed to enable a rational judgment of the working of the measure to be formed. The measure also contains provisions that the title to land shall pass on the death of the owner to his personal representatives, and that purchasers, if certain conditions are complied with, shall obtain from estate owners titles paramount to all equitable interests.

THE HAWAIIAN JOB.

However unpopular the Hawaiian Treaty may be with the press or the country, there is no doubt that it is greatly liked at Washington. This is not because of any advantages that annexation will bring to the United States, for no one has yet mentioned a single one. The President, in his message, speaks of it as a "fitting sequel" to a "chain of events"—"no new scheme," and "not a change," but "a consummation"; but he does not point out any gain to be derived from it by us. Nor does Mr. Sherman, in his report, which is wholly occupied with a vindication of annexation as contrasted with a reciprocity treaty, or what he calls a German "Zollverein," or a "feudal or colonial" establishment. The treaty provides for the assumption of the public debt of the islands to the extent of $4,000,000, but this is not a gain to us, for we have a debt already.

Not only do these documents not state any advantage which the country is to derive from the treaty, but they seem to avoid stating even those which have been supposed to exist. It is not pointed out, for instance, that Hawaii is a "key," or that, in the possession of an enemy, these islands would afford a basis of attack only 2,000 miles away, so that annexation would shut such an enemy out from an obvious "coal base," and throw him back for fuel 5,000 miles. This argument has always possessed great charm for Capt. Mahan and ourselves, but evidently it does not weigh with the President or Mr. Sherman.

It is humiliating to have to say it, but it is a fact that the chief public anxiety about the Hawaiian Treaty is to know what and whose job it represents. That it stands on its own merits nobody pretends. That any such scheme was even thought of a month ago, nobody alleges. Just consider the situation when the *Evening Post's* Washington correspondent first published the fact that a treaty was soon to be signed. Hawaii expected nothing of the kind. The latest Honolulu annexationist papers were in the dumps, despairing of being able even to retain their reciprocity treaty. Not a particle of organized sentiment in favor of annexation was in sight in this country. McKinley and Sherman were both committed against it, as far as words can ever commit minds like theirs—which, we admit, is not far. The whole thing was quiescent and forgotten when, suddenly, in a week's time, a treaty was concocted, signed, and sent to the Senate.

Such effects defective come by cause, and what was the cause? "An urgent political necessity," telegraphs the Washington correspondent of the *Tribune*, who had before scouted the idea of any treaty being in immediate contemplation. The correspondent pretty plainly hints at the disgraceful facts. It was with great "reluctance" that the President sent the treaty to the Senate. In fact, the treaty was first sent to him by the Senate, in the same way that nominations are now sent. The President has become the clerk of the Senators. They had told him that the whole sugar schedule, and so the whole tariff, was imperilled by the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty and the complications growing out of it, and that an annexation treaty would ease matters mightily. Accordingly, on his principle of always striving to please all, the President ordered the treaty drawn. That this is the explanation of the haste is openly asserted by Senators Lindsay, White, and others.

The situation appears to have been this. The beet-sugar growers had the Hawaiian reciprocity treaty at their mercy in the Senate. They offered to compromise on a bounty, in addition to the high protection they get in the bill, but the Senate caucus decided that a bounty would not be popular, and therefore would be unfair. "Very well," said the beet-sugar Senators; "then there must be no more free sugar from Hawaii." On the other hand, the House wanted to continue the reciprocity treaty admitting sugar free; there was a prospect of a fight over the matter; besides, it was not seemly to repeal a treaty without notice and in that rough-and-ready fashion. Then the annexation treaty was thought of as a way out. The Hawaiians and their friends would thankfully drop the reciprocity treaty for the thing they were getting so much beyond their wildest hopes. And the beet-sugar men? Well, it may have been thought that they would be taken in by the dear old protectionist paradox that imports which would be damnable from a foreign country are beneficent when brought from the same country under our flag. Some of the beet-sugar Senators may be gulled in this way, but we think most of them are too hard-headed for that. They will have to be "squared" in some way, shown in dollars and cents that there is something in it for them "equally as good," or else they will oppose the treaty. Whether they have been reasoned with on these lines, whether they can be, is one of the mysteries of the situation.

Another mystery is whether the treaty is meant to be ratified. May it not be all a trick, solely intended to grease the wheels of the tariff? It is broadly hinted that ratification is not expected by the President at this session of Congress. The "urgent political necessity" simply required it to be sent to the Senate. One equally urgent may next winter require its withdrawal or its quiet strangling. What is clear is that there is nothing sincere or settled about this treaty. It is not really a treaty, it is a political trick; it is meant to help the finance committee and the tariff out of a tight place. This the President's warmest friends and defenders admit; it is a clever political move, that is all, so far. Mr. McKinley says that the failure of the treaty of 1893 was "not wholly without value," inasmuch as it showed that the republic of Hawaii could sustain itself. Might he not be equally philosophical if his own treaty failed? He would be quite capable of defending it on the ground that it was well to see if this country really wanted to annex Hawaii, and if it did not, certainly he did not.

But what neither Mr. McKinley nor any of his champions can defend is the manner in which this treaty was conceived. It is the prostitution of the nation's highest interests to serve a party exigency. Nothing like this has ever been known. We have had treaties made or proposed for curious reasons; but we have never had a violent departure from a settled national policy seriously urged as the best way of getting a contested tariff schedule through Congress. Talk about the "policy of infamy"! What is this new policy? It is at best a policy of insincerity, of alarming vacillation, of false pretence, of dragging the nation's honor recklessly into a wretched party intrigue. Is the trail of sugar hereafter to be over our foreign relations as well as upon our domestic legislation?

This latest surrender of Mr. McKinley to the Senate is the most startling feature of the situation. We could get on with Hawaii, but we cannot get on with an Executive who is content to register the will of scheming Senators. This is something that goes far beyond accepting senatorial dictation in appointments to office. If the Senate can demand an Hawaiian treaty to get out of a snarl in one schedule, why not a Cuban treaty to get out of another? This is simply to turn our conduct of foreign affairs topsy-turvy. It is to mix up our national life and destiny with Dutch standards and polariscope tests and beets.

A MENACE TO TRADE.

After more than a century of protective tariffs the people of the United States are asked to accept a measure which embodies the most extreme protective features ever formally proposed in a law. It is not strange to find a prevalence of doubt on the reasonableness of the demands for increased protection. If a century of favor still leaves the industries in an apparently hopeless and helpless condition of infancy, when will the need of a Government bounty cease? It is a well-recognized fact that the great industries, such as iron and steel, cotton and woollen, glass and leather, produce in most lines more than is sufficient for the needs of

the home market; and that the real problem is how to obtain foreign outlets for the surplus, not how still further to secure or monopolize the home market. A tariff is almost useless in opening such outlets unless it favors manufacturers by free raw materials; and no tariff can widen the home market without sacrificing interests vastly greater than those to be assisted. On the ground of reason a high tariff at this juncture of industrial development is to be questioned closely and critically.

There would be some excuse for this new tariff if the countries of Europe had in recent years increased the duties in their general customs tariffs, or directly discriminated against products of the United States in such a way as to do injury to the trade in those articles. The course of tariff legislation abroad does not justify the belief that the tendency is markedly towards higher protective duties. If the amount of revenue obtained from the special imports by the leading commercial countries be compared with the value of those imports, the true burden of the tariff will be seen. Such a comparison shows that Germany enforced a tariff that took 6.3 cents on every dollar in value of merchandise imported in 1884, and 9.2 cents on the dollar imported in 1894. France received 7 cents in 1884, and 12.1 cents in 1894, on the special imports of the respective years. Italy, where the needs of Government are so extreme as to oblige it to look to every possible source of revenue, obtained 12.3 cents in 1884 and 18.9 cents in 1894. Even Spain, where protectionism is rampant, levied a toll of 11.7 cents in 1884 and 16.7 cents in 1894. In none of these instances can it be said that the theory of regulating foreign commerce by restrictive or prohibitory duties has been applied as far as it has been in the customs regulations of the United States, for our tariff law of 1884 imposed a toll of 28.44 cents on every dollar of merchandise imported, and in 1894 20.25 cents—a decrease due to the depressed conditions of trade and a very heavy import of free goods. Only Russia, a Power which appears to wish to break away from commercial connections with her neighbors, enjoys as high a tariff return as the United States obtains, for she received 12 cents on the dollar of import in 1884, and 20.8 cents on the dollar in 1893. But Russian policy is not one that commends itself for imitation by our people.

A further consideration in connection with the customs tariffs of Europe is the ability of each country to relieve its people of an excessive or a locally burdensome tax by commercial treaties. The high and at times prohibitive duties of the general tariff are lightened, or even set aside, by treaty or convention, and in this way the true weight of the system is only generally shown by the comparison just made. That such a treaty is based upon mutual concessions does not destroy the force of this statement, for no concession of importance would be made unless some really compensating trading privilege were obtained. This treaty system, with its vital principle of equality in concession omitted, was introduced in our tariff of 1890; but little positive advantage to our commerce can be traced to that experiment, and it was sufficient to prove the inexpediency of further attempts in that line.

In no one of the European tariffs are there to be found duties framed against and immediately intended to restrict imports from the United States. Decrees have been issued against hog products or meats from the United States, a form of protection masquerading as sanitary legislation. General duties on agricultural imports have been levied at the demand of the agrarian parties in France and Germany, but these duties have applied with equal force to wheat, corn, or cattle, from every exporting country, and could not be interpreted as a special attack upon products coming from the United States. In their results these restrictions have not permanently affected exports from the United States, and the principal end for which they were framed has not been attained.

A different spirit has actuated recent tariff legislation in this country. Prohibitive duties have been framed for manufactured articles coming from a single country—like the rates on pearl buttons, which struck down an important trade with Austria-Hungary. Protective duties on agricultural products are levied with the avowed object of reducing our imports from Canada. The cheap woollen and cotton manufactures of Germany are held up as the reason for very high rates on those imports; and Japan complains, in company with France, that her low-priced silks will be excluded from the markets of the United States by the proposed rates in the pending bills. At the demand of California excessive rates are laid on fruits and borax, which will materially affect the imports of these articles from Italy, and, indeed, will greatly increase the cost of the cheap but wholesome fruits of the Mediterranean to the poor in our Eastern cities. An increased rate of duty on lead ore strikes at an important article coming in from Mexico and Canada, and bringing in millions of dollars in raw material to be used in the mining and smelting operations of the West. The proposed duty on hides is the last means of encouraging trade with the River Plate republics, while the duties on wools are a further invitation to those countries to feel aggrieved.

All this points to but one outcome. Each of these duties enumerated contains an implied threat, and it will not be strange if it be recognized as such by the Power whose trade is affected. Threats may be met by measures of retaliation, and the export trade of the United States is in no position to meet such rebuffs, if they shall come. It is increasing in degree, and, since the law of 1894, it has been gaining in strength and solidity through the growing export of manufactures. To invite reprisals from our best customers is not a defensible method of maintaining the present volume of trade, or of still further developing its amount and differentiating its kind. On this ground alone the proposed tariff law stands condemned.

LOCATING ALTRURIA.

There have been many descriptions of ideal commonwealths, some of which have been so attractive as to excite strong yearnings among mortals weary of toil and care and strife. But unfortunately these ideal communities have all suffered under a common difficulty. They have been invariably located in inaccessible situations or under unreal conditions. Plato did not fit his republic into any known geographical limits. Augustine described a heavenly kingdom which in our materialistic age arouses only scorn among altruists. Harrington wrote of an Oceana; our own Donnelly has depicted a new Atlantis. Even the practical and prosaic Bellamy, whose arrangements for unctuous comfort and sensual gratification seemed almost sufficient to transform a heavenly paradise into an earthly one, was so tantalizing as to postpone the realization of his scheme to a period when no one now living will be alive. Among all these prophets there seems to have been a perverse unanimity in planting their ideal commonwealths where no one could get at them for the purposes of actual observation and inspection, to say nothing of habitation.

Mr. Eugene Debs, with characteristic sagacity and courage, has resolved to put an end to this reproach. Weary of his fruitless and disheartening attempts to defy the State and national authorities and to overcome the settled convictions of the majority of his fellow-citizens, he has boldly determined to locate Altruria, and to call on all sincere altruists to join him in actual settlement of this heretofore undiscovered country. He counts on a million of these as contributors; but it is essential to his plan that they should become genuine colonists. The boundless West, he tells us, is sparsely settled and has fabulous resources. Land can be procured, and the unemployed set to work on coöperative principles, thus recognizing the brotherhood of man as a fact in nature, which "in obedience to natural law will form the basis of the new life, from which, it is confidently believed, there will spring a higher, nobler civilization."

The "boundless West," however, would be open to the objection of indefinite boundaries to which we have just referred, and several regions have been considered with a view to more definite location. Utah has its advantages; but the associations are not agreeable. It was formerly selected by a peculiar people that wished to sever itself from a sordid and sceptical world, but the world refused to tolerate its peculiarities, and finally compelled it to submit to conventional rules of morality. California has been thought of; but here a most painful and unexpected difficulty has been encountered. The San Francisco *Examiner* has protested against establishing Altruria in California. Mr. Debs had, perhaps incautiously, stated the altruistic programme in very definite terms. He observed of his movement:

"After we have colonized the chosen State, we should, at the end of a year or two, be able to elect a Legislature and State officers, call a State constitutional convention, and change the organic law of the State in such a manner as to permit the use of the State funds and give us authority in the trial of the theory of State coöperation."

The *Examiner*, instead of rejoicing over this prospect, took a decidedly plutocratic view of it. It had heartily supported Mr. Debs in his attempts to revolutionize our railway system, but it objects to revolutionizing California. That State, it complains, has billions of dollars' worth of accumulated property, and "it would be a very serious matter to try to change the whole structure of society in a State like this." It accordingly suggests that Nevada, Wyoming, or Idaho should be chosen for Mr. Debs's field of experiment.

On the whole, Mr. Debs seems to have acted wisely in avoiding an evil and adulterous generation and turning his attention to a community where a majority of the inhabitants are already favorable to his theories. The State of Washington, he has decided, offers the best advantages, and in that State, therefore, Altruria is at last definitely and, we trust, permanently located. The American Railway Union, as we understand Mr. Debs, is composed entirely of altruists and is to be merged in the movement. Ardent hearts, active tongues, and minds of various degree support it. Mr. Henry D. Lloyd commends it. The Rev. Myron W. Reed will join it; Profs. Parsons of Boston and Johnson of Milwaukee; A. S. Edwards, editor of the *Coming Nation*, and prominent members of the Chicago Typographical Union No. 16, are committed in its favor. Mr. Howells has not been heard from; but it will be surprising if he does not hasten to escape from the false, mean world in which he is now imprisoned.

On the other hand, Mr. Edward Bellamy does not believe in these cries of Lo here or Lo there! The kingdom of heaven need not be located so far away as Washington. In fact, he does not believe that those who think the present order of things all wrong have any call to get together in one community. It seems to him "that they should remain at home and spread the truth among their friends and neighbors and convert them." It would be unfair to impute jealousy of Debs as a motive to Bellamy, but his position is certainly invidious. There is a certain amount of truth in the proverb, "Charity begins at home," but every one knows that this proverb is the great refuge of those who want to evade contributions to foreign missions, and, indeed, to benevolent undertakings in general. Mr. Bellamy may, perhaps, be excused for letting the Debs contribution-box pass, but he ought not to throw cold water on missionary impulses. What would this country have been but for the Puritan settlement of New England? How would Christianity itself have been diffused through the world if Paul had insisted on staying in Judea and converting only the Jews? Not in Mr. Bellamy's spirit has any great movement been carried to success.

Nor does Mr. Bellamy do himself justice in suggesting the sordid pecuniary calculations which are attributed to him by a New York *Herald* reporter. "How," he asks, "is Mr. Debs to move 100,000 men? Who is to support them while they are getting the settlement ready for the start towards the system which is desired?"

"The railroads are not in favor of changed conditions, and so no help can be expected of them in transporting the men. Full fares will have to be paid, and, unless a man can draw a check for five or six millions, he cannot very well send a hundred thousand men to Utah or Washington. The railroads are satisfied with the present conditions, or prefer them to conditions which would reduce their gains and power."

We venture to contradict Mr. Bellamy on these points. The railroads, we can assure him, are very much in favor of changed conditions. Mr. Debs and his Railway Union cost them in 1894 a much larger sum than would be required to transport the whole crowd to Washington, and if they could be permanently removed there, railroad officers would generally rejoice. They would not issue return tickets; but they would reduce the fare one way to a merely nominal figure.

We must look below the surface to discover the cause of these insidious attempts to prevent the success of the Debs colony. Nor do we need to look far, for Mr. Debs has unwittingly disclosed it. He has declared that the free-silver movement has spent its force, and that the "Social Democracy" will "cut into the free-silver ranks and leave that party practically powerless for the future. The principle of free silver is along the lines of Socialism. A large proportion of the vote for Bryan in the last campaign came from Socialists. They voted for him because he came nearest to representing their views." It is easy to see that such statements, the truth of which is undeniable, are extremely disadvantageous to the cause of bimetallism. If the American people come to understand what Mr. Debs is now explaining to them, the future of free silver will look dark. We may be prepared, therefore, to find the owners of silver mines doing whatever is in their power to discredit Debs and to discourage his movement. We do not underrate their abilities or their malignity; but we shall try to secure fair play for those whom they attack, and we shall certainly do what we can to establish the proposition that free silver coinage and communism are very much the same thing. and that you a conservative old fuss head.

THE EXPANSION OF ENGLAND.

Nothing in the political and social history of the nineteenth century has attracted more attention than the continually increasing prosperity and growth of England during the long reign of Queen Victoria. The triumphs of a race which from small beginnings has spread over the earth, planting its language and institutions in new continents, and bringing peace and orderly government to the oldest civilizations in the world, have seemed to be summed up in the glories of the Victorian period, marked by common consent, even before it is finished, as a page of history beside which some of the greatest epochs of the past begin to seem dull.

This is evidently not due merely to the effect on the imagination of a sudden expansion of political power and influence. All must feel that there is something different in kind between the achievements of this epoch and any that have preceded it; something more full of meaning than can be found in the most memorable reigns of the past. Indeed, if we conjure up the shades of Victoria's greatest predecessors the world over, of Elizabeth, of Louis XIV., of Charles V., of the Great Charles, or of the Conqueror from whom she claims descent, we cannot but feel that even they would be filled with amazement could they behold an empire wider than any they could ever hope to found, vested in a Queen whose dominion has been less the fruit of force than of natural laws, and whose main hold upon her subjects is the fact that her flag and crown are to them the symbols of their freedom. If any of the great rulers of the past were told that the mighty political machinery of which she is the titular head had long since ceased to be what he would have recognized as regal, and had been voluntarily placed under the control of the nation governed by her, so that her monarchy itself had come to exist by democratic sufferance, he would not believe, for he would not be able to understand it.

It is commonly said that what makes this period so different from any which has preceded it is the fact that the expansion of England has been accomplished by a people, and has not been the work of Government. No doubt the English Government has followed, not preceded, its merchants and traders and colonists; but this has been true in all periods. It was true in the time of the Stuarts, when the American colonies were planted and throve upon neglect; it was true in the time of George III., when the colonies on this continent were lost, and traders in the East laid the foundations of another empire in India; it was true even of the remote period when England itself was overrun by the invaders who took the place of the Romans. The Jutes and Angles and Saxons were communities of adventurers on their own account, not the agents of conquering governments.

But it seems to us that far too much has been made of this fact. Nothing is more certain than that although trade and commerce and adventure may go in advance of government, there can be no permanent security or civilization unless good government follows them, and Victoria's reign has been mainly marked, except in the case of Australia, by the ease and success with which the protection of the Government has been extended over vast foreign, remote populations. By this means the Indian Empire has taken the place of a stock company, by this means a handful of English officers and civilians manage the whole government of Egypt.

It must not be overlooked that, in the same Victorian epoch, other countries, alien in religion, language, and customs, have also made mighty strides. The world has not stood still to watch Anglo-Saxon progress. The great Slav despotism spreads with an equally irresistible force to the confines of the earth; the Prussia of Frederick the Great has become the powerful German Empire of to-day. Some part, at least, of the force which has led to the wonderful expansion of England is common to all civilized nations of our period, and is driving on the whole human race at once towards goals which a century ago did not seem within human reach. When we pause, then, in the midst of this jubilation of a great people, and cast our glance back to the coronation of the young Queen, in 1837, and ask ourselves what is the secret of the change which has taken place, and which has transformed the little England of that day into the mighty empire of our own, we must not fall into the error of imagining that the advance has been that of England or the English race alone. Steam and electricity and railroads and telegraphs and telephones, and the wonderful multiplication of force which enables one man to do the work of a hundred, and has made what were once the luxuries of the rich the necessities and conveniences of the poor—these are great marvels, but they would probably have come had the English name never been heard of.

But, allowing for all this, something has happened in the last sixty years which severs England itself sharply and distinctly from the England of the past. In 1837 no one could have dreamed what was in store for the country. There was nothing in the reign of the two last Georges, nor in that of William IV., to make people particularly hopeful of the future. Prolonged wars had heaped up an enormous debt, and cost the country its most valuable foreign possessions; Canada and Ireland were both ready to revolt, Chartism was on the point of breaking out, and serious plots against monarchy were hatching all over the world; the reform of Parliament had been carried by almost revolutionary means, and a barbarous economical system seemed fastened upon the country in perpetuity. There was nothing in the situation of affairs to make any one confident of what the future was to bring forth.

The forces which changed the scene and have made the England of to-day have been generally treated as primarily those of freedom; but it is gradually becoming more and more clear that this is only a partial description of them. Freedom of the individual and freedom in government describes a great part of the change, but not the whole. It was freedom which abolished the corn laws, and struck the shackles off trade, and opened the door of political rights to all religions; it was freedom which appeased the demands of the Chartists, and it was freedom which changed the civil service from a hot-bed of privilege into a career open to all. Freedom made of suffrage a common right, and freedom made England in a time of oppression the asylum of the world, where tyrants and those who conspired against them learned for the first time that liberty meant equality of right. Freedom struck all privileges out of the laws, abolished the Irish Church, made Irish tenant-right secure, and brought the corrupt system of purchase in the army to an end. So it is that the expansion of England has come to mean the expansion of freedom. Whenever the English flag has floated over new territory, there has gone with it for the first time in the history of conquering Powers the equal right of man, of whatever nation, sect, or color, to use the energies and capacities given him by nature for his own good, free from interference or fear. Thus the polity which had been dreamed of and suffered for by the martyrs of liberty in the past has been actually introduced into the laws and customs of the most powerful race of our day, and England, in making the world free of her own privileges, has reaped the reward which had been denied to the selfishness of her predecessors. Where freedom has done so much, it is no wonder that there was a time when it came to be believed in as a sort of substitute for government, a panacea for evil itself.

But freedom is not all. There is something else in the progress of England in this century of which we are conscious, something that we do not perhaps always like to acknowledge, but which, notwithstanding our own millions and our own wealth, we may well envy her. There is no word for it in the dictionaries, it is not celebrated on tombstones or in biographies, but it is a quality without which no nation or individual has ever made any stable progress in the history of the world—perhaps we should say an assemblage of qualities which may be more easily traced in the effects they produce than named. In this century for the first time a great Power, comparable at its height only to that of Rome, has come upon the scene, which has known how, in every department of government, to select the best man for the work. The English judge, the English parliamentary leader and minister, the English consul, ambassador, civil servant, and military and naval officer, form a body of public men such as hardly any other country possesses, and certainly such as England never possessed before. Not merely is there no corruption among them, but they form a natural *classe dirigeante*—they are as nearly as may be the picked men of the country. In other words, the English public service draws to itself the character and intelligence of the whole country, and those who govern are in a larger measure than anywhere else in the world those who ought to govern.

Hence when the foreign critic is asked to single out the gift that the Victorian reign has made to its subjects, he inevitably comes to the commonplace conclusion that it is good government—good government proved, not merely by great revenues, or great territory, or teeming populations, but by the decrease of crime, by a lighter burden of taxation, by laws bearing equally upon rich and poor, by debt discharged, by the increase of the poor man's savings, by the decline in pauperism, by widespread thrift and enlightenment, by the fact that wherever the English flag goes it carries freedom, not merely for the Englishman, but for man.

Between the beneficent work done by England and that done by the United States, we should not think of drawing any comparison. That free ideas have in this century triumphed in England is greatly due to the example of the United States. It was the loss of her American colonies which awoke England to the sense of the dangers with which absolutism had surrounded her;

it was the example of Washington, Franklin, and Hamilton that taught their former countrymen that a new era was opening. It was the welcome given by America to populations like that of Ireland under more equal laws and brighter skies which made it possible for the Old World to recover itself and take a new lease of a freer and better life; it was the successful struggle of the United States to maintain itself as a neutral and peaceful state that showed that war is not a necessity of states; it was the United States which first incorporated in the jurisprudence of the world the rule that one of a man's natural rights is that of choosing the government under which he will live. But for the violent separation of the United States and the foundation of the American republic, the date of England's conversion to liberal ideas must have been greatly retarded. At all events, it is impossible for us to consider the successes and glories of our branch of the race except in connection with those of which it forms a part. As Americans, we claim a share in the expansion of England.

Until comparatively modern times, the history of government was the history of cruelty, rapacity, corruption, and oppression. It was the enthusiasts of the last century who first conceived the idea that government might become at once the director and the beneficent servant of man, that, retaining its ancient powers, its control of the individual might be exercised only for his own and the common good. For this scheme of government it was necessary, not, as was supposed in the last century, that we should have a new heaven and a new earth, but that the notion of privilege should be replaced by that of a trust, and that improvement should be sought through the enlightened discharge of duty, and not through aggression. The example of England shows that hereafter this view of government is the only one for those who do not wish to fall back into the night of despotism and decay. Whenever England has followed this path, prosperity and power have attended her; whenever she has relapsed into the old system, as has been more than once the case in foreign affairs, the result has been disaster and humiliation. And so it will be for us. The destinies of the two countries are bound together by the strongest ties which nature can forge.

CRIME AND MISERY.

ITALY, May 31, 1897.

It is sad to realize that, after five and thirty years of national life, these two words sum up the history of Italy; yet such is the truth, and as yet there are very few signs of such radical reforms as alone could lead to the abatement of misery and the consequent diminution of crime. Yesterday Pietro Acciarito, who attempted the life of King Humbert on the 15th of April last, was condemned to the galleys for life—ten years of strict cell confinement, the remainder of hard labor in common, in some seagirt fortress, Nisida, Procida, or St. Stephen's, set apart for those criminals who, before the abolition of capital punishment, would have paid for their crimes with their lives. The sentence is strictly legal; the trial was conducted with extraordinary celerity for Italy, as the mad attempt was made on the 15th of April and the trial occupied only two short sittings.

It is an appalling fact that nothing, since the old Princes were dethroned, has been done to extirpate the deep-rooted habits and usages of crime, which can be traced back for ages in the same places and in the same families. Artema, where Acciarito was born, was called Montefortino up to 1870, when the inhabitants changed its name, hoping to cause its evil fame to be forgotten. As far back as 1557, Pope Paul IV., after summing up the crimes committed by the inhabitants of the little fortified town in the province of Velletri, issued an edict ordering the place to be razed to the ground; "the rebels, enemies of the Church, assassins of the papal soldiery, thieves, brigands, and murderers, to be put to the sword, their property sequestrated, all surrounding inhabitants forbidden to give them refuge and allowed to kill any that escape." But it must be presumed that the criminals were too cunning or too powerful, as, throughout the following centuries, the place was noted for the most atrocious crimes. Between 1852 and 1868, monster trials were the order of the day, and a sentence of 1872 runs, "In the region of Montefortino, in the province of Velletri, the classic land of crime, where vengeance is the barbarous delight of the inhabitants, crime has increased to a frightful extent during the last twenty years; whole families have been exterminated, and at midday incendiary fires are common. No one will bear witness against the accused, and the names of the same families occur in successive trials." Between 1870 and 1883 four monster trials were held without the condemnation of any of the arrested. The homicides in those years amounted to sixty-one per annum; other crimes—burglary, brigandage, blackmailing, extortion, pillage, rapine, etc.—to 211 cases; so that the crimes committed in this little town were respectively five, six, and seven times those of all Italy, taking the percentage of the other provinces. During one of the trials a prisoner said to the judge: "Why should I have invited N—— to assist me in a burglary? Does not your Excellency know that I, with Mastrangelo Francesco and my two brothers, am capable of strangling an entire village?" The extraordinary mixture of crime and superstition was never so clearly delineated. Pompilia Zambeccari had "vowed a golden chalice to the Virgin if she should succeed in poisoning her husband"!

In this town, which, in changing its name, has not changed its skin, Pietro Acciarito was born and bred—there, where neither the Government, nor the Church, nor private societies, nor individuals had attempted to purify the atmosphere by the removal of the most notorious criminals, or by educating the portion of the populace as yet unscathed. It seems as though neither the Government, nor the magistrates, nor the local police dared to tackle these phenomenal criminals. As a boy and youth, Pietro Acciarito seems to have borne an exceptionally good character. Schoolmasters and the masters under whom he worked say that he was diligent, docile, exact until three years ago, when he was brought to the point of death by typhus fever; he seems never to have been himself since. He took up with anarchical doctrines, and ceased to give satisfaction to his employers. His family is respectable; he had "kept company" with a woman whom he intended to marry, but his affairs went badly, he sold his tools, and told his father that he meant to "do for some *pezzo grosso*," some high dignitary. The father, alarmed, reported his speech to the police, who were too much occupied to take notice of the denunciation. The King, who is really loved and esteemed in Italy, was driving in an open landau, the supposed protective representative of the police a long way behind, when Acciarito approached the carriage, and aimed his blow with a very deadly dagger. The King caught his hand, standing up, and the would-be assassin fell, rose, threw away his dagger, and was arrested by the carbineers, summoned by a boy cyclist, who was just behind the royal carriage. The King was quite cool throughout, observing that such things "are the perquisites of the trade." Acciarito maintained from the first that he had no accomplices, and that he had decided to kill the King so as to compel the nation to consider the misery of the people, "to set to work for their own safety to find a remedy for the gaunt misery flaunted by shameless luxury." Throughout his imprisonment he has never changed his tune, never affected madness, has denied all plot or accomplices. When his sentence was pronounced, he said: "It is my turn to-day; to-morrow the Bourgeois Government will have theirs. *Viva* the social revolution! *Viva* anarchy!"

The police, severely called to account by public opinion and by "their superiors" for their neglect of the father's warning, moved earth and hell to find out a plot and to prove that the anarchists are at their old tricks again. They arrested numbers of young men, against whom no shadow of an accusation was brought—this especially on the eve of the 1st of May, which date is still kept more or less as the workingman's festival. Among these was a young fellow named Frezza, well spoken of by his employers and fellow-workmen, married, and never arrested before, save as a "precautionary measure" on a former 1st of May, when he had been brutally used by one of the jailers, who was duly punished, and who treasured up his vengeance. On the 3d of May Frezza was found dead in his cell. A story of suicide was trumped up; then a verdict of death from heart disease was brought in. But his distracted wife made it known that his clothes, about which he was extremely particular, were torn to rags, that his eye was knocked out, while a fellow-prisoner who had been released a few hours before his death, bore witness that he had left Frezza in good spirits, and that he had sent a message to his wife asking a change of linen. Finally, the Government ordered a posthumous examination by three of the most celebrated surgeons of Rome, among them Senator Durant. Their unanimous verdict tells against the possibility of suicide. All Frezza's ribs were broken, the spine broken in two places, eight wounds on the head, one on the eye,

and under the chin—wounds impossible for the man to have inflicted on himself, or to have been come by if the prisoner had, as was asserted, thrown himself from an upper balcony of the prison; a thing impossible in itself, as he was confined on the ground floor. Several women also detained there have declared that they heard cries of "Help, help! they are murdering me." Numerous arrests of the police have been made, and the preliminary investigation of the case is going on. The public indignation has been aroused to such a pitch that the Premier, who puts down all socialistic, republican, and political meetings with a high hand, was compelled to allow a popular demonstration of "commiseration" for the victim to take place, and more than 20,000 people, bearing wreaths in silent procession, went to Campo Verano, where Frezza's mangled remains have been interred, while a subscription for the widow has reached a fair sum for Italy.

The disorganized condition of authority in Italy may be seen by the latest statistics of crime furnished to the Senate during the April discussion of the new bill for regulating the iniquitous system of enforced domicile (*domicilio coatto*). Taking the years 1890-'4, among the crimes denounced for every 100,000 souls we find (1) "crimes committed by the populace against the security of the state," and (2) crimes committed by public officials; the second surpass the first by thirteen to one. Guardians of the law and law-breakers have become synonyms. When we come to judicial statistics, Senator Costa, now Minister of Grace and Justice, while expounding the awful state of the common prisons, where men and women arrested simply on suspicion, or on trial, or condemned, are huddled together day and night, he goes on to prove that three-fourths of the condemned criminals do not undergo their sentences in the way prescribed by law. At the close of 1895 there were 4,383 individuals in the various islands, sent there without judge or jury, at the good pleasure of the authorities; of these, 3,233 were released during 1896; 2,825 still remain there. The House is now debating in committee the new law passed by the Senate, but total abolition of the system is the only remedy. Police reform, prison reform, and a reform of the system of procedure must be carried out before Italy can hope to wash out the stain of holding the "primacy of crime in Europe." But these reforms alone will not suffice. Hunger is an evil counsellor, and, as Senator Villari affirmed, "the men who have governed Italy for thirty years have driven the people to the delirium of hunger." Now that the yawning abyss of African expenditure is closing up, it is possible that some funds may be found to free the masses from their intolerable burdens; say, from the tax on salt, which costs 40 centimes per kilo, on bread 7 lire per quintal, and from some of the octroi taxes on the common necessaries of life. Good work has been done in Sicily by the royal commissary during his one year's experiment, and the people there are so crushed, so thankful for small mercies, that the reform of the truck system, the transfer of some of the city taxes from the "have-nots" to the "haves"—from the poor man's donkey to the rich man's carriage and pair—have been gratefully accepted as an instalment. During the late elections the Socialists were nowhere, and their papers confess that the wind has been taken out of their sails.

And now, as I write, an agitation, with which the readers of the *Nation* are familiar, is recommencing. Again in Parliament Bovio has raised the cry, "What has become of the patrimony of the poor?" The annual *income* of charitable institutions amounts to one hundred and thirty-five millions; of these, eleven millions belong to the city of Naples alone, yet 35,000 poor, roofless, and in rags, starve in the streets, while a recent inquiry made by the provincial council proves that out of 856 infants sheltered in the foundling hospital of the Santissima Annunciata, only 3 survived in 1895. This sensational announcement has once more electrified the country; but the story is as old as the ill-famed hospital itself. The funds which ought to serve for putting the infants abandoned by their unfortunate mothers out to nurse, are swallowed up by the *fisco*, the *cult* expenses by careless and dishonest managers. The poor mites, therefore, are huddled together, two or three in a crib, with one wet-nurse, often diseased, for each two, three, or even four infants. Hence the inevitable mortality, which has ranged throughout centuries from 30 to 95 per cent. This time possibly the question will be thoroughly sifted, and it will be found that the solution lies in the fact that the law of 1889 (fully detailed in the *Nation* of February 20, 1890) has never been applied at all, that the reforms enjoined have not been carried out, that accounts have not been rendered, that the institutions have not been inspected. And what is true of the Foundling Hospital of Naples holds good for nearly all the other charitable institutions administered there by the State, the province, or the commune. Hope dies hard, and we still hope to report on the beginning of a new system for the alleviation of misery which alone can lead to the diminution of crime. J. W. M.

THE GERMAN EMPEROR AND THE PORTE.

PARIS, June 4, 1897.

It is certainly one of the most remarkable facts of our time to see, at the end of our nineteenth century, a revival of the Ottoman Empire, which threatens to be followed by a general revival of Islam. What have we not heard about the Sick Man, since the days of the Emperor Nicholas and of the Crimean war? We saw the European part of the Ottoman Empire tumbling to pieces, and the pieces detaching themselves one by one; the two principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia becoming the kingdom of Rumania; Bosnia and Herzegovina falling under the sway of Austria; Montenegro assuming a complete independence; Bulgaria rising to the dignity of a real state, and having but a nominal tie of vassalage to the Porte; Eastern Rumelia falling under the sphere of influence of Bulgaria. It seemed as if the tide of freedom were surrounding Turkey on all sides, and constantly advancing. The Treaty of Berlin added Thessaly to the kingdom of Greece.

It may be said that, a few months ago there was on the surface of the globe no government more despised than the Turkish Government. The horrible massacres of the Armenians in Asia Minor and in Constantinople seemed like the convulsions of a moribund. How is it that Turkey has now risen again to the position of a great Power, and that her diplomacy baffles the diplomacy of all the Powers of Europe? "Divide et impera." The Porte has always excelled in the art of profiting by the secret or open divisions of the European Christian Powers. It knew from the beginning that the so-called concert of the Powers, which hindered the independence of Crete and the annexation of this island to Greece, was not a harmonious concert, that, though it might prepare and send common notes and declarations, it followed very different aims under cover of the preservation of the peace of Europe and the localization of the war between Greece and Turkey.

We must look for the cause of the present situation to the conclusion of the Franco-Russian alliance. It is idle to dispute about the exact signification and character of this so-called alliance; the French are inclined to set too much value on it, the Russians are inclined to do the contrary and to minimize its importance; but the demonstrations which have taken place for several years, the assurances of friendship, and lately the visit of the Tsar to Paris, have created what we may call an atmosphere, in which both nations seem to be pleased to live, an atmosphere of mutual confidence, of increased security, of hopefulness. It has been repeated to satiety in the official speeches of our public men that France, after years of isolation, has been fortunate enough to find a friend, that she can now raise her head again, that she has, thanks to the generous sympathy of Russia, been able to resume in the European concert the place which is due to her. The leaders of German opinion were certainly alarmed from the first, and descried a real danger in the new relations between France and Russia. They first saw with concern Russia withdrawing herself by degrees, after the Treaty of Berlin, from what was long called the alliance of the three Emperors. The interchange of visits between the rulers of Germany, of Austria, of Russia, became less frequent, the visits less cordial. The late Tsar was a man of few words, very reticent, very prudent; it was in the last years of his reign that the Franco-Russian alliance was prepared and became a solid and important political factor. By degrees it became apparent to all that the political constellations of European politics were changed; on one side there still remained the Triple Alliance, but on the other side there was the Dual Alliance of Russia and France. This last alliance might become a formidable danger to Germany if there should be on the throne of Russia a bold and ambitious ruler, determined to use the united forces of his own empire and the renewed forces of France.

The force of the Dual Alliance was not undervalued in Germany. Threatened on both sides, she had to make new efforts to increase her armaments. She could not but discern a menace to the Triple Alliance. Austria, forgetting Sadowa, had entered into this alliance with the greatest sincerity, remembering only her historical mission in the valley of the Danube, and consoling herself for the loss of her preponderance in Germany with the increase of her security in Hungary and in her Slavic provinces. It was felt, however, in Germany that the popularity of the present Emperor, the dignity of his behavior under the most trying

circumstances, had much to do with the present state of the Empire, that the perturbing elements, almost disarmed for the present, had not disarmed for ever; that the present truce would come to an end at the death of the Emperor, and that, in consequence, a cloud of uncertainty rested upon the future action of the Austrian Empire.

As for Italy, it was obvious that the alliance into which she had entered was becoming a heavy burden to her; the increase of her armaments had been too rapid for her financial resources. The Italians were asking themselves what part they were expected to play in the contingency of new European complications, what would be their gain. Their unity was an accomplished fact; they had been much dissatisfied by the conquest of Tunis by France, and looked with envy on the site of ancient Carthage; they saw France creating a vast port at Bizerte; they tried to take their part of the African spoils, but their campaign in Abyssinia proved a series of disasters, and, with their usual good sense, they effected a retreat and gave up a task which they found impossible to perform. The promoters of the Triple Alliance had represented France as ready to reëstablish the temporal power of the Papacy, and for a time, under the government of Marshal MacMahon, when there was some chance of a monarchical restoration in France, this argument had much weight with the Italian people; but the French Republic, having now twenty-seven years of existence, has shown no disposition to make a crusade for the temporal power; she has remained faithful to the Concordat, but has assumed a more and more anti-clerical character. For all these reasons, the bonds of the Triple Alliance have loosened in Italy to a certain extent; the desire of the nation is clearly that the alliance should never be put practically to the test, and should remain a dead letter.

For several years Germany has been looking for additional forces and virtual alliances against a combination of the Russian and French forces. It may be safely affirmed that the Congress of Berlin revealed to her the possibility of using Turkey against Russia in certain eventualities. Despised as was the Porte in the eyes of the civilized world, it had at all times been a factor in European politics. German officers were sent to Constantinople, and taught the Turks the art of modern war, the mode of rapid mobilization. For such mobilization railways were necessary; the Sultan, with the help of a committee of officers of the staff, drew the network of strategic lines in European Turkey, in Asia Minor; not a single line was conceded or approved before an inspection by these officers of the staff, and every provision was made for the rapid transport of troops to certain strategical centres. Some of the concessions were given to German companies.

The Ottoman Empire may be considered as an almost boundless recruiting ground; and all military authorities agree in saying that the Turkish soldier, for endurance, discipline, and courage, has no superior. The soldier of the Commander of the Faithful fights for an idea; he is always ready, he has made the sacrifice of his life, he only needs good officers. These good officers can now easily be found—strategists of the school of Moltke, who know how to make rapid concentrations; tacticians, also, who know how to manœuvre on the battle-field. Guns and arms can be found at Essen and in all the manufactories of Germany. Money, that sinew of war, as Napoleon said, can be sent from Berlin if it is not found in Paris and London; for money has no conscience, nor opinions, and only demands as high an interest as possible.

This is the moral of the late unfortunate war between Greece and Turkey; Germany, which kept at first in the background, waiting till the struggle began, came to the front as the supporter of Turkey and of the absolute integrity of the Ottoman Empire. It wished to assume the position of the best friend, the saviour of the Padishah. Is it likely that this policy was inspired only by respect for existing treaties? Has Germany not been paid already for her services? Has not some agreement, some military convention, been already signed, placing the Turkish army at the disposition of Germany, in the eventuality of an offensive movement of the Dual Alliance? Without breaking the bones of a single Pomeranian soldier, without spending a single mark, the German Emperor may be said to have, by unmerciful behavior towards Greece and his unconditional support of Abdul-Hamid, added an army of three or four hundred thousand men to his own army. He can now look more quietly round him; he has placed a rampart, and a formidable one, between his empire and Russia; he can defy the Dual Alliance, and, adding irony to his confidence, show an excess of courtesy not only at St. Petersburg but also in Paris.

You will now see European capital flowing to Constantinople, railways built in Asia and joining the Bosphorus to the Persian Gulf; the tide of material civilization flowing in new directions. But railways, telegraphs, telephones, and so on are only one—the material—side of civilization. Will anything ever change the spirit of Islam—the spirit which caused the massacres of the Armenians, so quickly forgotten, alas! by a materialized Europe?

Correspondence.

THE NEW PARTY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I too have read with interest your editorial and the correspondence in the *Nation* relative to the present conditions and needs as to political parties. The query propounded by your correspondent "H. D. C." calls for an answer from the thinking public. I would suggest that a national convention in September is not that answer. We must build from the bottom. Local organization is what is first needed, and it is just such men as your correspondent of June 5 that must effect that organization.

Your correspondent's outline of a platform is substantially the platform adopted by the Indianapolis convention. I believe that on this platform, and under the name "National Democrats," the new party can best be organized. At present the immediate duty of the individual is, to do everything in his power to prepare his own locality to respond to the next call of the Democrats of Indianapolis to a national convention.

Respectfully yours,

LLOYD C. WHITMAN.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., June 14, 1897.

Notes.

Mr. Wilfrid A. Stearns, 7½ Whitehall Street, Atlanta, Ga., has at last printed one hundred copies of a work designed to be published two years ago, under the title 'Penikese: A Reminiscence, by One of Its Pupils.' He offers it unbound, in sheets of about 100 pages, preferably to old teachers and pupils of Agassiz's famous seaside school, at three dollars a copy.

One hundred copies only of J. Herbert Slater's 'Sales Prices of 1896' have been secured for the American market by Francis P. Harper, 17 East Sixteenth Street. The sales recorded are of objects other than books—autographs, manuscripts, pictures, engravings, coins, enamels, pottery, porcelains, etc.

The A. D. F. Randolph Co. have nearly ready 'The Crime of Christendom: or, The Eastern Question down to the Present Crisis,' by D. S. Gregory, D.D.

Dodd, Mead & Co. announce a 'History of American Book Clubs;' the 'American Book-Prices Current,' for 1897; 'The New England Primer,' edited by Paul Leicester Ford; and a new and uniform edition of the works of Hamilton W. Mabie.

A series of standard novels, in duodecimo form, will be undertaken by George Routledge & Sons, under the title, "One Hundred Immortals."

Ginn & Co. publish directly 'Science of Discourse,' by Arnold Tompkins, Professor of Pedagogy in the University of Illinois.

Two more of the Cromwell volumes in the "Centenary Edition" of Carlyle have just appeared (Scribners). These beautiful books have portrait plates of Fairfax, Milton, Sandwich, Blake, Lesley, and Cromwell's mother, whose resemblance to her son is unmistakable. The same publishers add 'Nicholas Nickleby' in two volumes to Mr. Lang's "Gadshill Edition" of Dickens, on which we have already descanted. The illustrations are Phiz's.

After four years, there has still seemed to be a demand for Mr. W. J. Hardy's 'Book Plates,' of which we have accordingly a second edition (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners). There is at least one, and a charming, addition to the well-chosen examples of book-plates, namely, that of Mr. Everard Green, F.S.A., Rouge Dragon, and some corrections and expansions (as in the chapter on America) enhance the value of the letterpress, in which Mr. Hardy stimulates, not a passion for album-making, with its necessary despoilment of books, but a study and enjoyment of book-plates in their places. Mr. Hardy thinks Washington's plate, with its "Exitus acta probat," must have been engraved in England, and not later than 1760.

So long as there are people who feel peculiarly edified, as if they were getting real culture, when reading about art in the abstract, so long will the springs of ink, writer's and printer's, flow for them. For them is Mr. Frederick S. Robinson's 'The Connoisseur: Essays on the Romantic and Picturesque Associations of Art and Artists' (Longmans). Mr. Robinson has singularly little to say; his more pretentious flights are Vasari or Walpole warmed up for the thousandth time. But he writes pleasantly, with a certain touch of quaintness not offensive, and with a mild vein of anecdote,

It is a nice book for a leisure moment when there is nothing better to do.

The Hudson-Kimberly Publishing Co. of Kansas City bring out 'Shelby and His Men,' by John N. Edwards. Shelby was one of the original ultra-Southern men on the border of Missouri and Kansas, and, when the civil war broke out, he raised a cavalry company, beginning a military career which carried him to the rank of a brigadier in the Confederate service. His campaigning was west of the Mississippi, in Missouri, Kansas, and Arkansas, and much of it was of the half-guerilla kind which characterized the border struggle. Mr. Edwards's narrative is an enthusiastic laudation of his hero and the men he led, given in great detail and in exuberant rhetoric. As a series of border adventures and combats, the book is an amusing and sometimes instructive type of its class. As history it can have no appreciable value. Always in the superlative, whether in praise or blame, there is no visible standard by which the accuracy of the tale can be tested or its judgments corrected.

'Jean d'Agrève,' by Viscount E. Melchior de Vogüé (Paris: Colin & Cie.), which first came out in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, is an effort to describe a great passion—something in modern life to rival the Héloïse and Francesca legends. It can scarcely be said that M. de Vogüé has succeeded. He has taken the utmost pains to select and prepare his characters, with the object of producing the desired impression of intensity on the reader. He has made the lady a very ideal sort of a being, and the hero a man with a streak of madness, and placed the pair in the midst of a most enchanting landscape. He analyzes most conscientiously every feeling and every emotion; he endeavors to enlist the profoundest sympathy for the misunderstood wife, married for her money, and the most respectful admiration for the splendid naval officer, whose brow is heavy with thought and who abandons society for the solitudes of the Golden Isles. He uses, in a word, every means at his disposal to move and impress, and yet the novel lacks precisely that power of absorbing interest which it is intended to possess; it even palls, it even bores. The language is superb, the descriptions of natural scenes are magnificent, but the beings who move about in these scenes are romanesque and sentimental rather than passionate. Nor are they markedly different from hundreds of others we are accustomed to meet in the average French novel. One could not help expecting something more vigorous from the introducer of the Russian novel into France.

Considering that Prof. Ziegler's 'Der Deutsche Student am Ende der 19. Jahrhunderts' has found interested readers on this side of the Atlantic, it seems worth while to mention as a sort of counterpart to the above, on the feminine side, two essays bearing the common title 'Die Erziehung der Weiblichen Jugend in den Höheren Berufsklassen vom 15. bis zum 20. Lebensjahre' (Erfurt: C. Villaret). The first essay is by Luise Hagen, the authoress; the second by Anna Beyer, a teacher, who have both been awarded prizes by the Königliche Akademie Gemeinnütziger Wissenschaften of Erfurt. The picture here presented of prevailing aims and customs is not flattering to the wisdom of German mothers and fathers of the higher classes, but there is hope that the woman movement—toward which both writers occupy independent though not hostile positions—will bring about a change for the better. There is much in these earnest appeals which, *mutatis mutandis*, applies to the bringing up of girls in this country as well as in Germany.

Illustrations are properly given precedence over text in the title of Jean Habel's 'Ansichten aus Südamerika: Schilderung einer Reise am La Plata in den Argentinischen Anden und an der Westküste' (Berlin: Dietrich Reimer). The seventy-six pages of text are little more than a bare itinerary, with faithful records of elevation and temperature. Herr Habel's travels belong to the South summer months (*i. e.*, November to March) of 1893-'94 and 1894-'95, and his first campaign among the Andean valleys was fully reported upon in 1896 in the *Zeitschrift* of the German and American Alpenverein; it is the later one that is here sketched. The traveller's main adventure was being taken as a Chilian spy (the boundary question was then in an acute stage), and shut up in an Argentine prison until his identity and peaceable errand could be established. His comparisons of Andean heights and cold with Alpine are often instructive. Thus, he points out that the projected railway tunnel in the Uspallata Pass will be some 1,700 metres higher than St. Gothard. But it is in the 70 plates after 165 photographs that the main interest of the volume lies. Counting out the familiar views of coast and town, there is left a body of mountain scenes which cannot have been before approached for variety and excellence in any publication of the kind. The folded plate xxxvi, offering a view of the ridge in the background of the Valle de las Bodegas, is extraordinarily successful in the impression it gives of sharply jutting rocks veined with snow. But many others of the illustrations are of almost equal merit, and together they make the 'Ansichten' a book of high value.

A wedding publication of interest may not come to the notice of many of our readers. For the "Nozze D'Ancona-Orvieto [son of Prof. Alessandro D'Ancona of Pisa, the famous Italian scholar], 8 Aprile, 1897," Prof. Pio Rajna has just published (Florence) 'Contrasto dell' Acqua e del Vino.' A favorite form of mediæval literature was the *débat*, which goes back to the classical *certamen* and *conflictus*. One of the subjects of debate was the relative superiority of wine and water, and poems on this theme are found in Latin, French, German, and Spanish. No Italian version was known previous to the present publication, which contains a poem in the Lombard dialect from a manuscript of the fifteenth century in the Ambrosian Library. The poem is undoubtedly much older, and the text is unfortunately incomplete and corrupt. It consists of one hundred and twelve verses of varying length, the exact metrical scheme being difficult to construct from the one rude version. As the editor says, the work, in spite of its defects, is interesting from its age and for the purposes of comparison with other mediæval versions.

The June number of the Publications of the American Statistical Association contains the address on the late Gen. Francis A. Walker delivered at the quarterly meeting of the association on April 18 by Col. Carroll D. Wright, together with a carefully prepared bibliography of Gen. Walker's writings. The number can be had, for fifty cents, by addressing the Secretary at No. 451 Boylston Street, Boston.

In the *University Studies* of the University of Nebraska for January last, it may not be too late to point out, Carson Hildreth makes a contribution to the Bacon-Shakspere controversy by way of a comparison of the "sentence proportions" of these two writers. That is, investigators have discovered that "authors use a constant average sentence-length, and a certain determinate number of predications per sentence, and that a given per cent. of their sentences will be single sentences." Applying some of these laborious tests to Bacon's Essays and 'New Atlantis' and to portions of fifteen of Shakspere's plays (66,524 words against 61,956), Mr. Hildreth concludes that Bacon's average sentence was nearly three times as long as Shakspere's (32.59 words to 12.39), his predictions to the sentence were twice as numerous (3.45 to 1.70), and his percentage of simple sentences about two-thirds smaller (14 to 39). Comparison between two such diverse kinds of composition would seem to have little significance, and Mr. Hildreth does not set too much store by his results.

It does not seem possible to get an unprejudiced account of Japanese operations in Formosa from the journals of either China or Japan. Allowing for the racial and linguistic difficulties among the mixed population of three millions, distrust of the new authority, and the natural unwillingness of mountain savages and agricultural semi-barbarians to change for the better, it is certain that fair progress is being made. Rev. William Campbell, author of 'Missionary Success in Formosa' and 'The [Dutch and Favorlang] Articles [of the Christian Faith] in Formosan,' already reviewed in these columns, who has spent twenty years among the people of the island, writes in hearty commendation of the patience, earnestness, and pertinacity of the Japanese attempts to civilize the people and govern them with justice. The island has become a hard place for thieves and those who thrive on the industry of others, but is daily becoming pleasanter for the law-abiding. One thing unknown under Chinese rule is the hearty intercourse of Government officers with the missionaries and other intelligent workers for the public good. The development of postal system, schools, railways, telegraphs, and light-houses shows the determination of the Tokyo statesmen to make Formosa a vital part of the Japanese empire, while the effort to understand the people and wisely adapt the new laws as far as possible to good customs is sincere. The latest newspapers received show that permanent residents not specially exempted by treaty are obliged to become Japanese citizens or to leave the country. Registration is in progress, and the new regulations of commerce show a liberal spirit.

—A super-octogenarian writes us:

"In citing from the President's speech at the Philadelphia Museum the words, 'When the end [of enacting the tariff law] comes, we will have business confidence,' the *Nation* corrects the Presidential 'will' to 'shall.' Your correction is an *agere actum*, for a thousand schoolmasters had made haste to make it already—some glad of such a telling illustration of the rule in their grammars, and others fearing their pupils will be told by Republican parents that McKinley really is what a mediæval Ger-

man Rex Romanus claimed to be, namely, *super grammaticam*. Some school-children also have doubtless got the start of their instructors, and have themselves shown up and laughed at the Presidential utterance as a shining case of catachresis. This grammatical lapsus has a special interest for students of linguistic history. In McKinley it is a natural cropping out of an hereditary taint. It is a common remark in English authorities that the use of *will* where propriety demands *shall* 'is preëminently a Scotch and Irish provincialism.' This dictum is in keeping with American experience. The blunder in question was unknown in early New England, which was not early overrun with Scotch and Irish. It first infected those States where those invaders were early numerous. The *Nation* has a wholesome fear to 'speak evil of dignities,' but is naturally unable to hold its peace regarding a Presidential peccadillo, mindful that the sin of a commander commands sin—that when a town clock goes wrong, it misleads many more than any private man's watch can mislead, and that when Calhoun took snuff, all South Carolina would sneeze. Therefore, although the name of McKinley honors this corruption, chastisement should not hide its head. The confounding of such familiar household words as *will* and *shall* would be less frequent if a mnemonic quatrain, common in old grammars, were not rare among those now in vogue.

> 'In the first person *shall* simply foretells,
> In *will* a threat or else a promise dwells;
> *Shall* in the second and the third does threat;
> *Will* simply there foretells the future feat.'

Shilly-shally speakers and writers will be fewer the more school-children hear of the Scot who, falling into the Thames, was suffered to perish because he cried, 'I *will* drown and nobody *shall* help me,' and the more people of all ages consider the difference between the sacred words: 'Ye will not [and ye shall not] come unto Me.' "

—Concerning the "senior dramatics" last week at Smith College we have the following appreciation:

" 'The Merchant of Venice,' coming after 'A Midsummer Night's Dream' and 'As You Like It' in the annual series of Shaksperian performances at this institution, may be thought the most ambitious of the three undertakings; in some respects certainly much the most difficult. In the case of the two leading characters, the comparison with professional acting was perforce acute, and in general there was perhaps less opportunity than heretofore for the display of feminine qualities of intelligence, grace, and refinement in which professional competition was not to be feared. The smoothness with which 'The Merchant of Venice' was rendered was noticeable, and left nothing to be desired; the stage-setting was entirely adequate; and it may be said once for all that there was no amateurishness in the individual acting or in the ensemble which marred the general effect to anything like the extent which we are accustomed to in Shaksperian representations by a 'star' company on the regular stage. The Venetian costume, too, was helpful in counterfeiting the manly sex, and *Shylock* was completely disguised. This impersonation would have seemed admirable anywhere, and was deservedly applauded, and in another way the part of *Launcelot Gobbo* gave general satisfaction, and was delightfully conceived and executed. *Portia* could hardly be thought a good third to these fellow-characters, particularly in the matter of delivery. Her defect, however, was not singular, and criticism most usefully expends itself on the imperfect training evinced too commonly throughout this play in respect of distinct enunciation, joined with cultivated accent and effective interpretation of a text so abounding in beautiful and melodious diction. But, all deductions made—and many minor points and parts might be justly praised—the players proved a not troubled medium for the poet's humor and pathos, and gave their audience more than ordinary enjoyment. They confirmed the wisdom of the Shaksperian adventure to which the college seems fully committed, and have made easier the task of their successors."

—The commencement of the Johns Hopkins University on June 14 was eventful, not only on account of its marking the university's majority, or twenty-one years of usefulness, but because the first class of its Medical School received their degrees as doctors of medicine, after four years of hard work. In presenting the fifteen graduates, Dr. William H. Welch, the dean of the school, commented on the unique position taken by the Johns Hopkins among medical schools in the United States, when, five years ago, it announced the requirements for admission to its first year's courses for the academic year 1893-'94; the preparation required represented the usual A.B. degree, a working knowledge of French and German, and a good foundation in chemistry and biology—or at least three years of college work. The courage and wisdom of this announcement of an American standard for medical training on a par with that exacted at European universities, have been endorsed by an increasing demand for this training among medical students in this country, 123 young men and women having been students in the medical department of Johns Hopkins during 1897. Not the least interesting fact of the day was the presence of a woman among this initial instalment of Johns Hopkins medicos, Miss Mary Secord Packard of New Jersey, who took her A.B. degree at Vassar College. If, as is said, the Board of Trustees of the University have been in any doubt as to public educational sentiment in Baltimore, their doubts should have been annihilated by the enthusiastic greeting extended to Miss Packard by audience and fellow-graduates and undergraduate students of the University. Dr. Packard and eleven male members of her class have been appointed resident internes at Johns Hopkins Hospital for the year 1897-'98.

—In 'College Training for Women' (Crowell & Co.) Miss Kate Holladay Claghorn has written an excellent book, and the only wonder is that so useful a compendium of good advice has not been put together before. The considerations that should influence a woman in choosing her college are discussed along with the pitfalls that may cause her college course to be less effective than it ought to be, and the functions that ought to be fulfilled by one who has had so great a boon bestowed upon her by fate after her college days are over. It is seldom that a book is written so exclusively for the purpose of urging various sorts of right conduct upon one group of individuals, and various right ways of regarding that group upon the public in general, which does not become wearisomely didactic and even a little priggish; but all such errors are successfully steered clear of here, and both sets of people addressed may be grateful for having their attention called to points of view which they may not have had sufficiently in mind before. The college graduate who goes in for a farther course of study and a career which involves research, receives, of course, her full share of consideration, but still more interesting is the picture which is drawn of what may be done gradually by the plain college graduate in relieving the deadly monotony of American life if she lives in the country, or in modifying the struggle for vulgar display of the over-rich if she lives in the city. In fact, now that the women college graduates are becoming an important factor in the world on account of their rapidly increasing numbers, there is no reason why they should not be as efficient an element in the production of that rich and full social life which is the crowning flower of civilization —as much the repository of the things that make for a high-minded, artistic, and ethical view of the interests of life as distinguished from the sordid and the unthinking —as are the college graduates who are men.

—The second publication of the Vanderbilt Southern History Society, organized three years ago at Vanderbilt University, Nashville, Tenn., is worthily occupied with an account of Elihu Embree and his *Emancipator*. Embree was the son of a Quaker preacher whose home was near Jonesboro, Tenn., and the *Emancipator* was founded by him in April, 1820, solely in furtherance of the abolition of slavery, and was, as he rightly claimed, "the only paper of this kind in the United States," and the very first. It appears from the Rev. Dr. Hoss's interesting narrative, that Embree, by his own frank admission, had been a slaveholder before he professed religion; but he had also manumitted his slaves and dedicated his short life to the anti-slavery cause. He died with his paper in the course of eight months, and another Quaker, Benjamin Lundy, handed on the torch in his *Genius of Universal Emancipation*, at an interval of only six months—not of ten years, as Dr. Hoss inadvertently states. Dr. Hoss's extracts from the files of the *Emancipator* show its editor to have been a man of courage and a forcible writer, who could hardly have failed to precipitate on himself that violence which twenty years earlier (or at the time of the Virginia insurrection) would, he declared, certainly have been his portion. He was postmaster of the place where he published his paper, and this fact, under the existing law, enabled him to conduct correspondence without expense to either party; "the Government," said Embree, with an audacity that would have petrified the Southern statesman of 1835, "bearing the expense, as it righteously ought, of distributing these communications through the country, for the purpose of preparing the public mind for a practical reform from imposing unconditional slavery on a portion of its subjects." Noteworthy is Embree's testimony as to the effect of slavery in the border States in driving "thousands of first-rate citizens" to remove across the Ohio out of sight and sound of the horrors of slavery. "I have often regretted the loss of so much virtue from these slave States, which held too little before." The Quakers, of course, had a considerable share in this exodus.

—'Some Masters of Lithography,' by Atherton Curtis (Appletons), with its twenty-two photogravure reproductions of famous lithographs, its clear typography and thick paper, makes a handsome volume. Mr. Curtis is an enthusiast, and it is somewhat difficult to share his extreme admiration for Raffet and Gavarni, Harding and Calame, none of whom, able men though they were, seems to us quite so great and unapproachable an artist as he would have us think. Still, it is well that such books should be written from the point of view of the enthusiast for the special art and the particular artists treated of. The best thing in the book seems to us to be Bonington's wonderful rendering of the "Rue du Gros-

Horloge" at Rouen, which is quite alone in its combination of sharp architectural detail with the suggestion of space and light. Apropos of the recent contention that Mr. Pennell's lithographs are not lithographs at all because drawn on paper and transferred to the stone, it is worth noting that, according to Mr. Curtis, transfer paper has always been used in lithography, and its invention, by Senefelder himself, antedated his discovery of that method of printing which really constitutes lithography. Lithographic stones do not make a convenient travelling sketch-book, and a sketch transferred to the stone from paper loses little or nothing of its quality. For sketches the use of transfer paper is general, but they can be sketches only; such work as Bonnington's not being possible on anything but the stone itself.

ITALIAN ARCHITECTURE OF THE RENAISSANCE.

The Architecture of the Renaissance in Italy: A General View for the Use of Students and Others. By William J. Anderson, Architect; Associate of the Royal Institute of British Architects; Director of Architecture and Lecturer at the Glasgow School of Art. With fifty-four collotype and other plates, and seventy-four smaller illustrations in the text. London: B. T. Batsford. 1896.

In his interesting preface, Mr. Anderson asserts that "English writers who treat of the Italian Renaissance architecture concern themselves chiefly with the later periods," and he cites Fergusson's 'History of Architecture' and Gwilt's 'Encyclopædia of Architecture' as illustrations of the truth of that assertion. It would, however, be the opinion of persons conversant with Continental as well as English writing upon the subject, that the early Renaissance had received much more attention than either the middle time of Vignola and Palladio, or the still later periods. A great number of splendid illustrated works, monographs and other, have been devoted to the fifteenth century, while, in comparison, almost nothing has been done for either the sixteenth century or the seventeenth century. The charm of the early Renaissance, both in its Florentine and in its Northern aspects, has been so great and all-pervading that the student of artistic proclivities and strong feeling for what is refined and noble in design stops with what Mr. Anderson calls the "culmination," that is to say, with the buildings of from 1505 to 1540, or thereabout. The exquisite character of the early sculpture draws many a student to the conclusion that all that was very good, all that was delightful and, humanly speaking, perfect, was of the early time. The close and intimate association of the fifteenth-century architecture with the painting of that day has its fascinating influence on many others. It may almost be said that only those who study architecture for its own sake, as architects do and as only a very few amateurs can be found to do, interest themselves greatly in the sixteenth-century work or in that of later times; and even among the architects, it is rather they who study the traditional, the authoritative, the academic, than they who study works of fine art for the sake of their stimulating effect upon the mind, who take strongly to the later styles.

Mr. Anderson, however, assuming that the later styles have received the most attention, in which he may be right if those two English writers alone are to be considered, announces that he has devoted four-fifths of his space "to the early and culminating periods." By this he means that the epoch extending from 1420 to 1550 occupies one hundred and twenty-three of his pages, and that only twenty-four pages are given to the period from 1550 to the eighteenth century. His choice seems to us, therefore, to agree with that of the majority of students and the vast majority of writers who have devoted themselves to the revived classic architecture of Italy. He gives fifty-three plates, either in collotype from ordinary photographs, or in line from drawings of his own or from prints in books. There is about an equal number of text illustrations in half-tone, except where they also are line-cuts. The line reproductions are all very good, the lettering large enough to be easily read, except the figures of the scales, which are, for some reason, always made too small in these reproductions. The pictorial illustrations are much less successful. It is really surprising that such inadequate reproductions of photographs should be permitted in so good a book. When the large number of illustrations is deducted from the number of pages of letter-press, namely, one hundred and thirty-seven of actual narrative, it will be seen that there is really very little text to consider. Indeed, the book is announced as containing the substance of five lectures.

What is most valuable in it is the elaborate system of comparison between buildings in many parts of Italy. The author has not only travelled and observed, but has noted down his observations in such intelligible and accessible form that he is able to bring them together in such grouping as he chooses. The result is that an architectural motive which interests Mr. Anderson and which he thinks especially notable, he is able to illustrate by the different treatment it has received in Siena, in Perugia, in Verona, and in Padua, and, perhaps, at a later period, in Rome. In this way the book is a most useful one, and it sets an example to historians of architecture which those gentlemen will find it hard to follow. It is so easy to proceed in Fergusson's way, noting down one building after another, and saying once for all what you have to say about it, and so hard to proceed in Anderson's way, providing an historical record of motives and instances of underlying principles and resulting architectural effects! It need hardly be said that Mr. Anderson's way is immensely more instructive as well as more difficult. It does not, indeed, furnish quite such an easy dictionary of reference, which is probably the aspect in which most persons regard Fergusson's book. You do not take up such a book as the present and find on one page or following pages all that there is to be said about a certain church or palace; that information is scattered over many pages, for it is not the individual building so much as its peculiarities and its architectural character that are under consideration. Such a book as this can, however, always be used as a book of reference, if only it has an adequate index, and the present index seems to be adequate, or nearly so. Still, this remains a treatise on the subject and not an illustrated cyclopædia of buildings.

We could wish that the author had insisted less strongly on his objection to the later, or post-Renaissance, architecture, namely, to Palladio and Vignola on the one hand and to the highly ornate style of the Genoa palaces, the Cathedral of the same city, the Pesaro Palace at Venice, and the like, on the other hand. The business of the critical historian is to point out what is good and what is not so good in each style, but hardly to insist too strongly upon the absolute inferiority of one style to another. The reader may be left to say which merit he prefers and which demerit seems to him the most grave. There are many things to be said against the ornate later Italian styles of the seventeenth century, and something to be said in their favor; it is only now and then that a monument comes to our notice so absolutely tasteless and vulgar that it can be dismissed by the historian with words of absolute disparagement.

What has been said above of the comparison established between building and building and between detail and detail in different parts of Italy, should be said also of some general statements to which this comparative treatment leads the writer, and which are always worthy of careful note. Thus, his remark, page 40, that "Venice is the only centre which presents important examples of all three periods," namely, the early Renaissance, generally identified with Florence and Milan; the later Renaissance, generally identified with Rome; and the Palladian epoch, centred at Vicenza. This is extremely interesting, and connected with it are the wise remarks about the overlapping of different schools or tendencies of art. Thus, it is shown that the early Renaissance in Florence ends about 1500, while in Venice the early Renaissance reaches until 1525; and that in this way disorder enters into any attempt to divide the history of architecture into successive periods. The reader would have been glad of a more complete recognition of this truth, and would have accepted readily more positive statements of the great difference between the development of the northern and the Florentine Renaissance.

In two important matters of general consideration our author's argument is to be observed with care as a generally accurate statement of a much argued question. Much to be liked is the protest he makes against the doctrine of Mr. Fergusson that the Renaissance in architecture is a wholly artificial or sophisticated style, and the doctrine of Ruskin that it is an expression of moral corruption and mental decline. There is, of course, that side to it all. To the student who has in mind the smooth, logical growth of style out of style throughout the long post-Roman period, which, in the north of Europe, went on almost uninterruptedly until the close of the fifteenth century, the sudden transition from pointed architecture to would-be classical architecture in Italy is, indeed, surprising, and, in a sense, shocking. Such a student would be less astonished by this phenomenon did he consider the artificial manner of the introduction into Italy of that same pointed architecture which in the north was so natural and inevitable an outgrowth of earlier styles. It might be argued with perfect consistency that for Italy the pointed architecture was

the breach of continuity, and that Brunelleschi and Fra Giocondo were the real restorers of the true Italian tradition. The hint at this in Mr. Anderson's brief pages is all that could be asked. The same consideration comes up again on page 9, where the contrast between mediæval Italy and mediæval France and England is forcibly made. The much greater importance given in Italy to single artists of great repute and of exceptional position in their community, is a fact connected with all later artistic development, and one which it is well to have urged. Twelfth-century France was the home of organized decorative work, with such a sense of combination among designers as has never been seen elsewhere. Italy, at the same time, was already the home of many artists, whose names were known throughout the peninsula, and who worked as individuals, unswayed by the necessity of combining with their own the works of other and inferior men.

The Sultan and his Subjects. By Richard Davey. In two volumes; with frontispiece, plan, and map. E. P. Dutton & Co.

In one regard this book is eminently successful, namely, in giving a very vivid impression of the confusion of all things in Turkey. There races are mingled one with another; customs are manifold, languages legion, religions and sects multifarious, and often secret and mysterious. The laws and courts of law are as diverse and confusing as the nationalities, and by what code or in what court a man shall be judged it is often impossible to determine. All this strange confusion Mr. Davey contrives to reproduce in his book. Whether he deals with manners, morals, or the history of the country, all is confused. You ramble backward and forward; one moment you are in the seventeenth century, the next in the sixteenth, and the next in the nineteenth. The closest attention is required in order to follow the thread of the narrative. But not only this; Mr. Davey is extremely inaccurate and careless. On the second page of his first volume he refers to the caliphs Omar and Othman as the sons of Ali, and on the following page to Harun-al-Rashid as the grandson of El-Saffa, the founder of the Abasside dynasty. Somewhere, if our memory serves us aright, he locates Baghdad on the Euphrates; Edessa he places in Armenia proper, to the north of Diarbekir (ii. 156), while Jericho (i. 200) lies between Jaffa and Jerusalem. In one chapter we are told that the present Sultan, Abdul-Hamid, leaves his place of Yildiz only twice in a year, and in another we are informed that he leaves it every Friday to go to mosque. On the seventy-first page of volume i. occurs a transliteration of the muezzin call to prayer, with a translation which corresponds only in part. Cilicia appears systematically as Cilecia; *Keui*, the Turkish word for village, is written *Keni* almost if not quite as often as *Keui;* and the name of the late Canon Curtis, one of the best informed of Constantinopolitan antiquarians, is spelled Curtice.

These mistakes occur even in matters within the range of Mr. Davey's own immediate observation. Thus, the Dolma Baghtcheh palace in Constantinople is transported across the Bosphorus (i. 46), and Sir Henry Bulwer's notorious villa, or castle, on the little island of Plati in the Sea of Marmora, is placed on the much larger island of Proti (i. 324). Mr. Davey, in describing his trip around the walls of Constantinople, speaks of the picturesque appearance of the triple walls to the north of the Hebdomon, between the Hebdomon and the Golden Horn. He says (ii. 276): "The scene at this point is indescribably imposing. The triple row of walls, in most perfect preservation, towers up in all directions." But, as even his own map shows, there is a single wall at this point, the triple walls beginning to the southward of the Hebdomon, and extending from the Hebdomon to the Sea of Marmora. These are only a few chance specimens of the innumerable inaccuracies in which the book abounds.

The following statement with reference to the Armenian language may serve to illustrate Mr. Davey's general confusion of mind, resulting from partial and incorrect knowledge (ii. 196):

"It is otherwise with the Armenian language, which evidently belongs to that Hindoo-Germanic family whose mother-tongue is Sanscrit, 'the perfect language,' which reproduces in the highest degree of perfection certain linguistic peculiarities noticeable in some others, such as the Zend, Persian, Greek, and Latin, and the tongues still spoken in Germany and Slavonia. The bisyllabic peculiarity of the Sanscrit root distinguishes it, in a marked degree, from the two other chief languages of the human family, the Chinese and the Jewish."

Mr. Davey prefaces his first volume with four pages of a "list of the principal authorities consulted by the author in the writing of this work," thus suggesting an immense amount of study and research. He also refers frequently to ancient documents in the archives of the Bank of St. George at Genoa, and to other documents which have come into his possession, or which he has been allowed to use. Some of his sources ought to be extremely interesting, but he does not seem to know the value of evidence, or to be able to state correctly what he has read; and indeed one is often inclined to wonder whether he has actually read what he says he has. In the chapters dealing with Turkish life he introduces a great deal of hearsay evidence, and among others this story of "that admirable man, Helmi Pasha" (i., 279):

"He was a lad of twelve when, in 1825, a fearful massacre of Christians took place in his birthplace, the lovely island of Chio. The order had gone forth to slay adults only, and to spare the women and children. The boy was brought to Constantinople and sold as a slave to Sultan Mahmud II., who, perceiving his exceptional intelligence, sent him to Paris to be educated. On his return he was given an excellent post in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and in due time rose to be one of the most illustrious of Grand Viziers. One day an old beggar woman presented herself at the gates of the Sublime Porte, and begged an audience of his Highness, who, with true Oriental courtesy, ordered her to be admitted. She soon convinced him of the fact that he was her own son, torn from her in the terrible massacres which preceded the Greek War of Independence. The Grand Vizier ordered her to be conducted to his house, and installed in her rightful position as mother of the lord of the Hareem, which, according to Mohammedan etiquette, is even more august than that of Buyuk Hanum, or First Wife."

He goes on to inform us that the son of this Helmi is Hamdi Bey, who "has rendered incalculable service to art and archæology in his native city." Now the massacre of Chios took place, not in 1825, but in 1822. This massacre did not precede the Greek War of Independence, but was one of the incidents of the second year of that war. Hamdi Bey is the son of Edhem Pasha, not Helmi Pasha. Edhem Pasha's parents were slain in the massacre of Chios, and he was sold as a slave in Constantinople, but not to Sultan Mahmud II. The rest of the story is, we fancy, apocryphal. The whole is an example of the unreliability of Mr. Davey's narratives.

From the specimens of Mr. Davey's work already given it may be conjectured that his treatment of political history and current events is not likely to have very much value. Discussing the Greek War for Independence, in the chapter on the Greeks, his sympathies seem to be entirely with them, but in the chapter headed "A Brief History of Reform in Turkey," the destruction of the Egyptian fleet at Navarino is condemned as an outrage, and we are told that "Canning's one cry was that we should stand the friend in all sincerity and firmness of the Sultan. The Foreign Office betrayed him, and from that hour to this we have never fully regained our influence in the East" (i., 180); a most singular perversion of the facts. In the chapter on the Armenians (ii., 172), he says "that the slaughter of men, women, and children in the various parts of the Turkish empire inhabited by this unhappy race has amounted, within the last eighteen months, to something between 125,000 and 160,000. Sympathy surely is their right—even if more important national considerations must prevent an immediate and direct redress of the suffering inflicted—and a resolute endeavor and determination to leave no stone unturned which may effect a happy issue out of their afflictions"—which imperfect quotation from the Prayer Book would suggest that Mr. Davey has the same general and inaccurate knowledge of this as of everything else. It is interesting to know at least that the Armenians have a right to sympathy; but it would be still more interesting to hear what are the "more important national considerations" which prevent redress.

On page 207 of the same volume Mr. Davey says:

"By the Treaty of Berlin, signed in 1876, Great Britain took over, in a particular manner, the interests of the Armenian population of Turkey. It was promised protection, with an insistence on the due execution of the measures of reform called for by its condition. Buoyed by these assurances, the revolutionary party, at home and abroad, has grown gradually bolder, and the Armenian agitation, which five years ago menaced the peace of Turkey, now threatens the peace of Europe. Injudicious speeches and excited meetings in England have roused the fanaticism of the Mohammedan population of Turkey to fever pitch."

The inconsistency and impotence of this statement are sufficient to show our author's inability to deal with political questions. This passage also affords another instance of his varied misinformation. The Treaty of Berlin was signed, not in 1876, but in 1878.

Mr. Davey is certainly no friend to the Turk or his religion. He devotes one chapter to "The Failure of Islam," and has much to say everywhere about the ignorance, obstructiveness, barbarity, and corruption of the Turkish Government. But it is not worth while to quote more from such a work. Mr. Davey is an Englishman who spent, according to his own account, some six months in Constantinople, in the years 1893-94, and afterwards read up the subject with a view

to writing a book; and his "excuse for these two bulky voulmes" is "that his researches on the spot, as well as in every attainable work of authority on a subject so wide, so deep, and so important, could not with justice be compressed into a smaller space" (viii). The style, which is journalistic and extravagant, is almost as bad as the matter. The publisher's work is well done, and the outward appearance of the book is admirable. The contents of the work are worse than valueless; the only really good thing in the two volumes being the chronological list (ii., 331-338), which is borrowed entirely without acknowledgment from Grosvenor's 'Constantinople.'

Corporation Finance. By Thomas L. Greene. nople.'

We have little hesitation in predicting the success of this book. It belongs to a class of which it is customary to say that they "supply a long-felt want," and concerning which, when they appear, every one expresses wonder that they had not appeared before. Considering the immense volume of corporate securities, it is evident that there must be some system in marketing them. There must be tests of solvency, of legality of issue, of policy of management; but if any one had asked for a manual containing these tests and explaining the manner in which they should be applied, he would, before this treatise appeared, have inquired in vain. There are financial publications in plenty. There are volumes of reports of railroads and other corporations. But the investor who attempts to decide for himself, with no other aid than these, incurs great danger. Unless he has special training, the figures are confusing and often misleading. In the end, he is obliged to resort to expert opinion, and he frequently finds that even this is untrustworthy.

Mr. Greene shows that there is such a thing as a science of corporation finance and of the valuation of corporate securities. He begins with the principle that modern business is done chiefly with borrowed money, and that it tends to fall more and more into the hands of corporations. The limit of borrowing he fixes at the minimum value of the property, and he does not hesitate to say that it is sound policy to borrow to this extent. But in the determination of the minimum value of the property of a corporation the greatest difficulties are experienced. It is comparatively easy to put an approximately accurate valuation on a piece of real estate in a city. But to estimate the value of the property of a manufacturing company or of a railroad, is an altogether different matter. This value depends entirely on the business transacted, and we can judge of this business only by examining the books, or the condensed summaries of the books which make up the reports. Everything, therefore, depends on the principles observed in drawing up these reports, and they are made the subject of an analysis which occupies one-third of Mr. Greene's space. Perhaps the most instructive portion of these chapters is that devoted to the examination of the affairs of a supposititious railroad. It is certainly a masterly piece of work.

The chapter on railway bonds contains a vast amount of practical wisdom, somewhat unsystematically set forth. That on subsidiary companies and their securities has, perhaps, more that is new to the ordinary reader, and is certainly calculated to cause great searchings of heart to investors in the obligations of these companies. Mr. Greene contends that, in the case of corporations whose stock and bonds are in the hands of many persons, publicity should be insisted on. The annual reports of all railroads should contain statements in detail of every item of income and expense, including statistics of trains. By comparing these reports from year to year, and by contrasting the reports of similar railroads, the truth can be ascertained; not without labor, but with reasonable accuracy. Mr. Greene's account of reorganizations and receiverships is an admirable statement of the circumstances that have resulted in a very remarkable development of law and of financiering. We recognize the force of his contention that the embarrassment of a great railroad may require the aid of a receiver, but the courts have gone so far as practically to give preference to unsecured claims over those which are supposed to be secured. The general creditor, with proper counsel, comes in ahead of the bondholder who has a first mortgage as collateral. There should certainly be provision made for putting the mortgagee in possession within a fixed period after default—provided he is willing to take possession. Doubtless many bondholders prefer to let things take their present course rather than be troubled with the management of a railroad.

Somewhat less technical than the other chapters is that on "Public Policy towards Corporation Profits." The matter is really very simple. Our rapacious demagogues lay down the principle that any profits beyond the legal rate of interest, if made by a corporation, are excessive. There is no justification whatever for such a rule. So far as monopoly is concerned, all land-owners are no better than corporations—many of them cannot so well justify their gains. If a business is managed with exceptional skill and sagacity, its owners ought to be allowed to enjoy the profits they have made, whether the business is incorporated or not. There is no ground for the position of the demagogues; but they have made it in some States the position of the public. Hence, as Mr. Greene points out, the necessity of increasing the share capital of successful companies. If they declare dividends of 12 per cent., the newspapers will rage and demand legislative action. But if they double the number of their shares, and declare 6 per cent. dividends, although there will be a temporary outcry over "stockwatering," the thing will blow over and the dividend rate will not attract continual attention. But Mr. Greene's words of wisdom are not likely to reach the politicians, and the howl over "corporate greed" will be the slogan of our coming political struggles.

Gerbert; Un Pape philosophe, d'après l'histoire et d'après la légende. Par F. Picavet. [Bibliothèque de l'École des Hautes Études] Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1897.

The fortunes of Gerbert of Aurillac illustrate one of the leading causes of the domination obtained by the Church. For centuries it afforded the one opening through which men of low extraction, but of exceptional intellectual vigor, could carve for themselves a career and gratify ambition to the utmost. Through the enforcement of celibacy, its high places—save in unusual cases of demoralization—were relieved from the limitations of hereditary descent, and through successive generations it constantly drew into its service the keenest and most active minds, from among which, by a process of natural selection, were developed those who guided its policy and executed its plans. The simple monk of Aurillac, who, by the sheer force of his brilliant gifts, rose to the archiepiscopal sees of Reims and Ravenna, who bore a leading part in the transfer of the French crown from the Carlovingians to the Capetians, and who finally died in 1003 as Sylvester II., is a type of the men who, amid frequent reverses, built up the supremacy of the mediæval papacy.

Yet even among these men the position of Gerbert is unique in his combination of contemplation and action—of the enthusiastic student, of the supple man of affairs, and of the consummate politician. In his thirst for knowledge of the most diverse kinds he is untiring; he visits Spain to complete his training, and throughout life his constant cry is for books, to procure which he sends parchment and money wherever he can hear of a new manuscript to be copied. As *scholasticus*, or chief of the archiepiscopal schools of Reims, he is equally assiduous in imparting his stores to his disciples. As he himself says in a letter to Ecbert of Tours, "Whether in leisure or in business I teach what I know, and I learn what I do not know." We find him writing treatises on geometry and on arithmetic, and on the mysteries of transubstantiation, or making globes and armillary spheres to demonstrate the relations of the earth to the sun and planets. Science and theology, however, occupy but a portion of his incessant activity, which seeks the acquisition of everything knowable. Music and rhetoric and logic and philosophy command his deepest study, and he is as anxious to perfect himself in the Latin poets as in the 'Categories' of Aristotle or the 'Timæus' of Plato—one would scarce, indeed, expect to find the commentaries of Sergius on Virgil in the hands of a scholar of the tenth century. Yet with him all these varied acquirements were directed to practical ends—to extend the circle of knowledge among his contemporaries, to cultivate a lofty and persuasive eloquence, and to bend men to his will. How he succeeded is seen in his agitated career, during that stormy time in which, spite of repeated vicissitudes, he finally attained the highest dignity in Christendom.

The impression produced by him on the age is indicated by the legend attached to his name. Before a century had passed, men seemed to think that such all-comprehensive knowledge and such glittering success could have been acquired only by a compact with the demon. As the story grew, it was adorned with fantastic marvels, and throughout the middle ages Gerbert passed unquestioned as a magician who, on his death-bed, had confessed his crimes and in expiation had ordered his body to be cut in pieces. No subsequent pope ventured to assume his ill-omened name, in spite of the attractiveness surrounding that of Sylvester, who, in mediæval belief, had brought about the conversion of the Roman Empire. Curiously enough, moreover, when enlightenment began to reject the marvellous stories of the older chroniclers, he became the subject of a debate which rendered him even more distasteful to the orthodox. In the

Capetian revolution he had displaced from the see of Reims Archbishop Arnoul, a natural son of King Lothair. John XV. espoused the cause of the deposed prelate, and, after a five years' struggle, Gerbert was forced to yield. During the conflict he expressed himself in vigorous terms against the pretensions of the Holy See to intervene in a local question, and he did not recant on assuming the tiara, as Pius II. subsequently did when he publicly condemned the opinions which he had uttered as Aeneas Sylvius. In the sixteenth century the reformers resuscitated Gerbert's writings as an efficient weapon in their quarrel with Rome, which naturally led the papalists to revile him on other grounds than his cultivation of forbidden arts. The question has been warmly contested to the present day, and Gerbert's memory has been subjected to vicissitudes as marked as those which distinguished his living career.

It is therefore a real service which M. Picavet has rendered by his minute examination of Gerbert's life and environment. He has exhausted the scanty sources remaining of the period, and has made a microscopic examination of Gerbert's writings, especially of his letters, in the effort to determine what manner of man he was and to set forth the motives of his acts. If in this he has somewhat unduly eulogized his hero, the fault is venial. Unfortunately, however, in emulating German thoroughness of research he has caught something of German prolixity and dulness, and we miss the lucidity of style and the crispness of presentment which we are accustomed to expect in French writing. It was not necessary, moreover, for the exaltation of Gerbert, to cast a slur on Abelard (p. 200) as denouncing mathematics in a passage which self-evidently refers to mathematics in the then generally accepted sense of astrology and magic. We might also take exception to the unqualified statement (p. 4) that about 432 St. Patrick converted Ireland, thus apparently assuming the identity of Patrick with the Palladius who Bede tells us was sent by Cœlestin I., in the eighth year of Theodosius II., to the Christianized Scots as their first bishop.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, W. B. The Great Island; or Cast Away in Papua. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Co. 75c.
Art and Life, and the Building and Decoration of Cities. London: Rivington, Percival & Co.
Aylesworth, B. O. Song and Fable. Des Moines: Kenyon Press.
Balzac, H. de. Lost Illusions. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Bascom, Prof. John. Evolution and Religion. Putnams. $1.25.
Bayliss, Clara K. In Brook and Bayou. Appletons. 60c.
Berghaus, H. Chart of the World. 12th ed. Gotha: Justus Perthes; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Berwick, John. The Secret of Saint Florel. Macmillan. $1.25.
Bigham, Clive. A Ride through Western Asia. London: Methuen & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $3.
Blodgett, Mabel F. At the Queen's Mercy. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co. $1.25.
Boldrewood, Rolf. My Run Home. Macmillan. $1.25.
Borsari, Luigi. Topografia di Roma Antica. Con 7 Tavoli. Milan: Ulrico Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Bradford, Rev. A. H. The Growing Revelation. Macmillan. $1.50.
Chamberlain, Rev. N. H. Samuel Sewall and the World He Lived in. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co.
Collar, W. C. Via Latina: An Easy Latin Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Conway, Sir W. M. The First Crossing of Spitzbergen. London: Dent; New York: Scribners. $10.
Crawford, F. M. A Rose of Yesterday. Macmillan. $1.25.
Dickens, Charles. Nicholas Nickleby. 2 vols. [Gadshill Edition.] London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribners. $3.
Fytche, M. Amelia. Kerchiefs to Hunt Souls. F. T. Neely.
Hudson, W. C. An American Cavalier. Cassell. 50c.
Kuhne, Louis. Facial Diagnosis. New York: A. F. Reinhold. $1.
Lewis, Prof. E. H. A First Book in Writing English. Macmillan. 80c.
Link, S. A. William Gilmore Simms. [Pioneers of Southern Literature.] Nashville: Barber & Smith. 10c.
Luce, Robert. Going Abroad? Some Advice. Boston: R. & L. Luce. $1.
Mace, Prof. W. H. Method in History. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Read, Opie. "Odd Folks." F. T. Neely.

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